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Program Optimization

TU München

Winter 2019/20

Organization

Dates:	Lecture:	Wednesday, 10:15-11:45
		Thursday, 10:15-11:45
	Tutorial:	Anastasiia Izycheva
	Material:	slides
		Moodle
		Program Analysis and Transformation
		Springer, 2012

- **Grades:** voluntary assignments
 - written exam

0 Introduction

Observation 1 Intuitive programs often are inefficient.

Example void swap (int i, int j) { int t; if (a[i] > a[j]) { t = a[j]; a[j] = a[i]; a[i] = t; } }

Inefficiencies

- Addresses a[i], a[j] are computed three times
- Values a[i], a[j] are loaded twice

Improvement

- Use a pointer to traverse the array a;
- store the values of a[i], a[j]!

Higher programming languages (even C) abstract from hardware and efficiency.

It is up to the compiler to adapt intuitively written program to hardware.

Examples

- ... Filling of delay slots;
- ... Utilization of special instructions;
- ... Re-organization of memory accesses for better cache behavior;
- ... Removal of (useless) overflow/range checks.

Programm-Improvements need not always be correct !

Example

 $y = f() + f(); \implies y = 2 * f();$

Idea: Save second evaluation of f() ...

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Example

 $y = f() + f(); \implies y = 2 * f();$

Idea: Save the second evaluation of f () ???

Problem: The second evaluation may return a result different from the first; (e.g., because f() reads from the input

Consequences

- \implies Optimizations have assumptions.
- \implies The assumption must be:
 - formalized,
 - checked !
- → It must be proven that the optimization is correct, i.e., preserves the semantics !!!

Optimization techniques depend on the programming language:

- \rightarrow which inefficiencies occur;
- \rightarrow how analyzable programs are;
- \rightarrow how difficult/impossible it is to prove correctness ...



Unavoidable Inefficiencies

- * Array-bound checks;
- * Dynamic method invocation;
- * Bombastic object organization ...

Analyzability

- + no pointer arithmetic;
- + no pointer into the stack;
- dynamic class loading;
- reflection, exceptions, threads, ...

Correctness proofs

- + more or less well-defined semantics;
- features, features, features;
- libraries with changing behavior ...

... in this course:

a simple imperative programming language with

- variables //
- R = e; //
- R = M[e]; //
- $M[e_1] = e_2;$ //
- if $(e) s_1$ else s_2 // conditional branching
- goto *L*; //
- registers assignments loads stores conditional bra
 - no loops

Remark

- For the beginning, we omit procedures ...
- External procedures are taken into account through a statement *f*() for an unknown procedure *f*.
 - → intra-procedural
 - \implies kind of an intermediate language in which (almost) everything can be translated.

Example swap()

Optimization 1:

$$1 * R \implies R$$

Optimization 2: Reuse of subexpressions

$$A_1 == A_5 == A_6$$

 $A_2 == A_3 == A_4$

$$M[A_1] == M[A_5]$$
$$M[A_2] == M[A_3]$$

$$R_1 == R_3$$

By this, we obtain:

$$A_{1} = A_{0} + i;$$

$$R_{1} = M[A_{1}];$$

$$A_{2} = A_{0} + j;$$

$$R_{2} = M[A_{2}];$$
if $(R_{1} > R_{2})$ {
$$t = R_{2};$$

$$M[A_{2}] = R_{1};$$

$$M[A_{1}] = t;$$
}

Gain

	before	after
+	6	2
*	6	0
load	4	2
store	2	2
	1	1
—	6	2

1 Removing superfluous computations

1.1 Repeated computations

Idea

If the same value is computed repeatedly, then

- \rightarrow store it after the first computation;
- \rightarrow replace every further computation through a look-up!
 - \implies Availability of expressions

→ Memoization

Problem: Identify repeated computations!

Example

$$z = 1;$$

$$y = M[17];$$

$$A: x_1 = y+z;$$

$$\dots$$

$$B: x_2 = y+z;$$

Remark

B is a repeated computation of the value of y + z, if:

(1) A is always executed before B; and

(2) y and z at B have the same values as at A.



- \rightarrow an operational semantics;
- → a method which identifies at least some repeated computations ...

Background 1: An Operational Semantics

we choose a small-step operational approach. Programs are represented as control-flow graphs. In the example:

start

$$A_1 = A_0 + 1 * i;$$

 $R_1 = M[A_1];$
 $A_2 = A_0 + 1 * j;$
 $R_2 = M[A_2];$
Neg $(R_1 > R_2)$
stop
 $A_3 = A_0 + 1 * j;$

Thereby, represent:

vertex	program point
start	programm start
stop	program exit
edge	step of computation

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Edge Labelings:

Test :	Pos (e) or Neg (e)
Assignment :	R = e;
Load :	R = M[e];
Store :	$M[e_1] = e_2;$
Nop :	;

Computations follow paths.

Computations transform the current state

$$s = (\rho, \mu)$$

where:

$\rho: Vars \to \mathbf{int}$	contents of registers
$\mu:\mathbb{N} ightarrow\mathbf{int}$	contents of storage

Every edge k = (u, lab, v) defines a partial transformation

$$[\![k]\!]=[\![lab]\!]$$

of the state:

$$[\![;]\!](\rho,\mu) = (\rho,\mu)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Pos}(e) \end{bmatrix}(\rho, \mu) &= (\rho, \mu) & \text{if } \llbracket e \rrbracket \rho \neq 0 \\ \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Neg}(e) \end{bmatrix}(\rho, \mu) &= (\rho, \mu) & \text{if } \llbracket e \rrbracket \rho = 0 \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

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// $[\![e]\!]$: evaluation of the expression *e*, e.g. // $[\![x+y]\!] \{x \mapsto 7, y \mapsto -1\} = 6$ // $[\![!(x==4)]\!] \{x \mapsto 5\} = 1$

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// $\llbracket e \rrbracket$: evaluation of the expression e, e.g.

//
$$[x + y] \{x \mapsto 7, y \mapsto -1\} = 6$$

// $[!(x == 4)] \{x \mapsto 5\} = 1$

 $\llbracket R = e; \rrbracket(\rho, \mu) = \left(\rho \oplus \{ R \mapsto \llbracket e \rrbracket \rho \}, \mu \right)$

// where " \oplus " modifies a mapping at a given argument

$$[R = M[e];] (\rho, \mu) = (\rho \oplus \{R \mapsto \mu([e]] \rho)\}, \mu)$$
$$[M[e_1] = e_2;] (\rho, \mu) = (\rho, \mu \oplus \{[e_1]] \rho \mapsto [[e_2]] \rho\})$$

Example

$$[x = x + 1;]] (\{x \mapsto 5\}, \mu) = (\rho, \mu)$$
 where:

$$\rho = \{x \mapsto 5\} \oplus \{x \mapsto [[x+1]] \{x \mapsto 5\}\}$$
$$= \{x \mapsto 5\} \oplus \{x \mapsto 6\}$$
$$= \{x \mapsto 6\}$$

A path $\pi = k_1 k_2 \dots k_m$ is a computation for the state s if: $s \in def(\llbracket k_m \rrbracket \circ \dots \circ \llbracket k_1 \rrbracket)$

The result of the computation is:

$$\llbracket \pi \rrbracket \mathbf{s} = (\llbracket k_m \rrbracket \circ \ldots \circ \llbracket k_1 \rrbracket) \mathbf{s}$$

Application

Assume that we have computed the value of x + y at program point u:



We perform a computation along path π and reach v where we evaluate again x + y ...

Idea

If x and y have not been modified in π , then evaluation of x + y at v must return the same value as evaluation at u!

We can check this property at every edge in π ...

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More generally:

Assume that the values of the expressions $A = \{e_1, \dots, e_r\}$ are available at u.

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If x and y have not been modified in π , then evaluation of x + y at v must return the same value as evaluation at u!

We can check this property at every edge in π ...

More generally:

Assume that the values of the expressions $A = \{e_1, \dots, e_r\}$ are available at u.

Every edge k transforms this set into a set $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp} A$ of expressions whose values are available after execution of k ...

... which transformations can be composed to the effect of a path $\pi = k_1 \dots k_r$:

$$\llbracket \pi
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The effect $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$ of an edge k = (u, lab, v) only depends on the label *lab*, i.e., $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp} = [\![lab]\!]^{\sharp}$ where:

$$\begin{split} \llbracket : \rrbracket^{\sharp} A &= A \\ \llbracket Pos(e) \rrbracket^{\sharp} A &= \llbracket Neg(e) \rrbracket^{\sharp} A &= A \cup \{e\} \\ \llbracket x = e : \rrbracket^{\sharp} A &= (A \cup \{e\}) \backslash Expr_{x} & \text{where} \\ Expr_{x} \text{ all expressions which contain } x \end{split}$$
$$\llbracket x = M[e]; \rrbracket^{\sharp} A = (A \cup \{e\}) \setminus Expr_x$$
$$\llbracket M[e_1] = e_2; \rrbracket^{\sharp} A = A \cup \{e_1, e_2\}$$

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By that, every path can be analyzed.

A given program may admit several paths.

For any given input, another path may be chosen ...

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 \implies We require the set:

$$\mathcal{A}[v] = \bigcap \{ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} \emptyset \mid \pi : start \to^{*} v \}$$

Concretely:

- \rightarrow We consider all paths π which reach v.
- \rightarrow For every path π , we determine the set of expressions which are available along π .
- \rightarrow Initially at program start, nothing is available
- \rightarrow We compute the intersection \implies safe information

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How do we exploit this information ???

Transformation 1.1

We provide novel registers T_e as storage for the e:



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We provide novel registers T_e as storage for the e:



... analogously for R = M[e]; and $M[e_1] = e_2$;.

Transformation 1.2

If e is available at program point u, then e need not be re-evaluated:



We replace the assignment with *Nop*.

$$x = y + 3;$$

$$x = 7;$$

$$z = y + 3;$$

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$$T = y + 3;$$

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$$x = 7;$$

$$T = y + 3;$$

$$z = T;$$

$$x = y + 3;$$

 $x = 7;$
 $z = y + 3;$

Correctness: (Idea)

Transformation 1.1 preserves the semantics and $\mathcal{A}[u]$ for all program points u — at least for the original program points and variables !

Assume $\pi : start \to^* u$ is the path taken by a computation. If $e \in \mathcal{A}[u]$, then also $e \in [\pi]^{\sharp} \emptyset$.

Therefore, π can be decomposed into:



with the following properties:

- The expression e is evaluated at the edge k;
- The expression *e* is not removed from the set of available expressions at any edge in π₂, i.e., no variable of *e* receives a new value.

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The register T_e contains the value of e whenever u is reached.

Caveat

Transformation 1.1 is only meaningful for assignments x = e; where:

- \rightarrow $x \notin Vars(e);$
- $\rightarrow e \notin Vars;$
- \rightarrow the evaluation of *e* is non-trivial.

Question

How can we compute $\mathcal{A}[u]$ for every program point u ??

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We collect all restrictions to the values of $\mathcal{A}[u]$ into a system of constraints:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathcal{A}[\textit{start}] & \subseteq & \emptyset \\ \mathcal{A}[v] & \subseteq & \llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp} \left(\mathcal{A}[u] \right) & \qquad k = (u, _, v) & \text{edge} \end{array}$$

- a maximally large solution (??)
- an algorithm which computes this ...



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$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathcal{A}[\mathbf{0}] &\subseteq & \emptyset \\ \mathcal{A}[\mathbf{1}] &\subseteq & (\mathcal{A}[\mathbf{0}] \cup \{1\}) \backslash Expr_y \\ \mathcal{A}[\mathbf{1}] &\subseteq & \mathcal{A}[\mathbf{4}] \end{array}$$

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 $\mathcal{A}[0] \subseteq \emptyset$ $\mathcal{A}[1] \subseteq (\mathcal{A}[0] \cup \{1\}) \setminus Expr_y$ $\mathcal{A}[1] \subseteq \mathcal{A}[4]$ $\mathcal{A}[2] \subseteq \mathcal{A}[1] \cup \{x > 1\}$ $\mathcal{A}[3] \subseteq (\mathcal{A}[2] \cup \{x * y\}) \setminus Expr_y$

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- a maximally large solution (??)
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$\mathcal{A}[0]$	\subseteq	Ø
$\mathcal{A}[1]$	\subseteq	$(\mathcal{A}[0] \cup \{1\}) \backslash Expr_y$
$\mathcal{A}[1]$	\subseteq	$\mathcal{A}[4]$
$\mathcal{A}[2]$	\subseteq	$\mathcal{A}[1] \cup \{x > 1\}$
$\mathcal{A}[3]$	\subseteq	$(\mathcal{A}[2] \cup \{x * y\}) \backslash Expr_y$
$\mathcal{A}[4]$	\subseteq	$(\mathcal{A}[3] \cup \{x-1\}) \setminus Expr_x$
$\mathcal{A}[5]$	\subseteq	$\mathcal{A}[1] \cup \{x > 1\}$

- a maximally large solution (??)
- an algorithm which computes this ...



Solution:

$$\mathcal{A}[0] = \emptyset$$

$$\mathcal{A}[1] = \{1\}$$

$$\mathcal{A}[2] = \{1, x > 1\}$$

$$\mathcal{A}[3] = \{1, x > 1\}$$

$$\mathcal{A}[4] = \{1\}$$

$$\mathcal{A}[5] = \{1, x > 1\}$$

Observation

• The possible values for $\mathcal{A}[u]$ form a complete lattice:

 $\mathbb{D} = 2^{Expr}$ with $B_1 \sqsubseteq B_2$ iff $B_1 \supseteq B_2$

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 $\mathbb{D} = 2^{Expr}$ with $B_1 \sqsubseteq B_2$ iff $B_1 \supseteq B_2$

• The functions $\llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$ are monotonic, i.e., $\llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp}(B_1) \sqsubseteq \llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp}(B_2)$ whenever $B_1 \sqsubseteq B_2$

Background 2: Complete Lattices

A set \mathbb{D} together with a relation $\sqsubseteq \subseteq \mathbb{D} \times \mathbb{D}$ is a partial order if for all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{D}$,

$$a \sqsubseteq a$$
reflexivity $a \sqsubseteq b \land b \sqsubseteq a \implies a = b$ $anti-symmetry$ $a \sqsubseteq b \land b \sqsubseteq c \implies a \sqsubseteq c$ transitivity

Examples

1.
$$\mathbb{D} = 2^{\{a,b,c\}}$$
 with the relation " \subseteq " :



- 2. \mathbb{Z} with the relation "=" :
 - $\cdots \quad -2 \quad -1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad \cdots$
- 3. \mathbb{Z} with the relation " \leq " :



4. $\mathbb{Z}_{\perp} = \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\perp\}$ with the ordering:

••• -2 -1

0 1 2 •••

 $d \in \mathbb{D}$ is called upper bound for $X \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ if

 $x \sqsubseteq d$ for all $x \in X$

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d is called least upper bound (lub) if

1. d is an upper bound and

2. $d \sqsubseteq y$ for every upper bound y of X.

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Caveat

- $\{0, 2, 4, \ldots\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ has no upper bound!
- $\{0, 2, 4\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ has the upper bounds $4, 5, 6, \ldots$

A complete lattice (cl) \mathbb{D} is a partial ordering where every subset $X \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ has a least upper bound $\bigsqcup X \in \mathbb{D}$.

Remark

Every complete lattice has

- \rightarrow a least element $\bot = \bigsqcup \emptyset \in \mathbb{D};$
- \rightarrow a greatest element $\top = \bigsqcup \mathbb{D} \in \mathbb{D}$.

Examples

- 1. $\mathbb{D} = 2^{\{a,b,c\}}$ is a cl.
- 2. $\mathbb{D} = \mathbb{Z}$ with "=" is not.
- 3. $\mathbb{D} = \mathbb{Z}$ with " \leq " is neither.
- 4. $\mathbb{D} = \mathbb{Z}_{\perp}$ is also not.
- 5. With an extra element \top , we obtain the flat lattice $\mathbb{Z}_{\perp}^{\top} = \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\perp, \top\}$:



We have:

Theorem

If \mathbb{D} is a complete lattice, then every subset $X \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ has a greatest lower bound $\prod X$.
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Construct $U = \{ u \in \mathbb{D} \mid \forall x \in X : u \sqsubseteq x \}.$ // the set of all lower bounds of X We have:

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Proof

Construct $U = \{u \in \mathbb{D} \mid \forall x \in X : u \sqsubseteq x\}.$ // the set of all lower bounds of XSet: $g := \bigsqcup U$ Claim: $g = \prod X$

(1) g is a lower bound of X:

Assume $x \in X$. Then: $u \sqsubseteq x$ for all $u \in U$ $\implies x$ is an upper bound of U $\implies g \sqsubseteq x$ (1) g is a lower bound of X:

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(2) g is the greatest lower bound of X:

Assume u is a lower bound of X. Then: $u \in U$ $\implies u \sqsubseteq g$







$$x_i \quad \supseteq \quad f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) \tag{(*)}$$

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where:

x_i	unknown	here:	$\mathcal{A}[u]$
\mathbb{D}	values	here:	2^{Expr}
$\sqsubseteq \subseteq \mathbb{D} \times \mathbb{D}$	ordering relation	here:	\supseteq
$f_i \colon \mathbb{D}^n \to \mathbb{D}$	constraint	here:	

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 $\begin{array}{lll} \text{Constraint for} & \mathcal{A}[v] & (v \neq start): \\ \\ \mathcal{A}[v] & \subseteq & \bigcap\{[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}\left(\mathcal{A}[u]\right) \mid k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge}\} \end{array}$

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Constraint for $\mathcal{A}[v]$ $(v \neq start)$: $\mathcal{A}[v] \subseteq \bigcap \{ [k]^{\sharp} (\mathcal{A}[u]) \mid k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge} \}$ Because:

$$x \supseteq d_1 \land \ldots \land x \supseteq d_k \quad \text{iff} \quad x \supseteq \bigsqcup \{d_1, \ldots, d_k\}$$

Examples

(1) $\mathbb{D}_1 = \mathbb{D}_2 = 2^U$ for a set U and $f x = (x \cap a) \cup b$. Obviously, every such f is monotonic.

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 (with the ordering " \leq "). Then:

- inc x = x + 1 is monotonic.
- dec x = x 1 is monotonic.

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(1) $\mathbb{D}_1 = \mathbb{D}_2 = 2^U$ for a set U and $f x = (x \cap a) \cup b$. Obviously, every such f is monotonic.

(2) $\mathbb{D}_1 = \mathbb{D}_2 = \mathbb{Z}$ (with the ordering " \leq "). Then:

- inc x = x + 1 is monotonic.
- dec x = x 1 is monotonic.
- inv x = -x is not monotonic.

If $f_1: \mathbb{D}_1 \to \mathbb{D}_2$ and $f_2: \mathbb{D}_2 \to \mathbb{D}_3$ are monotonic, then also $f_2 \circ f_1: \mathbb{D}_1 \to \mathbb{D}_3$.

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Theorem

If \mathbb{D}_2 is a complete lattice, then the set $[\mathbb{D}_1 \to \mathbb{D}_2]$ of monotonic functions $f: \mathbb{D}_1 \to \mathbb{D}_2$ is also a complete lattice where

$$f \sqsubseteq g$$
 iff $f x \sqsubseteq g x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{D}_1$

If $f_1 : \mathbb{D}_1 \to \mathbb{D}_2$ and $f_2 : \mathbb{D}_2 \to \mathbb{D}_3$ are monotonic, then also $f_2 \circ f_1 : \mathbb{D}_1 \to \mathbb{D}_3$.

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In particular for $F \subseteq [\mathbb{D}_1 \to \mathbb{D}_2]$,

$$\Box F = f$$
 with $f x = \bigsqcup \{g x \mid g \in F\}$

For functions $f_i x = a_i \cap x \cup b_i$, the operations " \circ ", " \sqcup " and " \sqcap " can be explicitly defined by:

$$(f_{2} \circ f_{1}) x = a_{1} \cap a_{2} \cap x \cup a_{2} \cap b_{1} \cup b_{2}$$

$$(f_{1} \sqcup f_{2}) x = (a_{1} \cup a_{2}) \cap x \cup b_{1} \cup b_{2}$$

$$(f_{1} \sqcap f_{2}) x = (a_{1} \cup b_{1}) \cap (a_{2} \cup b_{2}) \cap x \cup b_{1} \cap b_{2}$$

$$x_i \supseteq f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n \tag{(*)}$$

where all $f_i : \mathbb{D}^n \to \mathbb{D}$ are monotonic.

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Idea

• Consider $F : \mathbb{D}^n \to \mathbb{D}^n$ where $F(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ with $y_i = f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

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Idea

Consider F: Dⁿ → Dⁿ where F(x₁,...,x_n) = (y₁,...,y_n) with y_i = f_i(x₁,...,x_n).
If all f_i are monotonic, then also F.

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- Consider $F : \mathbb{D}^n \to \mathbb{D}^n$ where $F(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ with $y_i = f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.
- If all f_i are monotonic, then also F.
- We successively approximate a solution. We construct:

 $\underline{\perp}, \quad F \underline{\perp}, \quad F^2 \underline{\perp}, \quad F^3 \underline{\perp}, \quad \dots$

Hope: We eventually reach a solution ... ???

Example:
$$\mathbb{D} = 2^{\{a,b,c\}}, \subseteq \subseteq \subseteq$$

$$x_1 \supseteq \{a\} \cup x_3$$
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	0	1	2	3	4
x_1	Ø				
x_2	Ø				
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x_1	Ø	{ a }	$\{a, c\}$	$\{a, c\}$	
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x_1	Ø	{ a }	$\{a, c\}$	$\{a, c\}$	ditto
x_2	Ø	Ø	Ø	{ a }	
x_3	Ø	{ <i>c</i> }	$\{a, c\}$	$\{a, c\}$	

• $\underline{\perp}, F \underline{\perp}, F^2 \underline{\perp}, \dots$ form an ascending chain :

 $\underline{\perp} \quad \sqsubseteq \quad F \underline{\perp} \quad \sqsubseteq \quad F^2 \underline{\perp} \quad \sqsubseteq \quad \dots$

- If $F^k \perp = F^{k+1} \perp$, a solution is obtained which is the least one.
- If all ascending chains are finite, such a k always exists.

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- If $F^k \perp = F^{k+1} \perp$, a solution is obtained which is the least one.
- If all ascending chains are finite, such a k always exists.

Proof

The first claim follows by complete induction:

Foundation: $F^0 \perp = \perp \sqsubseteq F^1 \perp$.

Step: Assume $F^{i-1} \perp \subseteq F^i \perp$. Then

 $F^{i} \underline{\perp} = F\left(F^{i-1} \underline{\perp}\right) \sqsubseteq F\left(F^{i} \underline{\perp}\right) = F^{i+1} \underline{\perp}$

since *F* monotonic.

Step: Assume $F^{i-1} \perp \sqsubseteq F^i \perp$. Then $F^i \perp = F(F^{i-1} \perp) \sqsubseteq F(F^i \perp) = F^{i+1} \perp$

since *F* monotonic.

Conclusion

If \mathbb{D} is finite, a solution can be found which is definitely the least.

Question

What, if \mathbb{D} is not finite ???

Knaster – Tarski

Assume \mathbb{D} is a complete lattice. Then every monotonic function $f: \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$ has a least fixpoint $d_0 \in \mathbb{D}$.

- Let $P = \{ d \in \mathbb{D} \mid f d \sqsubseteq d \}.$
- Then $d_0 = \prod P$.



Bronisław Knaster (1893-1980), topology

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(1) $d_0 \in P$:
Theorem

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Let $P = \{ d \in \mathbb{D} \mid f d \sqsubseteq d \}.$ Then $d_0 = \prod P$.

Proof

(1)
$$d_0 \in P$$
:
 $f d_0 \sqsubseteq f d \sqsubseteq d$ for all $d \in P$
 $\implies f d_0$ is a lower bound of P
 $\implies f d_0 \sqsubseteq d_0$ since $d_0 = \prod P$
 $\implies d_0 \in P$

(2)
$$f d_0 = d_0$$
:

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 $\implies f(f d_0) \sqsubseteq f d_0$ by monotonicity of f
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(3) d_0 is least fixpoint:

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(3)
$$d_0$$
 is least fixpoint:

$$f d_1 = d_1 \sqsubseteq d_1 \quad \text{an other fixpoint}$$

$$\implies d_1 \in P$$

$$\implies d_0 \sqsubseteq d_1$$

Remark

The least fixpoint d_0 is in P and a lower bound.

 \implies d_0 is the least value x with $x \supseteq f x$

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Application

Assume $x_i \supseteq f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$ (*) is a system of constraints where all $f_i : \mathbb{D}^n \to \mathbb{D}$ are monotonic.

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Application

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$$x_i \supseteq f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$
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 \implies least solution of(*) == least fixpoint of F.



$\int f$	$f^k \perp$	$f^k \top$
0	Ø	U
1	b	$a \cup b$

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$$\mathbb{D} = 2^U$$
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Example 2 $\mathbb{D} = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$

Assume f x = x + 1. Then

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Ordinary iteration will never reach a fixpoint ! Sometimes, transfinite iteration is needed.

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	1	2	3	4
0	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø
1	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	{1}	{1}	{1}
2	Expr	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$
3	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$
4	{1}	{1}	{1}	{1}
5	Expr	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$

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	1	2	3	4	5
0	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø	
1	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	{1}	{1}	$\{1\}$	
2	Expr	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$	
3	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$	ditto
4	{1}	{1}	{1}	$\{1\}$	
5	Expr	$\{1, x > 1, x - 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$	

Idea: Round Robin Iteration

Instead of accessing the values of the last iteration, always use the current values of unknowns.

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0

1

 $\mathbf{2}$

3

4

5



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1

Ø

{1}

 $\{1\}$



Idea: Round Robin Iteration

Instead of accessing the values of the last iteration, always use the current values of unknowns.





The code for Round Robin Iteration in Java looks as follows:

```
for (i = 1; i \le n; i++) x_i = \bot;
do {
      finished = true;
      for (i = 1; i \le n; i++) {
             new = f_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n);
             if (!(x_i \supseteq new)) {
                    finished = false;
                    x_i = x_i \sqcup new;
             }
} while (!finished);
```

Assume $y_i^{(d)}$ is the *d*th component of $F^d \perp$. Assume $x_i^{(d)}$ is the value of x_i after the *d*th RR-iteration.

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One proves:

(1) $y_i^{(d)} \sqsubseteq x_i^{(d)}$.

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One proves:

(1) $y_i^{(d)} \sqsubseteq x_i^{(d)}$. (2) $x_i^{(d)} \sqsubseteq z_i$ for every solution (z_1, \dots, z_n) .

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One proves:

- (1) $y_i^{(d)} \sqsubseteq x_i^{(d)}$. (2) $x_i^{(d)} \sqsubseteq z_i$ for every solution (z_1, \dots, z_n) .
- (3) If RR-iteration terminates after *d* rounds, then $(x_1^{(d)}, \ldots, x_n^{(d)})$ is a solution.

Caveat

The efficiency of RR-iteration depends on the ordering of the unknowns !!!

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Good:

- \rightarrow *u* before *v*, if *u* $\rightarrow^* v$;
- \rightarrow entry condition before loop body.

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Good:

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- \rightarrow entry condition before loop body.

Bad:

e.g., post-order DFS of the CFG, starting at start.



Inefficient Round Robin Iteration




	1
0	Expr
1	{1}
2	$\{1, x - 1, x > 1\}$
3	Expr
4	{1}
5	Ø



	1	2
0	Expr	$\{1, x > 1\}$
1	{1}	{1}
2	$\{1, x - 1, x > 1\}$	$\{1, x - 1, x > 1\}$
3	Expr	$\{1, x > 1\}$
4	{1}	$\{1\}$
5	Ø	Ø



	1	2	3
0	Expr	$\{1, x > 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$
1	{1}	{1}	$\{1\}$
2	$\{1, x - 1, x > 1\}$	$\{1, x - 1, x > 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$
3	Expr	$\{1, x > 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$
4	{1}	{1}	$\{1\}$
5	Ø	Ø	Ø



	1	2	3	4
0	Expr	$\{1, x > 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$	
1	{1}	{1}	{1}	
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3	Expr	$\{1, x > 1\}$	$\{1, x > 1\}$	
4	{1}	{1}	{1}	
5	Ø	Ø	Ø	

significantly less efficient !

Final Question

Why is a (or the least) solution of the constraint system useful ???

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For a complete lattice \mathbb{D} , consider systems:

 $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{I}[start] &\supseteq d_0 \\ \mathcal{I}[v] &\supseteq [\![k]\!]^{\sharp} \left(\mathcal{I}[u] \right) \qquad k = (u, _, v) \quad \text{edge} \end{aligned}$

where $d_0 \in \mathbb{D}$ and all $\llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$ are monotonic ...

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where $d_0 \in \mathbb{D}$ and all $\llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$ are monotonic ...



Wanted: MOP (Merge Over all Paths)

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Theorem

Kam, Ullman 1975

Assume \mathcal{I} is a solution of the constraint system. Then: $\mathcal{I}[v] \ \sqsupseteq \ \mathcal{I}^*[v] \quad \text{for every} \quad v$



Jeffrey D. Ullman, Stanford

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Assume \mathcal{I} is a solution of the constraint system. Then: $\mathcal{I}[v] \supseteq \mathcal{I}^*[v]$ for every vIn particular: $\mathcal{I}[v] \supseteq [\![\pi]\!]^{\sharp} d_0$ for every $\pi : start \to^* v$

Foundation: $\pi = \epsilon$ (empty path)

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Foundation: $\pi = \epsilon$ (empty path) Then: $[\pi]^{\sharp} d_0 = [e]^{\sharp} d_0 = d_0 \subseteq \mathcal{I}[start]$ Step: $\pi = \pi' k$ for $k = (u, _, v)$ edge. Then: $[\pi']^{\sharp} d_0 \subseteq \mathcal{I}[u]$ by I.H. for π' $\implies [\pi]^{\sharp} d_0 = [k]^{\sharp} ([\pi']^{\sharp} d_0)$

$$\sqsubseteq \ [k]^{\sharp} (\mathcal{I}[u])$$
 since $[k]^{\sharp}$ monotonic

$$\sqsubseteq \ \mathcal{I}[v]$$
 since \mathcal{I} solution

Disappointment

Are solutions of the constraint system just upper bounds ???

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Answer

In general: yes

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Answer

In general: yes With the notable exception when all functions $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$ are distributive ...

- distributive, if $f(\bigsqcup X) = \bigsqcup \{f x \mid x \in X\}$ for all $\emptyset \neq X \subseteq \mathbb{D}$;
- strict, if $f \perp = \perp$.
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$$f x = x \cap a \cup b$$
 for $a, b \subseteq U$.

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Strictness: $f \emptyset = a \cap \emptyset \cup b = b = \emptyset$ whenever $b = \emptyset$

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• $f x = x \cap a \cup b$ for $a, b \subseteq U$. Strictness: $f \emptyset = a \cap \emptyset \cup b = b = \emptyset$ whenever $b = \emptyset$ Distributivity:

$$f(x_1 \cup x_2) = a \cap (x_1 \cup x_2) \cup b$$
$$= a \cap x_1 \cup a \cap x_2 \cup b$$
$$= f x_1 \cup f x_2$$

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• $\mathbb{D}_1 = \mathbb{D}_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$, $\operatorname{inc} x = x + 1$ Strictness: $f \perp = \operatorname{inc} 0 = 1 \neq \perp$

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• $\mathbb{D}_1 = (\mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\})^2$, $\mathbb{D}_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$, $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2$: Strictness: $f \perp = 0 + 0 = 0$ Distributivity:

$$f((1,4) \sqcup (4,1)) = f(4,4) = 8$$

$$\neq 5 = f(1,4) \sqcup f(4,1)$$

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Obviously: $a \sqsubseteq b$ iff $a \sqcup b = b$. From that follows:

$$f b = f (a \sqcup b)$$
$$= f a \sqcup f b$$
$$\implies f a \sqsubseteq f b$$

Assumption: all v are reachable from *start*.

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Theorem

Kildall 1972

If all effects of edges $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$ are distributive, then: $\mathcal{I}^*[v] = \mathcal{I}[v]$ for all v.



Gary A. Kildall (1942-1994).

Has developed the operating system CP/M and GUIs for PCs.
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If all effects of edges $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$ are distributive, then: $\mathcal{I}^*[v] = \mathcal{I}[v]$ for all v.

Proof

It suffices to prove that \mathcal{I}^* is a solution!

For this, we show that \mathcal{I}^* satisfies all constraints.

(1) We prove for *start*:

$$\mathcal{I}^*[start] = \bigsqcup \{ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} d_0 \mid \pi : start \to^* start \}$$
$$\supseteq \llbracket \epsilon \rrbracket^{\sharp} d_0$$
$$\supseteq d_0$$

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$$\supseteq \llbracket \epsilon \rrbracket^{\sharp} d_0$$
$$\supseteq d_0$$

(2) For every $k = (u, _, v)$ we prove:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{I}^*[v] &= \bigsqcup\{\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} d_0 \mid \pi : start \to^* v\} \\ & \sqsupseteq \ \bigsqcup\{\llbracket \pi' k \rrbracket^{\sharp} d_0 \mid \pi' : start \to^* u\} \\ &= \bigsqcup\{\llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp} (\llbracket \pi' \rrbracket^{\sharp} d_0) \mid \pi' : start \to^* u\} \\ &= \llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp} (\bigsqcup\{\llbracket \pi' \rrbracket^{\sharp} d_0 \mid \pi' : start \to^* u\}) \\ &= \llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp} (\varUpsilon\{\llbracket \pi' \rrbracket^{\sharp} d_0 \mid \pi' : start \to^* u\}) \end{aligned}$$

since $\{\pi' \mid \pi' : start \rightarrow^* u\}$ is non-empty.

Caveat

 Reachability of all program points cannot be abandoned! Consider:



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Then:

$$\mathcal{I}[2] = \operatorname{inc} 0 = 1$$
$$\mathcal{I}^*[2] = \bigsqcup \emptyset = 0$$

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 Reachability of all program points cannot be abandoned! Consider:

Then:

$$\mathcal{I}[2] = \operatorname{inc} 0 = 1$$
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• Unreachable program points can always be thrown away.

Summary and Application

→ The effects of edges of the analysis of availability of expressions are distributive:

$$(a \cup (x_1 \cap x_2)) \setminus b = ((a \cup x_1) \cap (a \cup x_2)) \setminus b$$
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- → If all effects of edges are distributive, then the MOP can be computed by means of the constraint system and RR-iteration.
- → If not all effects of edges are distributive, then RR-iteration for the constraint system at least returns a safe upper bound to the MOP.

1.2 Removing Assignments to Dead Variables

Example

1:
$$x = y + 2;$$

2: $y = 5;$
3: $x = y + 3;$

The value of x at program points 1, 2 is over-written before it can be used.

Therefore, we call the variable x dead at these program points.

Remark

- \rightarrow Assignments to dead variables can be removed !
- \rightarrow Such inefficiencies may originate from other transformations.

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Formal Definition

The variable x is called live at u along the path π starting at u relative to a set X of variables either:

- if $x \in X$ and π does not contain a definition of x; or:
- if π can be decomposed into: $\pi = \pi_1 k \pi_2$ such that:
 - k is a use of x; and
 - π_1 does not contain a definition of x.

$$u$$
 π_1 k \sim

Thereby, the set of all defined or used variables at an edge $k = (_, lab, _)$ is defined by:

lab	used	defined
;	Ø	Ø
Pos(e)	$Vars\left(e ight)$	Ø
$\operatorname{Neg}\left(e\right)$	$Vars\left(e ight)$	Ø
x = e;	$Vars\left(e ight)$	$\{x\}$
x = M[e];	$Vars\left(e ight)$	$\{x\}$
$M[e_1] = e_2;$	$Vars(e_1) \cup Vars(e_2)$	Ø

A variable x which is not live at u along π (relative to X) is called dead at u along π (relative to X).

Example



where $X = \emptyset$. Then we observe:

	live	dead
0	$\{y\}$	$\{x\}$
1	Ø	$\{x, y\}$
2	$\{y\}$	$\{x\}$
3	Ø	$\{x, y\}$

The variable x is live at u (relative to X) if x is live at u along some path to the exit (relative to X). Otherwise, x is called dead at u (relative to X).

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How can the sets of all dead/live variables be computed for every u ???

The variable x is live at u (relative to X) if x is live at u along some path to the exit (relative to X). Otherwise, x is called dead at u (relative to X).

Question

How can the sets of all dead/live variables be computed for every u ???

Idea

For every edge $k = (u, _, v)$, define a function $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$ which transforms the set of variables which are live at v into the set of variables which are live at u...

Let
$$\mathbb{L} = 2^{Vars}$$
.
For $k = (_, lab, _)$, define $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp} = [\![lab]\!]^{\sharp}$ by:

$$\llbracket : \rrbracket^{\sharp} L = L$$

$$\llbracket \operatorname{Pos}(e) \rrbracket^{\sharp} L = \llbracket \operatorname{Neg}(e) \rrbracket^{\sharp} L = L \cup \operatorname{Vars}(e)$$

$$\llbracket x = e : \rrbracket^{\sharp} L = (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup \operatorname{Vars}(e)$$

$$\llbracket x = M[e] : \rrbracket^{\sharp} L = (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup \operatorname{Vars}(e)$$

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$$\llbracket M[e_1] = e_2 : \rrbracket^{\sharp} L = L \cup \operatorname{Vars}(e_1) \cup \operatorname{Vars}(e_2)$$

 $\llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp}$ can again be composed to the effects of $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp}$ of paths $\pi = k_1 \dots k_r$ by:

$$\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} = \llbracket k_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \circ \ldots \circ \llbracket k_r \rrbracket^{\sharp}$$

$$x = y + 2; \quad y = 5; \quad x = y + 2; \quad M[y] = x;$$

$$1 \longrightarrow 2 \longrightarrow 3 \longrightarrow 4 \longrightarrow 5$$











The set of variables which are live at u then is given by:

$$\mathcal{L}^*[u] = \bigcup \{ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} X \mid \pi : u \to^* stop \}$$

... literally:

• The paths start in u.

 \implies As partial ordering for \mathbb{L} we use $\sqsubseteq = \subseteq$.

• The set of variables which are live at program exit is given by the set *X*.

Transformation 2





Correctness Proof

- → Correctness of the effects of edges: If *L* is the set of variables which are live at the exit of the path π , then $[[\pi]]^{\sharp} L$ is the set of variables which are live at the beginning of π .
- → Correctness of the transformation along a path: If the value of a variable is accessed, this variable is necessarily live.
 The value of dead variables thus is irrelevant.
- → Correctness of the transformation: In any execution of the transformed programs, the live variables always receive the same values.

Computation of the sets $\mathcal{L}^*[u]$:

(1) Collecting constraints:

$$\mathcal{L}[stop] \supseteq X \mathcal{L}[u] \supseteq [k]^{\sharp} (\mathcal{L}[v]) \qquad k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge}$$

- (2) Solving the constraint system by means of RR iteration. Since \mathbb{L} is finite, the iteration will terminate.
- (3) If the exit is (formally) reachable from every program point, then the smallest solution \mathcal{L} of the constraint system equals \mathcal{L}^* since all $[k]^{\sharp}$ are distributive.

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Caveat: The information is propagated backwards !!!

Example



- $\mathcal{L}[\mathbf{0}] \supseteq (\mathcal{L}[\mathbf{1}] \setminus \{x\}) \cup \{I\}$
- $\mathcal{L}[1] \supseteq \mathcal{L}[2] \setminus \{y\}$
- $\mathcal{L}[2] \supseteq (\mathcal{L}[6] \cup \{x\}) \cup (\mathcal{L}[3] \cup \{x\})$
- $\mathcal{L}[3] \supseteq (\mathcal{L}[4] \setminus \{y\}) \cup \{x, y\}$
- $\mathcal{L}[4] \supseteq (\mathcal{L}[5] \setminus \{x\}) \cup \{x\}$
- $\mathcal{L}[5] \supseteq \mathcal{L}[2]$
- $\mathcal{L}[\mathbf{6}] \supseteq \mathcal{L}[\mathbf{7}] \cup \{y, R\}$

 $\mathcal{L}[7] \supseteq \emptyset$

Example



	1	2
7	Ø	
6	$\{y, R\}$	
2	$\{x, y, R\}$	ditto
5	$\{x, y, R\}$	
4	$\{x, y, R\}$	
3	$\{x, y, R\}$	
1	$\{x, R\}$	
0	$\{I, R\}$	

The left-hand side of no assignment is dead.

Caveat

Removal of assignments to dead variables may kill further variables:

$$\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
x = y + 1; \\
2 \\
z = 2 * x; \\
3 \\
M[R] = y; \\
4 \\
\emptyset
\end{array}$$

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Caveat

Caveat



Caveat



Caveat



Re-analyzing the program is inconvenient !

Idea: Analyze true liveness!

x is called truly live at u along a path π (relative to X), either

if $x \in X$, π does not contain a definition of x; or

- if π can be decomposed into $\pi = \pi_1 k \pi_2$ such that:
- k is a true use of x relative to π_2 ;
- π_1 does not contain any definition of x.

The set of truely used variables at an edge $k = (_, lab, v)$ is defined as:

lab	truely used
;	Ø
$\operatorname{Pos}\left(e\right)$	$Vars\left(e ight)$
$\operatorname{Neg}\left(e\right)$	$Vars\left(e ight)$
x = e;	Vars(e) (*)
x = M[e];	Vars(e) (*)
$M[e_1] = e_2;$	$Vars(e_1) \cup Vars(e_2)$

(*) – given that x is truely live at v w.r.t. π_2 .

$$\begin{array}{c}
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The Effects of Edges

$$\llbracket : \rrbracket^{\sharp} L = L$$

$$\llbracket \operatorname{Pos}(e) \rrbracket^{\sharp} L = \llbracket \operatorname{Neg}(e) \rrbracket^{\sharp} L = L \cup \operatorname{Vars}(e)$$

$$\llbracket x = e : \rrbracket^{\sharp} L = (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup \operatorname{Vars}(e)$$

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The Effects of Edges

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vdots \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} L = L$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Pos}(e) \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} L = \llbracket \operatorname{Neg}(e) \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} L = L \cup \operatorname{Vars}(e)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x = e; \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} L = (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup (x \in L) ? \operatorname{Vars}(e) : \emptyset$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x = M[e]; \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} L = (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup (x \in L) ? \operatorname{Vars}(e) : \emptyset$$

$$\llbracket M[e_1] = e_2; \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} L = L \cup \operatorname{Vars}(e_1) \cup \operatorname{Vars}(e_2)$$

Remark

- The effects of edges for truely live variables are more complicated than for live variables.
- Nonetheless, they are distributive !!

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- Nonetheless, they are distributive !!
 To see this, consider for D = 2^U, f y = (u ∈ y)?b: Ø We verify:

$$f(y_1 \cup y_2) = (u \in y_1 \cup y_2)?b: \emptyset$$

= $(u \in y_1 \lor u \in y_2)?b: \emptyset$
= $(u \in y_1)?b: \emptyset \cup (u \in y_2)?b: \emptyset$
= $f y_1 \cup f y_2$

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• True liveness detects more superfluous assignments than repeated liveness !!!

$$x = x - 1;$$

• True liveness detects more superfluous assignments than repeated liveness !!!

Liveness



• True liveness detects more superfluous assignments than repeated liveness !!!

True Liveness



Example

$$\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
T = x + 1; \\
2 \\
y = T; \\
3 \\
M[R] = y; \\
4
\end{array}$$

This variable-variable assignment is obviously useless.

Example

1

$$T = x + 1;$$

2
 $y = T;$
3
 $M[R] = y;$
4

This variable-variable assignment is obviously useless. Instead of y, we could also store T!

Example



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Example



Advantage:

Now, y has become dead.

Example



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Now, y has become dead.

Idea

For each expression, we record the variable which currently contains its value.

We use: $\mathbb{V} = (Expr \setminus Vars) \rightarrow 2^{Vars}$...

Idea

• • •

For each expression, we record the variable which currently contains its value.

We use: $\mathbb{V} = (Expr \setminus Vars) \rightarrow 2^{Vars}$ and define:

$$\llbracket : \rrbracket^{\sharp} V = V$$
$$\llbracket \operatorname{Pos}(e) \rrbracket^{\sharp} V e' = \llbracket \operatorname{Neg}(e) \rrbracket^{\sharp} V e' = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } e' = e \\ V e' & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{split} \llbracket x = c; \rrbracket^{\sharp} V e' &= \begin{cases} (V c) \cup \{x\} & \text{if } e' = c \\ (V e') \setminus \{x\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \llbracket x = y; \rrbracket^{\sharp} V e &= \begin{cases} (V e) \cup \{x\} & \text{if } y \in V e \\ (V e) \setminus \{x\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \llbracket x = e; \rrbracket^{\sharp} V e' &= \begin{cases} \{x\} & \text{if } e' = e \\ (V e') \setminus \{x\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \llbracket x = M[c]; \rrbracket^{\sharp} V e' &= (V e') \setminus \{x\} \\ \llbracket x = M[y]; \rrbracket^{\sharp} V e' &= (V e') \setminus \{x\} \\ \llbracket x = M[e]; \rrbracket^{\sharp} V e' &= \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } e' = e \\ (V e') \setminus \{x\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \llbracket x = M[e]; \rrbracket^{\sharp} V e' &= \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } e' = e \\ (V e') \setminus \{x\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{cases} \\ \end{split}$$

// analogously for the diverse stores

In the Example

In the Example

→ We propagate information in forward direction.
At *start*, V₀ e = Ø for all e;
→ ⊑ ⊆ V × V is defined by:
V₁ ⊑ V₂ iff V₁ e ⊇ V₂ e for all e

Observation

The new effects of edges are distributive:

To show this, we consider the functions:

(1)
$$f_1^x V e = (V e) \setminus \{x\}$$

(2)
$$f_2^{e,a} V = V \oplus \{e \mapsto a\}\}$$

(3)
$$f_3^{x,y} V e = (y \in V e) ? (V e \cup \{x\}) : ((V e) \setminus \{x\})$$

Obviously, we have:

$$\begin{split} \llbracket x &= e; \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= f_2^{e, \{x\}} \circ f_1^x \\ \llbracket x &= y; \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= f_3^{x, y} \\ \llbracket x &= M[e]; \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= f_2^{e, \emptyset} \circ f_1^x \end{split}$$

By closure under composition, the assertion follows.

(1) For $f V e = (V e) \setminus \{x\}$, we have:

$$f(V_1 \sqcup V_2) e = ((V_1 \sqcup V_2) e) \setminus \{x\}$$

= $((V_1 e) \cap (V_2 e)) \setminus \{x\}$
= $((V_1 e) \setminus \{x\}) \cap ((V_2 e) \setminus \{x\})$
= $(f V_1 e) \cap (f V_2 e)$

$$= (f V_1 \sqcup f V_2) e$$

(2) For $f V = V \oplus \{e \mapsto a\}$, we have:

$$f(V_1 \sqcup V_2) e' = ((V_1 \sqcup V_2) \oplus \{e \mapsto a\}) e'$$
$$= (V_1 \sqcup V_2) e'$$
$$= (f V_1 \sqcup f V_2) e' \quad \text{given that} \quad e \neq e'$$

$$f(V_1 \sqcup V_2) e = ((V_1 \sqcup V_2) \oplus \{e \mapsto a\}) e$$

= a
= $((V_1 \oplus \{e \mapsto a\}) e) \cap ((V_2 \oplus \{e \mapsto a\}) e)$
= $(f V_1 \sqcup f V_2) e$

(3) For $f V e = (y \in V e) ? (V e \cup \{x\}) : ((V e) \setminus \{x\})$, we have:

$$f(V_1 \sqcup V_2) e = (((V_1 \sqcup V_2) e) \setminus \{x\}) \cup (y \in (V_1 \sqcup V_2) e)? \{x\}: \emptyset$$

 $= ((V_1 e \cap V_2 e) \setminus \{x\}) \cup (y \in (V_1 e \cap V_2 e))? \{x\}: \emptyset$

$$= ((V_1 e \cap V_2 e) \setminus \{x\}) \cup$$
$$((y \in V_1 e) ? \{x\} : \emptyset) \cap ((y \in V_2 e) ? \{x\} : \emptyset)$$

$$= (((V_1 e) \setminus \{x\}) \cup (y \in V_1 e)? \{x\}: \emptyset) \cap (((V_2 e) \setminus \{x\}) \cup (y \in V_2 e)? \{x\}: \emptyset)$$

$$= (f V_1 \sqcup f V_2) e$$

We conclude:

- \rightarrow Solving the constraint system returns the MOP solution.
- \rightarrow Let \mathcal{V} denote this solution.

If $x \in \mathcal{V}[u] e$, then x at u contains the value of e — which we have stored in T_e

the access to x can be replaced by the access to T_e .

For $V \in \mathbb{V}$, let V^- denote the variable substitution with:

$$V^{-}x = \begin{cases} T_{e} & \text{if } x \in V e \\ x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 $\text{if} \quad V \, e \cap V \, e' = \emptyset \quad \text{for} \quad e \neq e' \text{ . Otherwise: } \quad V^- \, x = x.$

Transformation 3



... analogously for edges with Neg(e)



Transformation 3 (cont.)




Procedure as a whole:

- (1) Availability of expressions: T1
 + removes arithmetic operations
 inserts superfluous moves

 (2) Values of variables: T3

 + creates dead variables
 (3) (true) liveness of variables: T2
 - + removes assignments to dead variables

Example: a [7] --;

$$A_{1} = A + 7;$$

$$A_{1} = M[A_{1}];$$

$$B_{2} = B_{1} - 1;$$

$$A_{2} = A + 7;$$

$$M[A_{2}] = B_{2};$$

$$T1.1$$

$$T1.1$$

$$B_{1} = M[A_{1}];$$

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Example (cont.): a [7] --;



Example (cont.): a [7] --;



1.4 Constant Propagation

Idea

Execute as much of the code at compile-time as possible! Example



Obviously, x has always the value 7. Thus, the memory access is always executed.

Goal



Obviously, x has always the value 7. Thus, the memory access is always executed.

Goal



Generalization:

Partial Evaluation



Neil D. Jones, DIKU, Copenhagen

Design an analysis which for every u,

- determines the values which variables definitely have;
- tells whether u can be reached at all.

Design an analysis which for every u,

- determines the values which variables definitely have;
- tells whether u can be reached at all.

The complete lattice is constructed in two steps.

(1) The potential values of variables:

 $\mathbb{Z}^{\top} = \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\top\}$ with $x \sqsubseteq y$ iff $y = \top$ or x = y



Caveat: \mathbb{Z}^{\top} is not a complete lattice in itself.

(2)
$$\mathbb{D} = (Vars \to \mathbb{Z}^{\top})_{\perp} = (Vars \to \mathbb{Z}^{\top}) \cup \{\bot\}$$

 $// \perp$ denotes: "not reachable".
with $D_1 \sqsubseteq D_2$ iff $\bot = D_1$ or
 $D_1 x \sqsubseteq D_2 x$ $(x \in Vars)$

Remark: \mathbb{D} is a complete lattice.

Caveat: \mathbb{Z}^{\top} is not a complete lattice in itself.

(2)
$$\mathbb{D} = (Vars \to \mathbb{Z}^{\top})_{\perp} = (Vars \to \mathbb{Z}^{\top}) \cup \{\bot\}$$

 $// \perp$ denotes: "not reachable".
with $D_1 \sqsubseteq D_2$ iff $\bot = D_1$ or
 $D_1 x \sqsubseteq D_2 x$ $(x \in Vars)$

Remark: \mathbb{D} is a complete lattice.

Consider $X \subseteq \mathbb{D}$. W.I.o.g., $\perp \notin X$. Then $X \subseteq Vars \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{\top}$. If $X = \emptyset$, then $\bigsqcup X = \bot \in \mathbb{D}$. If $X \neq \emptyset$, then $\bigsqcup X = D$ with

$$Dx = \bigsqcup \{ fx \mid f \in X \}$$
$$= \begin{cases} z & \text{if } fx = z & (f \in X) \\ \top & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

If $X \neq \emptyset$, then $\bigsqcup X = D$ with

$$Dx = \bigsqcup \{ fx \mid f \in X \}$$
$$= \begin{cases} z & \text{if } fx = z & (f \in X) \\ \top & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

For every edge $k = (_, lab, _)$, construct an effect function $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp} = [\![lab]\!]^{\sharp} : \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$ which simulates the concrete computation.

Obviously, $[lab]^{\sharp} \perp = \perp$ for all lab.

Now let $\bot \neq D \in Vars \to \mathbb{Z}^{\top}$.

• We use *D* to determine the values of expressions.

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$$a \Box^{\sharp} b = \begin{cases} \top & \text{if } a = \top \text{ or } b = \top \\ a \Box b & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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$$a \square^{\sharp} b = \begin{cases} \top & \text{if } a = \top \text{ or } b = \top \\ a \square b & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• The abstract operators allow to define an abstract evaluation of expressions:

$$\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} : (Vars \to \mathbb{Z}^{\top}) \to \mathbb{Z}^{\top}$$

Abstract evaluation of expressions is like the concrete evaluation — but with abstract values and operators. Here:

$$\llbracket c \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = c$$
$$\llbracket e_1 \Box e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} D \Box^{\sharp} \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} D$$

... analogously for unary operators.

Abstract evaluation of expressions is like the concrete evaluation — but with abstract values and operators. Here:

 $\llbracket c \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = c$ $\llbracket e_1 \Box e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} D \Box^{\sharp} \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} D$

... analogously for unary operators.

Example: $D = \{x \mapsto 2, y \mapsto \top\}$ $[x + 7]^{\sharp} D = [x]^{\sharp} D +^{\sharp} [7]^{\sharp} D$ $= 2 +^{\sharp} 7$ = 9 $[x - y]^{\sharp} D = 2 -^{\sharp} \top$ $= \top$ Thus, we obtain the following effects of edges $[[lab]]^{\sharp}$:

$$\llbracket [:] \ ^{\sharp} D = D$$

$$\llbracket \operatorname{Pos} (e) \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = \begin{cases} \bot & \text{if } 0 = \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D \\ D & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\llbracket \operatorname{Neg} (e) \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = \begin{cases} D & \text{if } 0 \sqsubseteq \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D \\ \bot & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\llbracket x = e : \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = D \oplus \{x \mapsto \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D\}$$

$$\llbracket x = M[e] : \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = D \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\}$$

$$\llbracket M[e_1] = e_2 : \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = D$$

... whenever $D \neq \bot$.

At start, we have $D_{\top} = \{x \mapsto \top \mid x \in Vars\}$.

Example



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Example



The abstract effects of edges $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$ are again composed to the effects of paths $\pi = k_1 \dots k_r$ by:

$$\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} = \llbracket k_r \rrbracket^{\sharp} \circ \ldots \circ \llbracket k_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \quad : \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$$

Idea for Correctness:

Abstract Interpretation Cousot, Cousot 1977



Patrick Cousot, ENS, Paris

The abstract effects of edges $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$ are again composed to the effects of paths $\pi = k_1 \dots k_r$ by:

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Idea for Correctness:

Abstract Interpretation Cousot, Cousot 1977

Establish a description relation Δ between the concrete values and their descriptions with:

$$x \Delta a_1 \land a_1 \sqsubseteq a_2 \implies x \Delta a_2$$

Concretization: $\gamma a = \{x \mid x \Delta a\}$ // returns the set of described values.

(1) Values: $\Delta \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^{\top}$

$$z \Delta a \quad \text{iff} \quad z = a \lor a = \top$$

Concretization:

$$\gamma a = \begin{cases} \{a\} & \text{if} \quad a \sqsubset \top \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if} \quad a = \top \end{cases}$$

(1) Values: $\Delta \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^{\top}$

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$$\gamma a = \begin{cases} \{a\} & \text{if} \quad a \sqsubset \top \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if} \quad a = \top \end{cases}$$

(2) Variable Assignments: $\Delta \subseteq (Vars \to \mathbb{Z}) \times (Vars \to \mathbb{Z}^{\top})_{\perp}$ $\rho \Delta D \quad \text{iff} \quad D \neq \perp \land \rho x \Delta D x \quad (x \in Vars)$

Concretization:

$$\gamma D = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } D = \bot \\ \{\rho \mid \forall x : (\rho x) \Delta (D x)\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example: $\{x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto -7\} \ \Delta \ \{x \mapsto \top, y \mapsto -7\}$

(3) States:

$$\Delta \subseteq ((Vars \to \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z})) \times (Vars \to \mathbb{Z}^{\top})_{\perp}$$
$$(\rho, \mu) \Delta D \quad \text{iff} \quad \rho \Delta D$$

Concretization:

$$\gamma D = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } D = \bot \\ \{(\rho, \mu) \mid \rho \Delta D\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We show:

(*) If $s \Delta D$ and $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket s$ is defined, then: $(\llbracket \pi \rrbracket s) \Delta (\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} D)$



The abstract semantics simulates the concrete semantics. In particular:

 $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket \, s \in \gamma \, (\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} \, D)$

The abstract semantics simulates the concrete semantics. In particular:

$$\llbracket \pi \rrbracket s \in \gamma \left(\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} D \right)$$

In practice, this means, e.g., that $D_1 x = -7$ implies:

$$\rho' x = -7 \text{ for all } \rho' \in \gamma D_1$$

$$\implies \rho_1 x = -7 \text{ for } (\rho_1, \underline{}) = \llbracket \pi \rrbracket s$$

To prove (*), we show for every edge k:



Then (*) follows by induction.

To prove (**), we show for every expression e: (***) ($[e] \rho$) Δ ($[e]^{\sharp} D$) whenever $\rho \Delta D$ To prove (**), we show for every expression e: (***) ($[e] \rho$) Δ ($[e]^{\sharp} D$) whenever $\rho \Delta D$

To prove (* * *), we show for every operator \Box :

 $(x \Box y) \Delta (x^{\sharp} \Box^{\sharp} y^{\sharp})$ whenever $x \Delta x^{\sharp} \wedge y \Delta y^{\sharp}$
To prove (**), we show for every expression e: (***) ($[e] \rho$) Δ ($[e]^{\sharp} D$) whenever $\rho \Delta D$

To prove (* * *), we show for every operator \Box :

 $(x \Box y) \Delta (x^{\sharp} \Box^{\sharp} y^{\sharp})$ whenever $x \Delta x^{\sharp} \wedge y \Delta y^{\sharp}$

This precisely was how we have defined the operators \Box^{\sharp} .

Now, (**) is proved by case distinction on the edge labels *lab*. Let $s = (\rho, \mu) \Delta D$. In particular, $\perp \neq D : Vars \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{\top}$

Case
$$x = e;$$
:
 $\rho_1 = \rho \oplus \{x \mapsto \llbracket e \rrbracket \rho\} \quad \mu_1 = \mu$
 $D_1 = D \oplus \{x \mapsto \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D\}$
 $\implies (\rho_1, \mu_1) \Delta D_1$

Case
$$x = M[e];$$
:
 $\rho_1 = \rho \oplus \{x \mapsto \mu(\llbracket e \rrbracket \neq \rho)\}$ $\mu_1 = \mu$
 $D_1 = D \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\}$
 $\implies (\rho_1, \mu_1) \Delta D_1$

Case
$$M[e_1] = e_2;$$
:
 $\rho_1 = \rho \qquad \mu_1 = \mu \oplus \{ [e_1]]^{\sharp} \rho \mapsto [e_2]]^{\sharp} \rho \}$
 $D_1 = D$
 $\longrightarrow (\rho_1, \mu_1) \Delta D_1$

Case
$$Neg(e)$$
:

 $(\rho_1, \mu_1) = s$ where:

$$0 = \llbracket e \rrbracket \rho$$
$$\Delta \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D$$
$$\implies 0 \sqsubseteq \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D$$
$$\implies \bot \neq D_{1} = D$$
$$\implies (\rho_{1}, \mu_{1}) \Delta D_{1}$$

Case
$$Pos(e)$$
:

 $(
ho_1,\mu_1)=s$ where:

$$0 \neq \llbracket e \rrbracket \rho$$
$$\Delta \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D$$
$$\implies 0 \neq \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D$$
$$\implies \perp \neq D_{1} = D$$
$$\implies (\rho_{1}, \mu_{1}) \Delta D_{1}$$

We conclude: The assertion (*) is true.

The MOP-Solution:

$$\mathcal{D}^*[v] = \bigsqcup \{ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} D_{\top} \mid \pi : start \to^* v \}$$

where $D_{\top} x = \top$ $(x \in Vars)$.

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By (*), we have for all initial states s and all program executions π which reach v:

 $(\llbracket \pi \rrbracket s) \Delta (\mathcal{D}^*[v])$

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The MOP-Solution

$$\mathcal{D}^*[v] = \bigsqcup \{ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} D_{\top} \mid \pi : start \to^* v \}$$

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By (*), we have for all initial states s and all program executions π which reach v:

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In order to approximate the MOP, we use our constraint system ...

Example 0 x = 10; $\downarrow y = 1;$ 2 Pos(x > 1)Neg(x > 13 6 M[R] = y;y = x * y;4 x = x - 1;5



	1		
	x	y	
0	Т	Т	
1	10		
2	10	1	
3	10	1	
4	10	10	
5	9	10	
6			
7			



	1		2	
	x	y	x	y
0		Т		
1	10	T	10	
2	10	1		
3	10	1		
4	10	10		
5	9	10		
6				$ \top $
7	\perp			





Conclusion

Although we compute with concrete values, we fail to compute everything ...

The fixpoint iteration, at least, is guaranteed to terminate:

For *n* program points and *m* variables, we maximally need: $n \cdot (m+1)$ rounds.

Caveat

The effects of edge are not distributive !!!

Counter Example: $f = [x = x + y;]^{\sharp}$

Let
$$D_1 = \{x \mapsto 2, y \mapsto 3\}$$

 $D_2 = \{x \mapsto 3, y \mapsto 2\}$
Then $f D_1 \sqcup f D_2 = \{x \mapsto 5, y \mapsto 3\} \sqcup \{x \mapsto 5, y \mapsto 2\}$
 $= \{x \mapsto 5, y \mapsto \top\}$
 $\neq \{x \mapsto \top, y \mapsto \top\}$
 $= f\{x \mapsto \top, y \mapsto \top\}$
 $= f\{x \mapsto \top, y \mapsto \top\}$
 $= f(D_1 \sqcup D_2)$

We conclude:

The least solution \mathcal{D} of the constraint system in general yields only an upper approximation of the MOP, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{D}^*[v] \subseteq \mathcal{D}[v]$$

We conclude:

The least solution \mathcal{D} of the constraint system in general yields only an upper approximation of the MOP, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{D}^*[v] \subseteq \mathcal{D}[v]$$

As an upper approximation, $\mathcal{D}[v]$ nonetheless describes the result of every program execution π which reaches v:

 $(\llbracket \pi \rrbracket(\rho,\mu)) \Delta (\mathcal{D}[v])$

whenever $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket(\rho, \mu)$ is defined.





Transformation 4 (cont.): Removal of Dead Code





Transformation 4 (cont.): Simplified Expressions



Extensions

 Instead of complete right-hand sides, also subexpressions could be simplified:

$$x + (3 * y) \xrightarrow{\{x \mapsto \top, y \mapsto 5\}} x + 15$$

... and further simplifications be applied, e.g.:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} x * 0 & \Longrightarrow & 0 \\ x * 1 & \Longrightarrow & x \\ x + 0 & \Longrightarrow & x \\ x - 0 & \Longrightarrow & x \end{array}$$

 So far, the information of conditions has not yet be optimally exploited:

$$if (x == 7)$$
$$y = x + 3;$$

Even if the value of x before the if statement is unknown, we at least know that x definitely has the value 7 whenever the then-part is entered.

Therefore, we can define:

$$\left[\left[\operatorname{Pos}\left(x == e\right)\right]\right]^{\sharp} D = \begin{cases} D & \text{if } \left[\left[x == e\right]\right]^{\sharp} D = 1 \\ \bot & \text{if } \left[\left[x == e\right]\right]^{\sharp} D = 0 \\ D_{1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where

$$D_1 = D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D \ x \sqcap \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D)\}$$

The effect of an edge labeled $Neg(x \neq e)$ is analogous.

Our Example



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Our Example



1.5 Interval Analysis

Observation

 Programmers often use global constants for switching debugging code on/off.

Constant propagation is useful !

 In general, precise values of variables will be unknown perhaps, however, a tight interval !!!

for
$$(i = 0; i < 42; i++)$$

if $(0 \le i \land i < 42)$ {
 $A_1 = A + i;$
 $M[A_1] = i;$
}
// A start address of an array
// if the array-bound check

The inner check is superfluous.

Idea 1

Determine for every variable x an (as tight as possible) interval of possible values:

$$\mathbb{I} = \{ [l, u] \mid l \in \mathbb{Z} \cup \{-\infty\}, u \in \mathbb{Z} \cup \{+\infty\}, l \le u \}$$

Partial Ordering:

$$\begin{bmatrix} l_1, u_1 \end{bmatrix} \sqsubseteq \begin{bmatrix} l_2, u_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{iff} \quad l_2 \leq l_1 \land u_1 \leq u_2$$

$$\begin{matrix} l_1 & u_1 \\ & & \\ l_2 & & u_2 \end{matrix}$$

Thus:

$$[l_1, u_1] \sqcup [l_2, u_2] = [l_1 \sqcap l_2, u_1 \sqcup u_2]$$



Thus:

$$\begin{bmatrix} l_1, u_1 \end{bmatrix} \sqcup \begin{bmatrix} l_2, u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_1 \sqcap l_2, u_1 \sqcup u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} l_1, u_1 \end{bmatrix} \sqcap \begin{bmatrix} l_2, u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_1 \sqcup l_2, u_1 \sqcap u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 whenever $(l_1 \sqcup l_2) \le (u_1 \sqcap u_2)$



Caveat

- \rightarrow I is not a complete lattice !
- \rightarrow I has infinite ascending chains, e.g.,

 $[0,0] \sqsubset [0,1] \sqsubset [-1,1] \sqsubset [-1,2] \sqsubset \ldots$

Caveat

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 $[0,0] \sqsubset [0,1] \sqsubset [-1,1] \sqsubset [-1,2] \sqsubset \ldots$

Description Relation:

 $z \Delta [l, u]$ iff $l \leq z \leq u$

Concretization:

$$\gamma \left[l, u \right] = \left\{ z \in \mathbb{Z} \mid l \le z \le u \right\}$$

$$\gamma [0,7] = \{0,\ldots,7\}$$

 $\gamma [0,\infty] = \{0,1,2,\ldots\}$

Computing with intervals:

Interval Arithmetic

Addition:

$$[l_1, u_1] +^{\sharp} [l_2, u_2] = [l_1 + l_2, u_1 + u_2]$$
 where
 $-\infty + _ = -\infty$
 $+\infty + _ = +\infty$
 $// -\infty + \infty$ cannot occur !

Negation:

$$-^{\sharp}[l,u] = [-u,-l]$$

Multiplication:

$$[l_{1}, u_{1}] *^{\sharp} [l_{2}, u_{2}] = [a, b] \text{ where}$$

$$a = l_{1}l_{2} \sqcap l_{1}u_{2} \sqcap u_{1}l_{2} \sqcap u_{1}u_{2}$$

$$b = l_{1}l_{2} \sqcup l_{1}u_{2} \sqcup u_{1}l_{2} \sqcup u_{1}u_{2}$$

$$[0,2] *^{\sharp} [3,4] = [0,8]$$

$$[-1,2] *^{\sharp} [3,4] = [-4,8]$$

$$[-1,2] *^{\sharp} [-3,4] = [-6,8]$$

$$[-1,2] *^{\sharp} [-4,-3] = [-8,4]$$

Division: $[l_1, u_1] / {}^{\sharp} [l_2, u_2] = [a, b]$

 If 0 is not contained in the interval of the denominator, then:

$$a = l_1/l_2 \sqcap l_1/u_2 \sqcap u_1/l_2 \sqcap u_1/u_2$$

$$b = l_1/l_2 \sqcup l_1/u_2 \sqcup u_1/l_2 \sqcup u_1/u_2$$

• If:
$$l_2 \leq 0 \leq u_2$$
, we define:

$$[a,b] = [-\infty, +\infty]$$

Equality:

$$[l_1, u_1] =={}^{\sharp} [l_2, u_2] = \begin{cases} [1, 1] & \text{if} \quad l_1 = u_1 = l_2 = u_2 \\ [0, 0] & \text{if} \quad u_1 < l_2 \lor u_2 < l_1 \\ [0, 1] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Equality:

$$[l_1, u_1] =={}^{\sharp} [l_2, u_2] = \begin{cases} [1, 1] & \text{if} \quad l_1 = u_1 = l_2 = u_2 \\ [0, 0] & \text{if} \quad u_1 < l_2 \lor u_2 < l_1 \\ [0, 1] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$[42, 42] == {}^{\sharp}[42, 42] = [1, 1]$$

$$[0, 7] == {}^{\sharp}[0, 7] = [0, 1]$$

$$[1, 2] == {}^{\sharp}[3, 4] = [0, 0]$$
$$[l_1, u_1] <^{\sharp} [l_2, u_2] = \begin{cases} [1, 1] & \text{if } u_1 < l_2 \\ [0, 0] & \text{if } u_2 \le l_1 \\ [0, 1] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$[l_1, u_1] <^{\sharp} [l_2, u_2] = \begin{cases} [1, 1] & \text{if } u_1 < l_2 \\ [0, 0] & \text{if } u_2 \le l_1 \\ [0, 1] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example

$$[1,2] <^{\sharp} [9,42] = [1,1]$$

$$[0,7] <^{\sharp} [0,7] = [0,1]$$

$$[3,4] <^{\sharp} [1,2] = [0,0]$$

By means of I we construct the complete lattice:

 $\mathbb{D}_{\mathbb{I}} = (Vars \to \mathbb{I})_{\perp}$

Description Relation:

 $\rho \ \Delta \ D \quad \text{iff} \quad D \neq \bot \quad \land \quad \forall x \in Vars : (\rho x) \ \Delta \ (D x)$

The abstract evaluation of expressions is defined analogously to constant propagation. We have:

 $(\llbracket e \rrbracket \rho) \Delta (\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D)$ whenever $\rho \Delta D$

The Effects of Edges:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vdots \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} D = D \\ \begin{bmatrix} x = e \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} D = D \oplus \{x \mapsto \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D\} \\ \begin{bmatrix} x = M[e] \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} D = D \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\} \\ \begin{bmatrix} M[e_1] = e_2 \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} D = D \\ \begin{bmatrix} Pos(e) \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} D = \begin{bmatrix} \bot & \text{if } [0, 0] = \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D \\ D & \text{otherwise} \\ \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} Neg(e) \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} D = \begin{cases} D & \text{if } [0, 0] \subseteq \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D \\ \bot & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

... given that $D \neq \bot$.

Better Exploitation of Conditions

$$\llbracket \operatorname{Pos}(e) \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = \begin{cases} \bot & \text{if } [0,0] = \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D \\ D_{1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where :

$$D_{1} = \begin{cases} D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap (\llbracket e_{1} \rrbracket^{\sharp} D)\} & \text{if } e \equiv x == e_{1} \\ D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap [-\infty, u]\} & \text{if } e \equiv x \leq e_{1}, \llbracket e_{1} \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = [_, u] \\ D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap [l, \infty]\} & \text{if } e \equiv x \geq e_{1}, \llbracket e_{1} \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = [l, _] \end{cases}$$

Better Exploitation of Conditions (cont.)

$$\left[\left[\operatorname{Neg}\left(e\right)\right]\right]^{\sharp} D = \begin{cases} \bot & \text{if } \left[0,0\right] \not\subseteq \left[\left[e\right]\right]^{\sharp} D \\ D_{1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where :

$$D_{1} = \begin{cases} D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap (\llbracket e_{1} \rrbracket^{\sharp} D)\} & \text{if } e \equiv x \neq e_{1} \\ D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap [-\infty, u]\} & \text{if } e \equiv x > e_{1}, \llbracket e_{1} \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = [_, u] \\ D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap [l, \infty]\} & \text{if } e \equiv x < e_{1}, \llbracket e_{1} \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = [l, _] \end{cases}$$

Example



	1	i			
	l	u			
0	$-\infty$	$+\infty$			
1	0	42			
2	0	41			
3	0	41			
4	0	41			
5	0	41			
6	1	42			
7	_	L			
8	42	42			

Problem

- → The solution can be computed with RR-iteration after about 42 rounds !
- \rightarrow On some programs, iteration may never terminate ...

Idea 1 Widening

- Accelerate the iteration at the prize of imprecision.
- Allow only a bounded number of modifications of values !!! ... in the Example
- dis-allow updates of interval bounds in \mathbb{Z} ...
 - a maximal chain:

$$[3,17] \sqsubset [3,+\infty] \sqsubset [-\infty,+\infty]$$

Formalization of the Approach

Let $x_i \supseteq f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $i = 1, \dots, n$ (1) denote a system of constraints over \mathbb{D} where the f_i are not necessarily monotonic.

Nonetheless, an accumulating iteration can be defined. Consider the system of equations:

$$x_i = x_i \sqcup f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$
 (2)

We obviously have:

- (a) \underline{x} is a solution of (1) iff \underline{x} is a solution of (2).
- (b) The function $G: \mathbb{D}^n \to \mathbb{D}^n$ with $G(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (y_1, \dots, y_n), \quad y_i = x_i \sqcup f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is increasing, i.e., $\underline{x} \sqsubseteq G \underline{x}$ for all $\underline{x} \in \mathbb{D}^n$.

(c) The sequence $G^k \perp , k \ge 0$, is an ascending chain: $\perp \sqsubseteq G \perp \sqsubseteq \dots \sqsubseteq G^k \perp \sqsubseteq \dots$

- (d) If $G^{k} \perp = G^{k+1} \perp = \underline{y}$, then \underline{y} is a solution of (1).
- (e) If D has infinite strictly ascending chains, then (d) is not yet sufficient ...

but: we could consider the modified system of equations:

$$x_i = x_i \sqcup f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$
 (3)

for a binary operation widening:

 $\sqcup : \mathbb{D}^2 \to \mathbb{D} \quad \text{with} \quad v_1 \sqcup v_2 \sqsubseteq v_1 \sqcup v_2$

(RR)-iteration for (3) still will compute a solution of (1).

... for Interval Analysis:

• The complete lattice is: $\mathbb{D}_{\mathbb{I}} = (Vars \rightarrow \mathbb{I})_{\perp}$

• the widening \square is defined by:

 $\perp \sqcup D = D \sqcup \bot = D$ and for $D_1 \neq \bot \neq D_2$: $(D_1 \sqcup D_2) x = (D_1 x) \sqcup (D_2 x)$ where $[l_1, u_1] \sqcup [l_2, u_2] = [l, u]$ with $l = \begin{cases} l_1 & \text{if } l_1 \leq l_2 \\ -\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ $u = \begin{cases} u_1 & \text{if } u_1 \geq u_2 \\ +\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$



Ц

is not commutative !!!

Example

 $[0,2] \sqcup [1,2] = [0,2]$ $[1,2] \sqcup [0,2] = [-\infty,2]$ $[1,5] \sqcup [3,7] = [1,+\infty]$

- \rightarrow Widening returns larger values more quickly.
- → It should be constructed in such a way that termination of iteration is guaranteed.
- → For interval analysis, widening bounds the number of iterations by:

 $\#points \cdot (1 + 2 \cdot \#Vars)$

Conclusion

- In order to determine a solution of (1) over a complete lattice with infinite ascending chains, we define a suitable widening and then solve (3).
- Caveat The construction of suitable widenings is a dark art
 !!!
 - Often \sqcup is chosen dynamically during iteration such that
 - \rightarrow the abstract values do not get too complicated;
 - \rightarrow the number of updates remains bounded ...

Our Example



]	L			
	l	u			
0	$-\infty$	$+\infty$			
1	0	0			
2	0	0			
3	0	0			
4	0	0			
5	0	0			
6	1 1				
7	, T				
8	\perp				

Our Example



]	1		2		3
	l	u	l	u	l	u
0	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	$-\infty$	$+\infty$		
1	0	0	0	$+\infty$		
2	0	0	0	$+\infty$		
3	0	0	0	$+\infty$		
4	0	0	0	$+\infty$	di	tto
5	0	0	0	$+\infty$		
6	1	1	1	$+\infty$		
7			42	$+\infty$		
8		L	42	$+\infty$		

... obviously, the result is disappointing !

Idea 2

In fact, acceleration with \Box need only be applied at sufficiently many places!

A set I is a loop separator, if every loop contains at least one point from I.

If we apply widening only at program points from such a set I, then RR-iteration still terminates !!!

In our Example



$$I_1 = \{1\}$$
 or:
 $I_2 = \{2\}$ or:
 $I_3 = \{3\}$

The Analysis with $I = \{1\}$:



	1		1 2			3
	l	u	l	u	l	u
0	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	$-\infty$	$+\infty$		
1	0	0	0	$+\infty$		
2	0	0	0	41		
3	0	0	0	41		
4	0	0	0	41	di	tto
5	0	0	0	41		
6	1	1	1	42		
7			_			
8			42	$+\infty$		

The Analysis with $I = \{2\}$:



	1			2	e e	3	4
	l	u	l	u	l	u	
0	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	
1	0	0	0	1	0	42	
2	0	0	0	$+\infty$	0	$+\infty$	
3	0	0	0	41	0	41	
4	0	0	0	41	0	41	ditto
5	0	0	0	41	0	41	
6	1	1	1	42	1	42	
7		L	42	$+\infty$	42	$+\infty$	
8		L	_	L	42	42	

Discussion

- Both runs of the analysis determine interesting information.
- The run with $I = \{2\}$ proves that always i = 42 after leaving the loop.
- Only the run with $I = \{1\}$ finds, however, that the outer check makes the inner check superfluous !

How can we find a suitable loop separator *I*???

Idea 3: Narrowing

Let \underline{x} denote any solution of (1), i.e.,

$$x_i \supseteq f_i \underline{x}$$
, $i = 1, \dots, n$

Then for monotonic f_i ,

$$\underline{x} \ \sqsupseteq \ F \underline{x} \ \sqsupseteq \ F^2 \underline{x} \ \sqsupseteq \ \dots \sqsupseteq \ F^k \underline{x} \ \sqsupseteq \dots$$

// Narrowing Iteration

Idea 3: Narrowing

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, $i = 1, \dots, n$

Then for monotonic f_i ,

$$\underline{x} \ \supseteq \ F \underline{x} \ \supseteq \ F^2 \underline{x} \ \supseteq \dots \supseteq \ F^k \underline{x} \ \supseteq \dots$$

// Narrowing Iteration

Every tuple $F^k \underline{x}$ is a solution of (1).

Termination is no problem anymore: we stop whenever we want !

// The same also holds for RR-iteration.

Narrowing Iteration in the Example



	()		
	l	u		
0	$-\infty$	$+\infty$		
1	0	$+\infty$		
2	0	$+\infty$		
3	0	$+\infty$		
4	0	$+\infty$		
5	$0 +\infty$			
6	1	$+\infty$		
7	42	$+\infty$		
8	42	$+\infty$		

Narrowing Iteration in the Example



	()]	1	
	l u		l	u	
0	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	
1	0	$+\infty$	0	$+\infty$	
2	0	$+\infty$	0	41	
3	0	$+\infty$	0	41	
4	0	$+\infty$	0	41	
5	0	$+\infty$	0	41	
6	1	$+\infty$	1	42	
7	42	$+\infty$			
8	42	$+\infty$	42	$+\infty$	

Narrowing Iteration in the Example



	()	1		<u> </u>	2
	l	u	l	u	l	u
0	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	$-\infty$	$+\infty$
1	0	$+\infty$	0	$+\infty$	0	42
2	0	$+\infty$	0	41	0	41
3	0	$+\infty$	0	41	0	41
4	0	$+\infty$	0	41	0	41
5	0	$+\infty$	0	41	0	41
6	1	$+\infty$	1	42	1	42
7	42	$+\infty$			_	
8	42	$+\infty$	42	$+\infty$	42	42

Discussion

- \rightarrow We start with a safe approximation.
- \rightarrow We find that the inner check is redundant.
- \rightarrow We find that at exit from the loop, always i = 42.
- \rightarrow It was not necessary to construct an optimal loop separator !

Final Question

Do we have to accept that narrowing may not terminate ???

4. Idea: Accelerated Narrowing

Assume that we have a solution $\underline{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ of the system of constraints:

 $x_i \supseteq f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n \tag{1}$

Then consider the system of equations:

$$x_i = x_i \sqcap f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$
(4)

Obviously, we have for monotonic f_i : $H^k \underline{x} = F^k \underline{x}$. where $H(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$, $y_i = x_i \sqcap f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

In (4), we replace \square durch by the novel operator \square where:

```
a_1 \sqcap a_2 \sqsubseteq a_1 \sqcap a_2 \sqsubseteq a_1
```

... for Interval Analysis

We preserve finite interval bounds.

Therefore, $\bot \sqcap D = D \sqcap \bot = \bot$ and for $D_1 \neq \bot \neq D_2$: $(D_1 \sqcap D_2) x = (D_1 x) \sqcap (D_2 x)$ where $[l_1, u_1] \sqcap [l_2, u_2] = [l, u]$ with $l = \begin{cases} l_2 & \text{if } l_1 = -\infty \\ l_1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ $u = \begin{cases} u_2 & \text{if } u_1 = \infty \\ u_1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

is not commutative !!!

Accelerated Narrowing in the Example



	0		1			2
	l	u	l	u	l	u
0	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	$-\infty$	$+\infty$
1	0	$+\infty$	0	$+\infty$	0	42
2	0	$+\infty$	0	41	0	41
3	0	$+\infty$	0	41	0	41
4	0	$+\infty$	0	41	0	41
5	0	$+\infty$	0	41	0	41
6	1	$+\infty$	1	42	1	42
7	42	$+\infty$			_	
8	42	$+\infty$	42	$+\infty$	42	42

Discussion

- → Caveat: Widening also returns for non-monotonic f_i a solution. Narrowing is only applicable to monotonic f_i !!
- \rightarrow In the example, accelerated narrowing already returns the optimal result.
- → If the operator □ only allows for finitely many improvements of values, we may execute narrowing until stabilization.
- \rightarrow In case of interval analysis these are at most:

 $\#points \cdot (1 + 2 \cdot \#Vars)$

1.6 Pointer Analysis

Questions

- \rightarrow Are two addresses possibly equal?
- \rightarrow Are two addresses definitively equal?

1.6 Pointer Analysis

Questions

- Are two addresses possibly equal? \rightarrow
- Are two addresses definitively equal? \rightarrow

May Alias **Must Alias**



Alias Analysis

The analyses so far without alias information

- (1) Available Expressions:
- Extend the set Expr of expressions by occurring loads M[e].
- Extend the Effects of Edges:

$$[x = e;]^{\sharp} A = (A \cup \{e\}) \setminus Expr_x$$
$$[x = M[e];]^{\sharp} A = (A \cup \{e, M[e]\}) \setminus Expr_x$$
$$[M[e_1] = e_2;]^{\sharp} A = (A \cup \{e_1, e_2\}) \setminus Loads$$

- (2) Values of Variables:
- Extend the set Expr of expressions by occurring loads M[e].
- Extend the Effects of Edges:

$$\llbracket x = M[e]; \rrbracket^{\sharp} V e' = \begin{cases} \{x\} & \text{if } e' = M[e] \\ \emptyset & \text{if } e' = e \\ V e' \setminus \{x\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$\llbracket M[e_1] = e_2; \rrbracket^{\sharp} V e' = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } e' \in \{e_1, e_2\} \\ V e' & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- (3) Constant Propagation:
- Extend the abstract state by an abstract store M
- Execute accesses to known memory locations!

$$\llbracket x = M[e]; \rrbracket^{\sharp}(D, M) = \begin{cases} (D \oplus \{x \mapsto M a\}, M) & \text{if} \\ & \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = a \sqsubset \top \\ (D \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\}, M) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ [M[e_1] = e_2; \rrbracket^{\sharp}(D, M) = \begin{cases} (D, M \oplus \{a \mapsto \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} D\}) & \text{if} \\ & \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = a \sqsubset \top \\ (D, \underline{\top}) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \text{ where} \\ \underline{\top} a = \overline{\top} & (a \in \mathbb{N}) \end{cases}$$

Problems

• Addresses are from \mathbb{N} .

There are no infinite strictly ascending chains, but ...

- Exact addresses at compile-time are rarely known.
- At the same program point, typically different addresses are accessed ...
- Storing at an unknown address destroys all information M.
- \implies constant propagation fails
- → memory accesses/pointers kill precision
Simplification

- We consider pointers to the beginning of blocks A which allow indexed accesses A[i].
- We ignore well-typedness of the blocks.
- New statements:

x = new(); // allocation of a new block y = x[e]; // indexed read access to a block $x[e_1] = e_2;$ // indexed write access to a block

- Blocks are possibly infinite.
- For simplicity, all pointers point to the beginning of a block.

Simple Example

$$x = new();$$

 $y = new();$
 $x[0] = y;$
 $y[1] = 7;$

 $0 \\ x = new();$ $1 \\ y = new();$ $2 \\ x[0] = y;$ $3 \\ y[1] = 7;$ 4











More Complex Example



Concrete Semantics

A store consists of a finite collection of blocks.

After h new-operations we obtain:

For simplicity, we set: 0 =Null

Let $(\rho, \mu) \in State_h$. Then we obtain for the new edges:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x = \mathsf{new}(); \end{bmatrix} (\rho, \mu) = (\rho \oplus \{x \mapsto \mathsf{ref} h\}, \\ \mu \oplus \{(\mathsf{ref} h, i) \mapsto \mathbf{0} \mid i \in \mathbb{N}_0\}) \\ \begin{bmatrix} x = y[e]; \end{bmatrix} (\rho, \mu) = (\rho \oplus \{x \mapsto \mu (\rho y, \llbracket e \rrbracket \rho)\}, \mu) \\ \llbracket y[e_1] = e_2; \rrbracket (\rho, \mu) = (\rho, \mu \oplus \{(\rho y, \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \rho) \mapsto \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket \rho\}) \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

Caveat

This semantics is too detailled in that it computes with absolute Addresses. Accordingly, the two programs:

are not considered as equivalent !!?

Possible Solution

Define equivalence only up to permutation of addresses !

Alias Analysis 1. Idea

- Distinguish finitely many classes of blocks.
- Collect all addresses of a block into one set!
- Use sets of addresses as abstract values!

→ Points-to-Analysis

||

- // creation edges
- // abstract values
- // abstract store
- / abstract states

complete lattice !!!

... in the Simple Example



	x	y	(0,1)
0	Ø	Ø	Ø
1	$\{(0,1)\}$	Ø	Ø
2	$\{(0,1)\}$	$\{(1,2)\}$	Ø
3	$\{(0,1)\}$	$\{(1,2)\}$	$ \{(1,2)\} $
4	$\{(0,1)\}$	$\{(1,2)\}$	$\{(1,2)\}$

The Effects of Edges

$$\begin{split} \llbracket (_,;,_) \rrbracket^{\sharp} (D,M) &= (D,M) \\ \llbracket (_, \operatorname{Pos}(e),_) \rrbracket^{\sharp} (D,M) &= (D,M) \\ \llbracket (_,x=y;,_) \rrbracket^{\sharp} (D,M) &= (D \oplus \{x \mapsto D y\},M) \\ \llbracket (_,x=e;,_) \rrbracket^{\sharp} (D,M) &= (D \oplus \{x \mapsto \emptyset\},M) \quad , \quad e \notin Vars \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \llbracket (\mathbf{u}, x = \mathsf{new}();, \mathbf{v}) \rrbracket^{\sharp} (D, M) &= (D \oplus \{x \mapsto \{(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})\}\}, M) \\ \llbracket (_, x = y[e];, _) \rrbracket^{\sharp} (D, M) &= (D \oplus \{x \mapsto \bigcup \{M(f) \mid f \in D y\}\}, M) \\ \llbracket (_, y[e_1] = x;, _) \rrbracket^{\sharp} (D, M) &= (D, M \oplus \{f \mapsto (M f \cup D x) \mid f \in D y\}) \end{split}$$

Caveat

- The value Null has been ignored. Dereferencing of Null or negative indices are not detected.
- Destructive updates are only possible for variables, not for blocks in storage!
 - \implies no information, if not all block entries are initialized before use.
- The effects now depend on the edge itself.

The analysis cannot be proven correct w.r.t. the reference semantics.

In order to prove correctness, we first instrument the concrete semantics with extra information which records where a block has been created. • We compute possible points-to information.

. . .

- From that, we can extract may-alias information.
- The analysis can be rather expensive without finding very much.
- Separate information for each program point can perhaps be abandoned ??

Alias Analysis 2. Idea

Compute for each variable and address a value which safely approximates the values at every program point simultaneously !

... in the Simple Example

$$0 \\ x = new();$$

$$1 \\ y = new();$$

$$2 \\ x[0] = y;$$

$$3 \\ y[1] = 7;$$

$$4$$

x	$\{(0,1)\}$			
y	$\{(1,2)\}$			
(0,1)	$\{(1,2)\}$			
(1,2)	Ø			

Each edge (u, lab, v) gives rise to constraints:

lab		Constraint
x = y;	$\mathcal{P}[x] \supseteq$	$\mathcal{P}[y]$
$x = \operatorname{new}();$	$\mathcal{P}[x] \supseteq$	$\{(u,v)\}$
x = y[e];	$\mathcal{P}[x] \supseteq$	$\bigcup \{ \mathcal{P}[f] \mid f \in \mathcal{P}[y] \}$
$y[e_1] = x;$	$\mathcal{P}[f] \supseteq$	$(f \in \mathcal{P}[y]) ? \mathcal{P}[x] : \emptyset$
		for all $f \in Addr^{\sharp}$

Other edges have no effect.

Discussion

- The resulting constraint system has size $O(k \cdot n)$ for k abstract addresses and n edges.
- The number of necessary iterations is O(k(k + # Vars)) ...
- The computed information is perhaps still too zu precise !!?
- In order to prove correctness of a solution s[♯] ∈ States[♯] we show:



Alias Analysis 3. Idea

Determine one equivalence relation \equiv on variables x and memory accesses y[] with $s_1 \equiv s_2$ whenever s_1, s_2 may contain the same address at some u_1, u_2

... in the Simple Example

Discussion

- \rightarrow We compute a single information fo the whole program.
- → The computation of this information maintains partitions $\pi = \{P_1, \dots, P_m\}.$
- → Individual sets P_i are identified by means of representatives $p_i \in P_i$.
- \rightarrow The operations on a partition π are:

- → If $x_1, x_2 \in Vars$ are equivalent, then also $x_1[]$ and $x_2[]$ must be equivalent.
- → If $P_i \cap Vars \neq \emptyset$, then we choose $p_i \in Vars$. Then we can apply union recursively :

The analysis iterates over all edges once:

$$\pi = \{\{x\}, \{x[\]\} \mid x \in Vars\};$$

forall $k = (_, lab, _)$ do $\pi = \llbracket lab \rrbracket^{\sharp} \pi;$

where:

$$[x = y;]^{\sharp} \pi = \operatorname{union}^{*}(\pi, x, y)$$

$$[x = y[e];]^{\sharp} \pi = \operatorname{union}^{*}(\pi, x, y[])$$

$$[y[e] = x;]^{\sharp} \pi = \operatorname{union}^{*}(\pi, x, y[])$$

$$[lab]^{\sharp} \pi = \pi \quad \text{otherwise}$$

... in the Simple Example

0

$$x = new();$$

1
 $y = new();$
2
 $x[0] = y;$
3
 $y[1] = 7;$
4

$$\begin{array}{l} \{\{x\},\{y\},\{x[\,]\},\{y[\,]\}\} \\ (0,1) & \{\{x\},\{y\},\{x[\,]\},\{y[\,]\}\} \\ (1,2) & \{\{x\},\{y\},\{x[\,]\},\{y[\,]\}\} \\ (2,3) & \{\{x\},\{y,x[\,]\},\{y[\,]\}\} \\ (3,4) & \{\{x\},\{y,x[\,]\},\{y[\,]\}\} \end{array} \end{array}$$

... in the More Complex Example





Caveat

In order to find something, we must assume that variables / addresses always receive a value before they are accessed.

Complexity

we have:

$\mathcal{O}(\# edges + \# Vars)$	calls of	union*
$\mathcal{O}(\# edges + \# Vars)$	calls of	find
$\mathcal{O}(\# Vars)$	calls of	union



Idea

Represent partition of U as directed forest:

- For $u \in U$ a reference F[u] to the father is maintained;
- Roots are elements u with F[u] = u.

Single trees represent equivalence classes.

Their roots are their representatives ...



- \rightarrow find (π, u) follows the father references.
- \rightarrow union (π, u_1, u_2) re-directs the father reference of one u_i ...









The Costs

union : $\mathcal{O}(1)$ find : $\mathcal{O}(depth(\pi))$

Strategy to Avoid Deep Trees

- Put the smaller tree below the bigger !
- Use find to compress paths ...













0	I	2	3	4	5	6	1
5	1	3	1	7	7	5	3



0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	1	3	1	7	7	5	3


0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	1	3	1	7	7	5	3



0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	1	3	1	1	7	1	1



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Remark

• By this data-structure, n union- und m find operations require time $O(n + m \cdot \alpha(n, n))$

// α the inverse Ackermann-function.

- For our application, we only must modify union such that roots are from *Vars* whenever possible.
- This modification does not increase the asymptotic run-time.

Summary

The analysis is extremely fast — but may not find very much.

Background 3: Fixpoint Algorithms

Consider: $x_i \supseteq f_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \ldots, n$

Observation

RR-Iteration is inefficient:

- \rightarrow We require a complete round in order to detect termination.
- → If in some round, the value of just one unknown is changed, then we still re-compute all.
- \rightarrow The practical run-time depends on the ordering on the variables.

Worklist Iteration

If an unknown x_i changes its value, we re-compute all unknowns which depend on x_i . Technically, we require:

→ the lists $Dep f_i$ of unknowns which are accessed during evaluation of f_i . From that, we compute the lists:

 $I[x_i] = \{x_j \mid x_i \in Dep f_j\}$

i.e., a list of all x_j which depend on the value of x_i ;

- \rightarrow the values $D[x_i]$ of the x_i where initially $D[x_i] = \bot$;
- \rightarrow a list W of all unknowns whose value must be recomputed ...

The Algorithm

 $W = [x_1, \ldots, x_n];$ while $(W \neq [])$ { $x_i = \operatorname{extract} W;$ $t = f_i \operatorname{eval};$ if $(t \not\sqsubseteq D[x_i])$ { $D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t;$ $W = \text{append } I[\mathbf{x_i}] W;$ } } where : $eval x_j = D[x_j]$

Example

 $\begin{array}{rcl} x_1 &\supseteq & \{a\} \cup x_3 \\ x_2 &\supseteq & x_3 \cap \{a,b\} \\ x_3 &\supseteq & x_1 \cup \{c\} \end{array}$

	Ι
x_1	$\{x_3\}$
x_2	Ø
x_3	$\{x_1, x_2\}$

Example

 $\begin{array}{rcl} x_1 &\supseteq & \{a\} \cup x_3 \\ x_2 &\supseteq & x_3 \cap \{a,b\} \\ x_3 &\supseteq & x_1 \cup \{c\} \end{array}$

	Ι
x_1	$\{x_3\}$
x_2	Ø
x_3	$\{x_1, x_2\}$

$D[x_1]$	$D[x_2]$	$D[x_3]$	W
Ø	Ø	Ø	x_1, x_2, x_3
{ a }	Ø	Ø	x_2, x_3
{ a }	Ø	Ø	x_3
{ <u>a</u> }	Ø	$\{a, c\}$	x_1, x_2
$\{a, c\}$	Ø	$\{a, c\}$	x_3, x_2
$\{a, c\}$	Ø	$\{a, c\}$	x_2
$\left\{ a,c \right\}$	{ a }	$\{a, c\}$	[]

Theorem

Let $x_i \supseteq f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $i = 1, \dots, n$ denote a constraint system over the complete lattice \mathbb{D} of height h > 0.

(1) The algorithm terminates after at most $h \cdot N$ evaluations of right-hand sides where

$$N = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 + \# (\frac{Dep f_i}{f_i}))$$
 // size of the system

(2) The algorithm returns a solution. If all f_i are monotonic, it returns the least one.

Proof

Ad (1):

Every unknown x_i may change its value at most h times. Each time, the list $I[x_i]$ is added to W. Thus, the total number of evaluations is:

$$\leq n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h \cdot \# (I[x_i]))$$

$$= n + h \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \# (I[x_i])$$

$$= n + h \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \# (Dep f_i)$$

$$\leq h \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 + \# (Dep f_i))$$

$$= h \cdot N$$

Ad (2):

We only consider the assertion for monotonic f_i .

Let D_0 denote the least solution. We show:

• $D_0[x_i] \sqsupseteq D[x_i]$

(all the time)

• $D[x_i] \not\supseteq f_i \text{ eval} \implies x_i \in W$ (at exit of the loop body)

On termination, the algo returns a solution

Discussion

- In the example, fewer evaluations of right-hand sides are required than for RR-iteration.
- The algo also works for non-monotonic f_i .
- For monotonic f_i , the algo can be simplified:

$$D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t; \implies t$$

• In presence of widening, we replace:

$$D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t; \implies D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t;$$

• In presence of Narrowing, we replace:

$$D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t; \implies D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcap t;$$

... and update the test to $t \sqsubset D[x_i]$.

Caveat

• The algorithm relies on explicit dependencies among the unknowns.

So far in our applications, these were obvious. This need not always be the case !

- We need some strategy for extract which determines the next unknown to be evaluated.
- It would be ingenious if we always evaluated first and then accessed the result ...



Idea

 \rightarrow If during evaluation of f_i , an unknown x_j is accessed, x_j is first solved recursively. Then x_i is added to $I[x_j]$.

eval
$$x_i x_j$$
 = solve x_j ;
 $I[x_j] = I[x_j] \cup \{x_i\}$
 $D[x_j];$

→ In order to prevent recursion to descend infinitely, a set Stable of unknown is maintained for which solve just looks up their values.

Initially, $Stable = \emptyset$...

The Function solve

solve x_i = if $(x_i \notin Stable)$ { $Stable = Stable \cup \{x_i\};$ $t = f_i (\text{eval } x_i);$ if $(t \not\sqsubseteq D[x_i])$ { $D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t;$ $W = I[x_i]; \quad I[x_i] = \emptyset;$ $Stable = Stable \setminus W;$ app solve W; } }



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Example

Consider our standard example:

 $x_1 \supseteq \{a\} \cup x_3$ $x_2 \supseteq x_3 \cap \{a, b\}$ $x_3 \supseteq x_1 \cup \{c\}$

A trace of the fixpoint algorithm then looks as follows:

- \rightarrow Evaluation starts with an interesting unknown x_i (e.g., the value at stop)
- \rightarrow Then automatically all unknowns are evaluated which influence x_i .
- \rightarrow The number of evaluations is often smaller than during worklist iteration.
- → The algorithm is more complex but does not rely on pre-computation of variable dependencies.
- \rightarrow It also works if variable dependencies during iteration change !!!

\implies interprocedural analysis

Caveat II

- The recursive algorithm may not evaluate right-hand sides atomicly.

Idea

- Identify outdated computations ...
- Abort !!

Idea (cont.)

- \rightarrow Record when evaluation of a variable has started by means of a set *Called*.
- → Whenever during evaluation of a rhs f_i , we detect that no longer $x_i \in Called$, we abort ...

eval
$$x_i \ x_j$$
 = solve x_j ;
if $(x_i \notin Called)$ raise Abort;
 $I[x_j] = I[x_j] \cup \{x_i\};$
 $D[x_j];$

 \rightarrow Initially, *Called* = \emptyset ...

The new Function solve

solve $x_i = if(x_i \notin Stable)$ { $Stable = Stable \cup \{x_i\}; Called = Called \cup \{x_i\};$ $t = \operatorname{try} f_i (\operatorname{eval} x_i)$ with **Abort** $\rightarrow D[x_i]$; $Called = Called \setminus \{x_i\};$ if $(t \not\sqsubseteq D[x_i])$ { $D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t;$ $W = I[x_i]; \quad I[x_i] = \emptyset;$ $Stable = Stable \setminus W;$ app solve W; } }



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1.7 Eliminating Partial Redundancies

Example



//x+1 is evaluated on every path...//on one path, however, even twice.

Goal



Idea

- (1) Insert assignments $T_e = e$; such that *e* is available at all points where the value of *e* is required.
- (2) Thereby spare program points where *e* either is already available or will definitely be computed in future.

Expressions with the latter property are called very busy.

(3) Replace the original evaluations of e by accesses to the variable T_e .

we require a novel analysis ...

An expression e is called busy along a path π , if the expression e is evaluated before any of the variables $x \in Vars(e)$ is overwritten.

// backward analysis!

e is called very busy at u , if e is busy along every path $\pi: u \to^* stop$.

An expression e is called busy along a path π , if the expression e is evaluated before any of the variables $x \in Vars(e)$ is overwriten.

// backward analysis!

e is called very busy at u , if e is busy along every path $\pi: u \rightarrow^* stop$.

Accordingly, we require:

$$\mathcal{B}[u] \;=\; igcap_{\{[\![\pi]\!]^{\sharp}} \emptyset \mid \pi: u
ightarrow^{*} stop \}$$

where for $\pi = k_1 \dots k_m$:

$$\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} = \llbracket k_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \circ \ldots \circ \llbracket k_m \rrbracket^{\sharp}$$

Our complete lattice is given by:

$$\mathbb{B} = 2^{Expr \setminus Vars}$$
 with $\Box = \supset$

The effect $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$ of an edge k = (u, lab, v) only depends on lab, i.e., $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp} = [\![lab]\!]^{\sharp}$ where:

These effects are all distributive. Thus, the least solution of the constraint system yields precisely the MOP — given that *stop* is reachable from every program point.

Example



A point u is called safe for e, if $e \in \mathcal{A}[u] \cup \mathcal{B}[u]$, i.e., e is either available or very busy.

Idea

- We insert computations of e such that e becomes available at all safe program points.
- We insert $T_e = e$; after every edge (u, lab, v) with

 $e \in \mathcal{B}[\boldsymbol{v}] \setminus \llbracket lab \rrbracket^{\sharp}_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{A}[\boldsymbol{u}] \cup \mathcal{B}[\boldsymbol{u}])$

Transformation 5.1



Transformation 5.2



- // analogously for the other uses of e
- // at old edges of the program.





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Jens Knoop, Wien

In the Example



	\mathcal{A}	${\cal B}$
0	Ø	Ø
1	Ø	Ø
2	Ø	${x+1}$
3	Ø	$\{x+1\}$
4	$\{x+1\}$	${x+1}$
5	Ø	$\{x+1\}$
6	${x+1}$	$\{y_1+y_2\}$
7	$\{x+1, y_1+y_2\}$	Ø
In the Example



	\mathcal{A}	${\cal B}$
0	Ø	Ø
1	Ø	Ø
2	Ø	${x+1}$
3	Ø	$\{x+1\}$
4	$\{x+1\}$	${x+1}$
5	Ø	$\{x+1\}$
6	${x+1}$	$\{y_1 + y_2\}$
7	${x+1, y_1+y_2}$	Ø

Im Example

		\mathcal{A}	${\mathcal B}$
T = x + 1; x = M[a]; (3)	0	Ø	Ø
$y_1 = T$	1	Ø	Ø
$T = x + 1; \qquad \qquad 4$	2	Ø	$\{x+1\}$
2 5	3	Ø	$\{x+1\}$
$y_2 = T;$	4	${x+1}$	$\{x+1\}$
	5	Ø	$\{x+1\}$
$\overline{(7)}$	6	$\{x+1\}$	$\{y_1+y_2\}$
	7	$\{x+1, y_1+y_2\}$	Ø

Correctness

Let π denote a path reaching v after which a computation of an edge with e follows.

Then there is a maximal suffix of π such that for every edge k = (u, lab, u') in the suffix:

 $e \in \llbracket lab \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}}^{\sharp}(\mathcal{A}[\mathbf{u}] \cup \mathcal{B}[\mathbf{u}])$



Correctness

Let π denote a path reaching v after which a computation of an edge with e follows.

Then there is a maximal suffix of π such that for every edge k = (u, lab, u') in the suffix:

 $e \in \llbracket lab \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}}^{\sharp}(\mathcal{A}[\mathbf{u}] \cup \mathcal{B}[\mathbf{u}])$

In particular, no variable in e receives a new value. Then $T_e = e$; is inserted before the suffix.



We conclude

- Whenever the value of e is required, e is available. \implies correctness of the transformation
- Every T = e; which is inserted into a path corresponds to an e which is replaced with T.
 - → non-degradation of the efficiency

1.8 Application: Loop-invariant Code

Example

for
$$(i = 0; i < n; i++)$$

 $a[i] = b + 3;$

//The expression b+3 is recomputed in every iteration.//This should be avoided !

The Control-flow Graph



Caveat T = b + 3; may not be placed before the loop :



____>

There is no decent place for T = b + 3;.

Idea Transform into a do-while-loop ...



... now there is a place for T = e;.



Application of T5 (PRE) :



	\mathcal{A}	\mathcal{B}
0	Ø	Ø
1	Ø	Ø
2	Ø	$\{b+3\}$
3	$\{b+3\}$	Ø
4	$\{b+3\}$	Ø
5	$\{b+3\}$	Ø
6	$\{b+3\}$	Ø
7	Ø	Ø

Application of T5 (PRE) :



	\mathcal{A}	${\mathcal B}$
0	Ø	Ø
1	Ø	Ø
2	Ø	$\{b+3\}$
3	$\{b+3\}$	Ø
4	$\{b+3\}$	Ø
5	$\{b+3\}$	Ø
6	$\{b+3\}$	Ø
7	Ø	Ø

Conclusion

- Elimination of partial redundancies may move loop-invariant code out of the loop.
- This only works properly for do-while-loops !
- To optimize other loops, we transform them into do-while-loops before-hand:

while (b) $stmt \implies if (b)$ do stmtwhile (b); $\implies Loop Rotation$ Problem

If we do not have the source program at hand, we must re-construct potential loop headers

 \implies Pre-dominators

u pre-dominates *v*, if every path $\pi : start \rightarrow^* v$ contains *u*. We write: $u \Rightarrow v$.

" \Rightarrow " is reflexive, transitive and anti-symmetric.

Computation

We collect the nodes along paths by means of the analysis:

$$\mathbb{P} = 2^{Nodes} , \qquad \sqsubseteq = \supseteq$$
$$\llbracket (_,_,v) \rrbracket^{\sharp} P = P \cup \{v\}$$

Then the set $\mathcal{P}[v]$ of pre-dominators is given by:

$$\mathcal{P}[v] = \bigcap \{ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} \{ start \} \mid \pi : start \to^{*} v \}$$

Since $[\![k]\!]^{\sharp}$ are distributive, the $\mathcal{P}[v]$ can computed by means of fixpoint iteration ...





The partial ordering " \Rightarrow " in the example:





Apparently, the result is a tree.

In fact, we have:

Theorem

Every node v has at most one immediate pre-dominator.

Proof

Assume:

there are $u_1 \neq u_2$ which immediately pre-dominate v.

If $u_1 \Rightarrow u_2$ then u_1 not immediate.

Consequently, u_1, u_2 are incomparable.

Now for every $\pi: start \rightarrow^* v$:

$$\pi = \pi_1 \ \pi_2$$
 with $\pi_1 : start \rightarrow^* u_1$
 $\pi_2 : u_1 \rightarrow^* v$

If, however, u_1, u_2 are incomparable, then there is path: *start* $\rightarrow^* v$ avoiding u_2 :



Now for every $\pi: start \rightarrow^* v$:

$$\pi = \pi_1 \ \pi_2$$
 with $\pi_1 : start \rightarrow^* u_1$
 $\pi_2 : u_1 \rightarrow^* v$

If, however, u_1, u_2 are incomparable, then there is path: *start* $\rightarrow^* v$ avoiding u_2 :



Observation

The loop head of a while-loop pre-dominates every node in the body.

A back edge from the exit u to the loop head v can be identified through

 $v \in \mathcal{P}[u]$

Accordingly, we define:

Transformation 6



We duplicate the entry check to all back edges.









Caveat

There are unusual loops which cannot be rotated:



... but also common ones which cannot be rotated:



Here, the complete block between back edge and conditional jump should be duplicated.

... but also common ones which cannot be rotated:



Here, the complete block between back edge and conditional jump should be duplicated.

... but also common ones which cannot be rotated:



Here, the complete block between back edge and conditional jump should be duplicated.

1.9 Eliminating Partially Dead Code

Example



x+1 need only be computed along one path.

Idea



Problem

- The definition x = e; $(x \notin Vars_e)$ may only be moved to an edge where e is safe.
- The definition must still be available for uses of x.

We define an analysis which maximally delays computations:

$$\llbracket x = e; \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = \begin{cases} D \setminus (Use_e \cup Def_x) \cup \{x = e;\} & \text{if } x \notin Vars_e \\ D \setminus (Use_e \cup Def_x) & \text{if } x \in Vars_e \end{cases}$$

... where:

$$Use_e = \{y = e'; | y \in Vars_e\}$$
$$Def_x = \{y = e'; | y \equiv x \lor x \in Vars_{e'}\}$$

... where:

$$Use_e = \{y = e'; | y \in Vars_e\}$$
$$Def_x = \{y = e'; | y \equiv x \lor x \in Vars_{e'}\}$$

For the remaining edges, we define:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x = M[e]; \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} D = D \setminus (Use_e \cup Def_x)$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} M[e_1] = e_2; \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} D = D \setminus (Use_{e_1} \cup Use_{e_2})$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{Pos}(e) \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} D = \llbracket \mathsf{Neg}(e) \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} D = D \setminus Use_e$$

Caveat

We may move y = e; beyond a join only if y = e; can be delayed along all joining edges:



Here, T = x + 1; cannot be moved beyond 1 !!!
We conclude:

- The partial ordering of the lattice for delayability is given by "⊇".
- At program start: D₀ = Ø.
 Therefore, the sets D[u] of at u delayable assignments can be computed by solving a system of constraints.
- We delay only assignments *a* where *a a* has the same effect as *a* alone.
- The extra insertions render the original assignments as assignments to dead variables ...

Transformation 7





Remark

Transformation T7 is only meaningful, if we subsequently eliminate assignments to dead variables by means of transformation T2.

In the example, the partially dead code is eliminated:



	\mathcal{D}
0	Ø
1	$\{T = x + 1;\}$
2	$\{T = x + 1;\}$
3	Ø
4	Ø



	\mathcal{D}
0	Ø
1	$\{T = x + 1;\}$
2	$\{T = x + 1;\}$
3	Ø
4	Ø



	\mathcal{L}
0	$\{x\}$
1	$\{x\}$
2	$\{x\}$
2'	$\{x,T\}$
3	Ø
4	Ø

Remarks

- After T7, all original assignments y = e; with $y \notin Vars_e$ are assignments to dead variables and thus can always be eliminated.
- By this, it can be proven that the transformation is guaranteed to be non-degradating efficiency of the code.
- Similar to the elimination of partial redundancies, the transformation can be repeated.

Conclusion

- \rightarrow The design of a meaningful optimization is non-trivial.
- Many transformations are advantageous only in connection with other optimizations !
- \rightarrow The ordering of applied optimizations matters !!
- \rightarrow Some optimizations can be iterated !!!

... a meaningful ordering:

T4	Constant Propagation		
	Interval Analysis		
	Alias Analysis		
Т6	Loop Rotation		
T1, T3, T2	Available Expressions		
T2	Dead Variables		
T7, T2	Partially Dead Code		
T5, T3, T2	Partially Redundant Code		

- 2 Replacing Expensive Operations by Cheaper Ones
- 2.1 Reduction of Strength
- (1) Evaluation of Polynomials

$$f(x) = a_n \cdot x^n + a_{n-1} \cdot x^{n-1} + \ldots + a_1 \cdot x + a_0$$

	Multiplications	Additions
naive	$\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$	n
re-use	2n-1	n
Horner-Scheme	n	n

Idea

$$f(x) = (\dots ((a_n \cdot x + a_{n-1}) \cdot x + a_{n-2}) \dots) \cdot x + a_0$$

(2) Tabulation of a polynomial f(x) of degree n:

- \rightarrow To recompute f(x) for every argument x is too expensive.
- \rightarrow Luckily, the *n*-th differences are constant !!!

$$f(x) = 3x^3 - 5x^2 + 4x + 13$$



Here, the *n*-th difference is always

 $\Delta_h^n(f) = n! \cdot a_n \cdot h^n \qquad (h \text{ step width})$

Costs

- n times evaluation of f;
- $\frac{1}{2} \cdot (n-1) \cdot n$ subtractions to determine the Δ^k ;
- n additions for every further value.

Number of multiplications only depends on n.

Simple Case: $f(x) = a_1 \cdot x + a_0$

- ... naturally occurs in many numerical loops.
- The first differences are already constant:

$$f(x+h) - f(x) = a_1 \cdot h$$

 Instead of the sequence: we compute:

$$y_{i} = f(x_{0} + i \cdot h), \quad i \ge 0$$
$$y_{0} = f(x_{0}), \quad \Delta = a_{1} \cdot h$$
$$y_{i} = y_{i-1} + \Delta, \quad i > 0$$

for
$$(i = i_0; i < n; i = i + h)$$
 {
 $A = A_0 + b \cdot i;$
 $M[A] = ...;$
}
Neg $(i < n)$
 $A = A_0 + b \cdot i;$
 $M[A] = ...;$
 $M[A] = ...;$
 $M[A] = ...;$
 $M[A] = ...;$

... or, after loop rotation:



... and reduction of strength:

$$\begin{array}{c} i = i_{0}; \\ \text{if } (i < n) \ \{ \\ \Delta = b \cdot h; \\ A = A_{0} + b \cdot i_{0}; \\ \text{do } \{ \\ M[A] = \dots; \\ i = i + h; \\ A = A + \Delta; \\ \} \text{ while } (i < n); \end{array} \right) \text{Neg}(i < n) \qquad A = A_{0} + b \cdot i; \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \text{Pos}(i < n) \\ A = A_{0} + b \cdot i; \\ \textbf{A} = A$$

Caveat

- The values b, h, A_0 must not change their values during the loop.
- i, A may be modified at exactly one position in the loop.
- One may try to eliminate the variable i altogether :
 - \rightarrow *i* may not be used else-where.
 - \rightarrow The initialization must be transformed into: $A = A_0 + b \cdot i_0$.
 - \rightarrow The loop condition $i < n \mod be$ transformed into: $A < N \quad {\rm for} \quad N = A_0 + b \cdot n$.
 - \rightarrow b must always be different from zero !!!

Approach

Identify

- ... loops;
- ... iteration variables;
- ... constants;
- ... the matching use structures.

Loops:

... are identified through the node v with back edge $(_,_,v)$.

For the sub-graph G_v of the cfg on $\{w \mid v \Rightarrow w\}$, we define:

 $\mathsf{Loop}[v] = \{w \mid w \to^* v \text{ in } G_v\}$







	\mathcal{P}
0	{0}
1	$\{0,1\}$
2	$\{0,1,2\}$
3	$\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$
4	$\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$
5	$\{0,1,5\}$



	\mathcal{P}
0	{0}
1	$\{0,1\}$
2	$\{0,1,2\}$
3	$\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$
4	$\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$
5	$\{0,1,5\}$

We are interested in edges which during each iteration are executed exactly once:



This property can be expressed by means of the pre-dominator relation ...

Assume that $(u, _, v)$ is the back edge.

Then edges $k = (u_1, _, v_1)$ could be selected such that:

- v pre-dominates u_1 ;
- u_1 pre-dominates v_1 ;
- v_1 predominates u

and is not contained in an inner loop.

Assume that $(\underline{u}, \underline{v})$ is the back edge.

Then edges $k = (u_1, _, v_1)$ could be selected such that:

- v pre-dominates u_1 ;
- u_1 pre-dominates v_1 ;
- v_1 predominates u.

and is not contained in an inner loop.

On the level of source programs, this is trivial:

```
do { s_1 \dots s_k
} while (e);
```

The desired assignments must be among the s_i without preceeding jumps.

Iteration Variable

i is an iteration variable if the only definition of i inside the loop occurs at an edge which separates the body and is of the form:

$$i = i + h;$$

for some loop constant h.

A loop constant is simply a constant (e.g., 42), or slightly more libaral, an expression which only depends on variables which are not modified during the loop.

(3) Differences for Sets

Consider the fixpoint computation:

$$x = \emptyset;$$

for $(t = F x; t \not\subseteq x; t = F x;)$
 $x = x \cup t;$

If F is distributive, it could be replaced by:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \emptyset; \\ \text{for } (\Delta = F \, x; \Delta \neq \emptyset; \ \Delta = (F \, \Delta) \setminus x;) \\ x &= x \cup \Delta; \end{aligned}$$

The function F must only be computed for the smaller sets Δ semi-naive iteration

Instead of the sequence: $\emptyset \subseteq F(\emptyset) \subseteq F^2(\emptyset) \subseteq \dots$ we compute: $\Delta_1 \cup \Delta_2 \cup \dots$ where: $\Delta_{i+1} = F(F^i(\emptyset)) \setminus F^i(\emptyset)$ $= F(\Delta_i) \setminus (\Delta_1 \cup \dots \cup \Delta_i)$ with $\Delta_0 = \emptyset$

Assume that the costs of F x is 1 + # x.

Then the costs may sum up to:

naive	$1+2+\ldots+n+n$	_	$\frac{1}{2}n(n+3)$
semi-naive			2n

where n is the cardinality of the result.

 \implies

A linear factor is saved.

2.2 **Peephole Optimization**

Idea

- Slide a small window over the program.
- Optimize agressively inside the window, i.e.,
 - \rightarrow Eliminate redundancies!
 - → Replace expensive operations inside the window by cheaper ones!

 $y = M[x]; x = x + 1; \implies y = M[x++];$ // given that there is a specific post-increment instruction $z = y - a + a; \implies z = y;$ // algebraic simplifications $x = x; \implies ;$ $x = 0; \implies x = x \oplus x;$ $x = 2 \cdot x; \implies x = x + x;$

Important Subproblem: *nop*-Optimization



- \rightarrow If $(v_1, ;, v)$ is an edge, v_1 has no further out-going edge.
- Consequently, we can identify v_1 and v . \rightarrow
- The ordering of the identifications does not matter. \rightarrow

Implementation

• We construct a function $next : Nodes \rightarrow Nodes$ with:

$$next \ u = \begin{cases} next \ v & \text{if } (u, ;, v) \text{ edge} \\ u & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Caveat: This definition is only recursive if there are ;-loops.

• We replace every edge:

$$(u, lab, v) \implies (u, lab, next v)$$

... whenever $lab \neq ;$

• All ;-edges are removed.



next 1	=	1
next 3	=	4
next 5	—	6



next 1	=	1
next 3	=	4
_		~

next 5 = 6

2. Subproblem: Linearization

After optimization, the CFG must again be brought into a linear arrangement of instructions.

Caveat

Not every linearization is equally efficient !!!
Example



0:

- **1**: if (e_1) goto **2**;
- 4: halt
- 2: body
- **3**: if (e_2) goto **4**;

goto 1;

Bad: The loop body is jumped into.

Example



- 0:
- **1**: if $(!e_1)$ goto **4**;
- 2: body
- **3**: if $(!e_2)$ goto **1**;
- 4: halt

/ better cache behavior

Idea

- Assign to each node a temperature!
- always jumps to
 - (1) nodes which have already been handled;
 - (2) colder nodes.
- Temperature \approx nesting-depth

For the computation, we use the pre-dominator tree and strongly connected components ...

... in the Example:



The sub-tree with back edge is hotter ...





More Complicated Example





More Complicated Example





More Complicated Example





Our definition of Loop implies that (detected) loops are necessarily nested.

It is also meaningful for do-while-loops with breaks ...



Our definition of Loop implies that (detected) loops are necessarily nested.

It is also meaningful for do-while-loops with breaks ...



Summary: The Approach

- (1) For every node, determine a temperature;
- (2) Pre-order-DFS over the CFG;
 - \rightarrow If an edge leads to a node we already have generated code for, then we insert a jump.
 - → If a node has two successors with different temperature, then we insert a jump to the colder of the two.
 - → If both successors are equally warm, then it does not matter.

2.3 **Procedures**

We extend our mini-programming language by procedures without parameters and procedure calls.

For that, we introduce a new statement:

f();

Every procedure f has a definition:

 $f() \{ stmt^* \}$

Additionally, we distinguish between global and local variables.

Program execution starts with the call of a procedure main ().

Example

int a, ret; $f() \in \{$ main()int b; if $(a \leq 1)$ {ret = 1; goto exit; } a = 3;*f*(); b=a;a = b - 1;M[17] =ret; ret = 0;f();} $ret = b \cdot ret;$ exit : }

Such programs can be represented by a set of CFGs: one for each procedure ...



In order to optimize such programs, we require an extended operational semantics.

Program executions are no longer paths, but forests:





The function [[.]] is extended to computation forests: w: $[w]: (Vars \to \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}) \to (Vars \to \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z})$ For a call k = (u, f();, v) we must:

• determine the initial values for the locals:

enter $\rho = \{x \mapsto 0 \mid x \in Locals\} \oplus (\rho|_{Globals})$

 ... combine the new values for the globals with the old values for the locals:

combine
$$(\rho_1, \rho_2) = (\rho_1|_{Locals}) \oplus (\rho_2|_{Globals})$$

• ... evaluate the computation forest inbetween:

$$\begin{bmatrix} k & \langle w \rangle \end{bmatrix} (\rho, \mu) = \text{let } (\rho_1, \mu_1) = \llbracket w \rrbracket \text{ (enter } \rho, \mu)$$

in (combine $(\rho, \rho_1), \mu_1$)

Caveat

- In general, $\llbracket w \rrbracket$ is only partially defined.
- Dedicated global/local variables a_i , b_i , ret can be used to simulate specific calling conventions.
- The standard operational semantics relies on configurations which maintain a call stack.
- Computation forests are better suited for the construction of analyses and correctness proofs.
- It is an awkward (but useful) exercise to prove the equivalence of the two approaches ...

Configurations

configuration	 $stack \times store$
store	 $globals \times (\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z})$
globals	 $(Globals \rightarrow \mathbb{Z})$
stack	 $frame \cdot frame^*$
frame	 $point \times locals$
locals	 $(Locals \rightarrow \mathbb{Z})$

A *frame* specifies the local state of computation inside a procedure call.

The leftmost frame corresponds to the current call.

Computation steps refer to the current call.

The novel kinds of steps:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathsf{call} \quad \mathbf{k} = (\mathbf{u}, f();, \mathbf{v}) & : \\ (\underbrace{(\mathbf{u}, \rho)} \cdot \sigma, \langle \gamma, \mu \rangle) & \Longrightarrow & (\underbrace{(\mathbf{u}_f, \{x \to 0 \mid x \in Locals\}) \cdot (\mathbf{v}, \rho)}_{\mathbf{u}_f} \cdot \sigma, \langle \gamma, \mu \rangle) \\ & u_f \quad \text{entry point of} \quad f \end{array}$$

return:

$$((r_{f}, \underline{\ }) \sim \sigma, \langle \gamma, \mu \rangle) \implies (\sigma, \langle \gamma, \mu \rangle)$$

 r_f return point of f











5	$b \mapsto 0$
9	$b\mapsto 2$
9	$b \mapsto 3$
2	

11	$b \mapsto 0$
9	$b \mapsto 2$
9	$b \mapsto 3$
2	











This operational semantics is quite realistic.

Costs for a Procedure Call

Before entering the body: • Creating a stack frame;

- assigning of the parameters;
- Saving the registers;
- Saving the return address;
- Jump to the body.

At procedure exit: • Freeing the stack frame.

- Restoring the registers.
- Passing of the result.
- Return behind the call.

 \implies ... quite expensive !!!

1. Idea: Inlining

Copy the procedure body at every call site !!!

Example



... yields:

$abs () \{ a_2 = -a_1; \\ if (a_1 < a_2) \{ ret = a_2; goto _exit; \} \\ ret = a_1; \\ _exit : \}$

Problems

- The copied block may modify the locals of the calling procedure ???
- More general: Multiple use of local variable names may lead to errors.
- Multiple calls of a procedure may lead to code duplication.
- How can we handle recursion ???
Detection of Recursion

We construct the call-graph of the program.

In the Examples:





Call-Graph

- The nodes are the procedures.
- An edge connexts g with h, whenever the body of g contains a call of h.

Strategies for Inlining

- Just copy leaf-procedures, i.e., procedures without further calls.
- Copy all non-recursive procedures!

... here, we consider just leaf-procedures.

Transformation 9



Remark

- The Nop-edge can be eliminated if the *stop*-node of *f* has no out-going edges ...
- The x_f are the copies of the locals of the procedure f.
- According to our semantics of procedure calls, these must be initialized with 0.

2. Idea: Elimination of Tail Recursion

$$\begin{array}{ll} f() & \{ & \text{int } b; \\ & \text{if } (a_2 \leq 1) \ \{ \ \text{ret} = a_1; \ \text{goto } _exit; \ \} \\ & b = a_1 \cdot a_2; \\ & a_2 = a_2 - 1; \\ & a_1 = b; \\ & f(); \\ _exit \ : \\ \end{array}$$

After the procedure call, nothing in the body remains to be done.

- \rightarrow We may directly jump to the beginning.
 - ... after having reset the locals to 0.

... this yields in the Example:

$$\begin{array}{ll} f() \ \{ & \text{int } b; \\ _f: & \text{if } (a_2 \leq 1) \ \{ & \text{ret} = a_1; \ \text{goto _exit}; \ \} \\ & b = a_1 \cdot a_2; \\ & a_2 = a_2 - 1; \\ & a_1 = b; \\ & b = 0; \ \text{goto _}f; \\ & _exit: \\ \end{array} \right\}$$

// It works, since we have ruled out references to variables!

Transformation 11



Caveat

- → This optimization is crucial for programming languages without iteration constructs !!!
- \rightarrow Duplication of code is not necessary.
- \rightarrow No variable renaming is necessary.
- → The optimization may also be profitable for non-recursive tail calls.
- → The corresponding code may contain jumps from the body of one procedure into the body of another ???

Background 4: Interprocedural Analysis

So far, we can analyze each procedure separately.

- \rightarrow The costs are moderate.
- \rightarrow The methods also work in presence of separate compilation.
- \rightarrow At procedure calls, we must assume the worst case.
- \rightarrow Constant propagation only works for local constants.

Question

How can recursive programs be analyzed ???

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{main()} \ \{ \ \text{int} \ t; & \text{work()} \ \{ \\ t = 0; & \text{if} \ (a_1) \ \text{work()}; \\ \text{if} \ (t) \ M[17] = 3; & \text{ret} = a_1; \\ a_1 = t; & \\ \text{work} \ (); \\ \text{ret} = 1 - \text{ret}; \\ \end{array} \right\}$







(1) Functional Approach

Let \mathbb{D} denote a complete lattice of (abstract) states.

Idea

Represent the effect of f() by a function:

 $\llbracket f \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$





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Amir Pnueli, Weizmann Institute

In order to determine the effect of a call edge k = (u, f();, v) we require abstract functions:

enter[#] : $\mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$ combine[#] : $\mathbb{D}^2 \to \mathbb{D}$

Then we define:

 $\llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = \operatorname{combine}^{\sharp} (D, \llbracket f \rrbracket^{\sharp} (\operatorname{enter}^{\sharp} D))$

... for Constant Propagation:

$$\mathbb{D} \qquad = (Vars \to \mathbb{Z}^{\top})_{\perp}$$

enter[#]
$$D$$
 = $\begin{cases} \bot$ if $D = \bot$
 $D|_{Globals} \oplus \{x \mapsto 0 \mid x \in Locals\}$ otherwise
combine[#] (D_1, D_2) = $\begin{cases} \bot$ if $D_1 = \bot \lor D_2 = \bot$
 $D_1|_{Locals} \oplus D_2|_{Globals}$ otherwise

The effects $[\![f]\!]^{\sharp}$ then can be determined by a system of constraints over the complete lattice $\mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$:

$$\begin{split} \llbracket v \rrbracket^{\sharp} & \sqsupseteq & \mathsf{Id} & v \text{ entry point} \\ \llbracket v \rrbracket^{\sharp} & \sqsupseteq & \llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp} \circ \llbracket u \rrbracket^{\sharp} & k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge} \\ \llbracket f \rrbracket^{\sharp} & \sqsupseteq & \llbracket stop_f \rrbracket^{\sharp} & stop_f \text{ end point of } f \end{split}$$

 $\llbracket v \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$ describes the effect of all prefixes of computation forests w of a procedure which lead from the entry point to v.

Problems

- How can we represent functions $f : \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$??
- If $\#\mathbb{D} = \infty$, then $\mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$ has infinite strictly increasing chains.

Simplification: Copy-Constants

- \rightarrow Conditions are interpreted as ;.
- \rightarrow Only assignments x = e; with $e \in Vars \cup \mathbb{Z}$ are treated exactly.

Observation

 \rightarrow The effects of assignments are:

$$\llbracket x = e; \rrbracket^{\sharp} D = \begin{cases} D \oplus \{x \mapsto c\} & \text{if } e = c \in \mathbb{Z} \\ D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D \ y)\} & \text{if } e = y \in Vars \\ D \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- → Let \mathbb{V} denote the (finite !!!) set of constant right-hand sides. Then variables may only take values from \mathbb{V}^{\top} .
- \rightarrow The occurring effects can be taken from

$$\mathbb{D}_f \to \mathbb{D}_f$$
 with $\mathbb{D}_f = (Vars \to \mathbb{V}^\top)_\perp$

 \rightarrow The complete lattice is huge, but finite !!!

Improvement

- \rightarrow Not all functions from $\mathbb{D}_f \rightarrow \mathbb{D}_f$ will occur.
- \rightarrow All occurring functions $\lambda D \perp \neq M$ are of the form:

$$M = \{x \mapsto (b_x \sqcup \bigsqcup_{y \in I_x} y) \mid x \in Vars\}$$
where:
$$M D = \{x \mapsto (b_x \sqcup \bigsqcup_{y \in I_x} D y) \mid x \in Vars\}$$
für $D \neq \bot$

→ Let M denote the set of all these functions. Then for $M_1, M_2 \in \mathbb{M}$ $(M_1 \neq \lambda D. \perp \neq M_2)$:

$$(M_1 \sqcup M_2) x = (M_1 x) \sqcup (M_2 x)$$

 \rightarrow For k = # Vars , \mathbb{M} has height $\mathcal{O}(k^2)$.

Improvement (Cont.)

 \rightarrow Also, composition can be directly implemented:

$$(M_1 \circ M_2) x = b' \sqcup \bigsqcup_{y \in I'} y \quad \text{with}$$
$$b' = b \sqcup \bigsqcup_{z \in I} b_z$$
$$I' = \bigcup_{z \in I} I_z \quad \text{where}$$
$$M_1 x = b \sqcup \bigsqcup_{y \in I} y$$
$$M_2 z = b_z \sqcup \bigsqcup_{y \in I_z} y$$

 \rightarrow The effects of assignments then are:

$$\llbracket x = e; \rrbracket^{\sharp} = \begin{cases} \mathsf{Id}_{Vars} \oplus \{x \mapsto c\} & \text{if } e = c \in \mathbb{Z} \\ \mathsf{Id}_{Vars} \oplus \{x \mapsto y\} & \text{if } e = y \in Vars \\ \mathsf{Id}_{Vars} \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

... in the Example:

$$\llbracket t = 0; \rrbracket^{\sharp} = \{a_1 \mapsto a_1, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto \operatorname{ret}, t \mapsto 0\}$$
$$\llbracket a_1 = t; \rrbracket^{\sharp} = \{a_1 \mapsto t, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto \operatorname{ret}, t \mapsto t\}$$

In order to implement the analysis, we additionally must construct the effect of a call $k = (_, f();, _)$ from the effect of a procedure *f*:

$$\llbracket k \rrbracket^{\sharp} = H (\llbracket f \rrbracket^{\sharp}) \quad \text{where:} \\ H (M) = \mathsf{Id}|_{Locals} \oplus (M \circ \mathsf{enter}^{\sharp})|_{Globals} \\ \mathsf{enter}^{\sharp} x = \begin{cases} x & \mathsf{if} \quad x \in Globals \\ 0 & \mathsf{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

... in the Example:

If
$$\llbracket \text{work} \rrbracket^{\sharp} = \{a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t\}$$

then $H \llbracket \text{work} \rrbracket^{\sharp} = \text{Id}_{\{t\}} \oplus \{a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto a_1\}$
 $= \{a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t\}$

Now we can perform fixpoint iteration ...



$$\llbracket (8, \dots, 9) \rrbracket^{\sharp} \circ \llbracket 8 \rrbracket^{\sharp} = \{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t \} \circ \\ \{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto \operatorname{ret}, t \mapsto t \} \\ = \{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t \}$$



$$\llbracket (8, \ldots, 9) \rrbracket^{\sharp} \circ \llbracket 8 \rrbracket^{\sharp} = \{a_1 \mapsto a_1, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t\} \circ \\ \{a_1 \mapsto a_1, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto \operatorname{ret}, t \mapsto t\} \\ = \{a_1 \mapsto a_1, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t\}$$

If we know the effects of procedure calls, we can put up a constraint system for determining the abstract state when reaching a program point:

... in the Example:



$$\begin{array}{c|c}
0 & \{a_1 \mapsto \top, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0\} \\
1 & \{a_1 \mapsto \top, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0\} \\
2 & \{a_1 \mapsto \top, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0\} \\
3 & \{a_1 \mapsto \top, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0\} \\
4 & \{a_1 \mapsto 0, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0\} \\
5 & \{a_1 \mapsto 0, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto 0, t \mapsto 0\} \\
6 & \{a_1 \mapsto 0, \operatorname{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0\}
\end{array}$$

Discussion

- At least copy-constants can be determined interprocedurally.
- For that, we had to ignore conditions and complex assignments.
- In the second phase, however, we could have been more precise.
- The extra abstractions were necessary for two reasons:
 - (1) The set of occurring transformers $\mathbb{M} \subseteq \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$ must be finite;
 - (2) The functions $M \in \mathbb{M}$ must be efficiently implementable.
- The second condition can, sometimes, be abandoned ...

Observation

- → Often, procedures are only called for few distinct abstract arguments.
- \rightarrow Each procedure need only to be analyzed for these.
- \rightarrow Put up a constraint system:

 $\begin{bmatrix} v, a \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} \supseteq a \qquad v \text{ entry point}$ $\begin{bmatrix} v, a \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} \supseteq \text{ combine}^{\sharp} (\llbracket u, a \rrbracket^{\sharp}, \llbracket f, \text{enter}^{\sharp} \llbracket u, a \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rrbracket^{\sharp}) (u, f(); v) \text{ call}$ $\begin{bmatrix} v, a \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq [\llbracket lab \rrbracket^{\sharp} \llbracket u, a \rrbracket^{\sharp} \quad k = (u, lab, v) \text{ edge}$ $\llbracket f, a \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq [\llbracket stop_{f}, a \rrbracket^{\sharp} \quad stop_{f} \text{ end point of } f$ $// [[v, a]]^{\sharp} = value \text{ for the argument } a.$

Discussion

- This constraint system may be huge.
- We do not want to solve it completely!!!
- It is sufficient to compute the correct values for all calls which occur, i.e., which are necessary to determine the value
 [main(), a₀][#] → We apply our local fixpoint algorithm !
- The fixpoint algo provides us also with the set of actual parameters a ∈ D for which procedures are (possibly) called and all abstract values at their program points for each of these calls.

... in the Example:

Let us try a full constant propagation ...



Discussion

- In the Example, the analysis terminates quickly.
- If \mathbb{D} has finite height, the analysis terminates if each procedure is only analyzed for finitely many arguments.
- Analogous analysis algorithms have proved very effective for the analysis of Prolog.
- Together with a points-to analysis and propagation of negative constant information, this algorithm is the heart of a very successful race analyzer for C with Posix threads.

(2) The Call-String Approach

Idea

- \rightarrow Compute the set of all reachable call stacks!
- \rightarrow In general, this is infinite.
- \rightarrow Only treat stacks up to a fixed depth *d* precisely! From longer stacks, we only keep the upper prefix of length *d*.
- \rightarrow Important special case: d = 0.
 - \longrightarrow Just track the current stack frame ...





... in the Example:



The conditions for 5, 7, 10, e.g., are:

 $\mathcal{R}[5] \supseteq \operatorname{combine}^{\sharp}(\mathcal{R}[4], \mathcal{R}[10])$

 $\mathcal{R}[7] \supseteq \operatorname{enter}^{\sharp}(\mathcal{R}[4])$

 $\mathcal{R}[7] \supseteq \operatorname{enter}^{\sharp}(\mathcal{R}[8])$

 $\mathcal{R}[9] \supseteq \text{ combine}^{\sharp}(\mathcal{R}[8], \mathcal{R}[10])$

Caveat

The resulting super-graph contains obviously impossible paths ...
... in the Example this is:



... in the Example this is:



Note:

- → In the example, we find the same results: more paths render the results less precise.
 In particular, we provide for each procedure the result just for one (possibly very boring) argument.
- \rightarrow The analysis terminates whenever \mathbb{D} has no infinite strictly ascending chains.
- → The correctness is easily shown w.r.t. the operational semantics with call stacks.
- \rightarrow For the correctness of the functional approach, the semantics with computation forests is better suited.

3 Exploiting Hardware Features

Question:

How can we optimally use:

- ... Registers
- ... Pipelines
- ... Caches
- ... Processors ???

3.1 **Registers**

Example

$$x = M[A];$$

$$y = x + 1;$$
if (y) {
$$z = x \cdot x;$$

$$M[A] = z;$$
Neg (y)
$$M[A] = z;$$

$$t = -y \cdot y;$$

$$M[A] = t;$$

$$x = M[A];$$

$$x = M[A];$$

$$y = x + 1;;$$
Neg (y)
$$4$$

$$6$$

$$t = -y \cdot y;$$

$$5$$

$$M[A] = t;$$

$$M[A] = z;$$

The program uses 5 variables ...

Problem

What if the program uses more variables than there are registers.

Idea

Use one register for several variables.

In the example, e.g., one for $x, t, z \dots$

$$x = M[A];$$

$$y = x + 1;$$

if (y) {

$$z = x \cdot x;$$

$$M[A] = z;$$

} else {

$$t = -y \cdot y;$$

$$M[A] = t;$$

}



$$R = M[A];$$

 $y = R + 1;$
if $(y) \{$
 $R = R \cdot R;$
 $M[A] = R;$
} else {
 $R = -y \cdot y;$
 $M[A] = R;$
}



Caveat

This is only possible if the live ranges do not overlap.

The (true) live range of x is defined by:

$$\mathcal{L}[x] = \{ \mathbf{u} \mid x \in \mathcal{L}[\mathbf{u}] \}$$

... in the Example:



	${\cal L}$
8	Ø
7	$\{A, z\}$
6	$\{A, x\}$
5	$\{A,t\}$
4	$\{A, y\}$
3	$\{A, x, y\}$
2	$\{A, x\}$
1	$\{A\}$
0	Ø



	\mathcal{L}
8	Ø
7	$\{A, z\}$
6	$\{A, x\}$
5	$\{A,t\}$
4	$\{A, y\}$
3	$\{A, x, y\}$
2	$\{A, x\}$
1	$\{A\}$
0	$\{A\}$



Live Ranges:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} A & \{0, \dots, 7\} \\ x & \{2, 3, 6\} \\ y & \{2, 4\} \\ t & \{5\} \\ z & \{7\} \end{array}$$

In order to determine sets of compatible variables, we construct the Interference Graph $I = (Vars, E_I)$ where:

$$E_{I} = \{\{x, y\} \mid x \neq y, \mathcal{L}[x] \cap \mathcal{L}[y] \neq \emptyset\}$$

 E_I has an edge for $x \neq y$ iff x, y are jointly live at some program point.

... in the Example:



Interference Graph:



Variables which are not connected with an edge can be assigned to the same register.



Variables which are not connected with an edge can be assigned to the same register.







Sviatoslav Sergeevich Lavrov, Russian Academy of Sciences (1962)



Gregory J. Chaitin, University of Maine (1981)

Abstract Problem

Given: Undirected Graph (V, E).

Wanted: Minimal coloring, i.e., mapping $c: V \to \mathbb{N}$ with

(1)
$$c(u) \neq c(v)$$
 for $\{u, v\} \in E$;

- (2) $\bigsqcup\{c(u) \mid u \in V\}$ minimal!
- In the example, 3 colors suffice. But:
- In general, the minimal coloring is not unique.
- It is NP-complete to determine whether there is a coloring with at most k colors.

We must rely on heuristics or special cases.

Greedy Heuristics

- Start somewhere with color 1;
- Next choose the smallest color which is different from the colors of all already colored neighbors;
- If a node is colored, color all neighbors which not yet have colors;
- Deal with one component after the other ...

```
... more concretely:
```

```
forall (v \in V) c[v] = 0;
forall (v \in V) color (v);
void color (v) {
       if (c[v] \neq 0) return;
       neighbors = \{u \in V \mid \{u, v\} \in E\};
       c[v] = \prod \{k > 0 \mid \forall u \in \mathsf{neighbors} : k \neq c(u)\};
       forall (u \in \text{neighbors})
              if (c(u) == 0) color (u);
}
```

The new color can be easily determined once the neighbors are sorted according to their colors.

Discussion

- \rightarrow Essentially, this is a Pre-order DFS.
- \rightarrow In theory, the result may arbitrarily far from the optimum
- \rightarrow ... in practice, it may not be as bad.
- \rightarrow ... Anecdote: different variants have been patented !!!

Discussion

- \rightarrow Essentially, this is a Pre-order DFS.
- \rightarrow In theory, the result may arbitrarily far from the optimum
- \rightarrow ... in practice, it may not be as bad.
- \rightarrow ... Anecdote: different variants have been patented !!!

The algorithm works the better the smaller life ranges are ...

Idea: Life Range Splitting

Special Case:

Basic Blocks

	\mathcal{L}
	x, y, z
$A_1 = x + y;$	x, z
$M[A_1] = z;$	x
x = x + 1;	x
$z = M[A_1];$	x, z
t = M[x];	x, z, t
$A_2 = x + t;$	x, z, t
$M[A_2] = z;$	x,t
y = M[x];	y,t
M[y] = t;	



Special Case:

Basic Blocks

	\mathcal{L}
	x, y, z
$A_1 = x + y;$	x, z
$M[A_1] = z;$	x
x = x + 1;	x
$z = M[A_1];$	x, z
t = M[x];	x, z, t
$A_2 = x + t;$	x, z, t
$M[A_2] = z;$	x,t
y = M[x];	y,t
M[y] = t;	



The live ranges of x, y and z can be split:

	L
	x, y, z
$A_1 = x + y;$	x, z
$M[A_1] = z;$	x
$x_1 = x + 1;$	x_1
$z_1 = M[A_1];$	x_1, z_1
$t = M[\mathbf{x_1}];$	x_1, z_1, t
$A_2 = \mathbf{x_1} + t;$	x_1, z_1, t
$M[A_2] = \mathbf{z_1};$	x_1, t
$\boldsymbol{y_1} = \boldsymbol{M}[\boldsymbol{x_1}];$	y_1,t
$M[\mathbf{y_1}] = t;$	



The live ranges of x and z can be split:

	L
	x, y, z
$A_1 = x + y;$	x, z
$M[A_1] = z;$	x
$x_1 = x + 1;$	x_1
$z_1 = M[A_1];$	x_{1}, z_{1}
$t = M[x_1];$	x_{1}, z_{1}, t
$A_2 = \mathbf{x_1} + t;$	x_{1}, z_{1}, t
$M[A_2] = \mathbf{z_1};$	x_1, t
$y_1 = M[x_1];$	y_1,t
$M[\mathbf{y_1}] = t;$	



Interference graphs for minimal live ranges on basic blocks are known as interval graphs:





edge — joint vertex

The covering number of a vertex is given by the number of incident intervals.

Theorem

maximal covering number

size of the maximal clique

— minimally necessary number of colors

Graphs with this property (for every sub-graph) are called perfect ... A minimal coloring can be found in polynomial time.

Idea

- \rightarrow Conceptually iterate over the vertices $0, \ldots, m-1$!
- \rightarrow Maintain a list of currently free colors.
- \rightarrow If an interval starts, allocate the next free color.
- \rightarrow If an interval ends, free its color.

This results in the following algorithm:

```
free = [1, ..., k];
for (i = 0; i < m; i++) {
        init[i] = []; exit[i] = [];
}
forall (I = [u, v] \in \mathsf{Intervals}) {
       \operatorname{init}[u] = (I :: \operatorname{init}[u]); \quad \operatorname{exit}[v] = (I :: \operatorname{exit}[v]);
}
for (i = 0; i < m; i++) {
        forall (I \in init[i]) {
                color[I] = hd free; free = tl free;
        }
        forall (I \in exit[i]) free = color[I] :: free;
}
```

Discussion

- → For arbitrary programs, we thus may apply some heuristics for graph coloring ...
- \rightarrow If the number of real register does not suffice, the remaining variables are spilled into a fixed area on the stack.
- → Generally, variables from inner loops are preferably held in registers → color variables at hot program points first!
- → For basic blocks we have succeeded to derive an optimal register allocation.

The number of required registers could even be determined before-hand !

- \rightarrow This works only once live ranges have been split.
- → Splitting of live ranges for full programs results programs in static single assignment form ...

Discussion

- Every live variable should be defined at most once ??
- Every live variable should have at most one definition ?
- All definitions of the same variable should have a common end point !!!



Example



How to arrive at SSA Form

Step 0:

Before every every join point insert edges for parallel assignments. Initially, the parallel assignment is empty. If the node v is the start point of the program, we add auxiliary edges whenever there are further ingoing edges into v:

The Transformation SSA, Step 0



where $k \geq 2$.

Moreover, program start is interpreted as (the end point of) a definition of every variable x.

The Transformation SSA, Step 0 (cont.)



where $k \ge 1$.
... Our Example



Step 1:

Transform the program such that each program point v is reached by at most one definition of a variable x which is live at v.

Step 2:

Introduce a separate copy x_h for every occurrence of a definition of a variable x !

Replace every use of x with the use of the reaching copy x_h ...

Implementing Step 1

- Determine for every program point the set of reaching definitions.
- Assumption

All incoming edges of a join point v are labeled with the same parallel assignment $x = x \mid x \in L_v$ for some set L_v . Initially, $L_v = \emptyset$ for all v.

• If the join point v is reached by more than one definition for the same variable x which is live at program point v, insert x into L_v , i.e., add definitions x = x; at the end of each incoming edge of v.

Example

Reaching Definitions

 \mathcal{R}

 $\langle x, \mathbf{0} \rangle, \langle y, \mathbf{0} \rangle$

 $\langle x, \mathbf{0} \rangle, \langle x, \mathbf{8} \rangle, \langle y, \mathbf{0} \rangle$

 $\langle x, \mathbf{0} \rangle, \langle x, \mathbf{8} \rangle, \langle y, \mathbf{0} \rangle$

 $\langle x, \mathbf{0} \rangle, \langle x, \mathbf{8} \rangle, \langle y, \mathbf{0} \rangle$

 $\langle x, \mathbf{0} \rangle, \langle x, \mathbf{8} \rangle, \langle y, \mathbf{0} \rangle$

 $\langle x, 0 \rangle, \langle x, 8 \rangle, \langle y, 5 \rangle$



 $\langle x, \mathbf{0} \rangle, \langle x, \mathbf{8} \rangle, \langle y, \mathbf{0} \rangle$ 7 $\langle x, \mathbf{0} \rangle, \langle x, \mathbf{8} \rangle, \langle y, \mathbf{0} \rangle, \langle y, \mathbf{5} \rangle$ $\langle x, \mathbf{8} \rangle, \langle y, \mathbf{0} \rangle$ 8 Accordingly, we set $\psi_1 \equiv x = x$ and $\psi_7 \equiv x = x \mid y = y$

0

1

 $\mathbf{2}$

3

4

5

6

Reaching Definitions

The complete lattice \mathbb{R} for this analysis is given by:

$$\mathbb{R} = 2^{Defs}$$

where

$$Defs = Vars \times Nodes$$
 $Defs(x) = \{x\} \times Nodes$

Then:

$$\llbracket (_, x = r;, v) \rrbracket^{\sharp} R = R \backslash Defs(x) \cup \{ \langle x, v \rangle \}$$
$$\llbracket (_, x = x \mid x \in L, v) \rrbracket^{\sharp} R = R \backslash \bigcup_{x \in L} Defs(x) \cup \{ \langle x, v \rangle \mid x \in L \}$$

The ordering on \mathbb{R} is given by subset inclusion \subseteq where the value at program start is given by $R_0 = \{\langle x, start \rangle \mid x \in Vars\}.$

The Transformation SSA, Step 1



where $k \geq 2$.

The label ψ of the new in-going edges for v is given by:

$$\psi \equiv \{x = x \mid x \in \mathcal{L}[v], \#(\mathcal{R}[v] \cap Defs(x)) > 1\}$$

- Recall: program start is interpreted as (the end point of) a definition of every variable *x*.
- At some edges, parallel definitions ψ are introduced !
- Some of them may be useless.

- Recall: program start is interpreted as (the end point of) a definition of every variable *x*.
- At some edges, parallel definitions ψ are introduced !
- Some of them may be useless.

Improvement

- We introduce assignments x = x before v only if the sets of reaching definitions for x at incoming edges of v differ !
- This introduction is repeated until every v is reached by exactly one definition for each variable live at v.

... in Our Example



Theorem

Assume that every program point in the controlflow graph is reachable from start and that every left-hand side of a definition is live. Then:

- 1. The algorithm for inserting definitions x = x terminates after at most m + 1 rounds were m is the number of program points with more than one in-going edges.
- 2. After termination, for every program point u, the set $\mathcal{R}[u]$ has exactly one definition for every variable x which is live at u.

The efficiency crucially depends on the number of iterations. If the cfg is well-structured, it terminates already after one iteration !

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Discussion (cont.)

- Reducible cfgs are not the exception but the rule.
- In Java, reducibility is only violated by loops with breaks/continues.
- If the insertion of definitions does not terminate after k iterations, we may immediately terminate the procedure by inserting definitions x = x before all nodes which are reached by more than one definition of x.

Assume now that every program point u is reached by exactly one definition for each variable which is live at u...

The Transformation SSA, Step 2

Each edge (u, lab, v) is replaced with $(u, \mathcal{T}_{v,\phi}[lab], v)$ where $\phi x = x_{u'}$ if $\langle x, u' \rangle \in \mathcal{R}[u]$ and:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{T}_{\boldsymbol{v},\phi}[\,;\,] &=\;; \\ \mathcal{T}_{\boldsymbol{v},\phi}[\operatorname{Neg}(e)] &=\; \operatorname{Neg}(\phi(e)) \\ \mathcal{T}_{\boldsymbol{v},\phi}[\operatorname{Pos}(e)] &=\; \operatorname{Pos}(\phi(e)) \\ \mathcal{T}_{\boldsymbol{v},\phi}[x=e] &=\; x_{\boldsymbol{v}} = \phi(e) \\ \mathcal{T}_{\boldsymbol{v},\phi}[x=M[e]] &=\; x_{\boldsymbol{v}} = M[\phi(e)] \\ \mathcal{T}_{\boldsymbol{v},\phi}[M[e_1]=e_2] &=\; M[\phi(e_1)] = \phi(e_2)] \\ \mathcal{T}_{\boldsymbol{v},\phi}[\{x=x \mid x \in L\}] &=\; \{x_{\boldsymbol{v}} = \phi(x) \mid x \in L\} \end{aligned}$$

Remark

The multiple assignments:

$$pa = x_v^{(1)} = x_{v_1}^{(1)} \mid \ldots \mid x_v^{(k)} = x_{v_k}^{(k)}$$

in the last row are thought to be executed in parallel, i.e.,

$$\llbracket pa \rrbracket(\rho,\mu) = (\rho \oplus \{x^{(i)}_{\boldsymbol{v}} \mapsto \rho(x^{(i)}_{\boldsymbol{v}i}) \mid i = 1,\dots,k\},\mu)$$

Example



$$\psi = x = x \mid y = y$$

Example



$$\psi_1 = x_3 = x_1 \mid y_3 = y_1$$

$$\psi_2 = x_3 = x_2 \mid y_3 = y_2$$

Theorem

Assume that every program point is reachable from start and the program is in SSA form without assignments to dead variables.

Let λ denote the maximal number of simultaneously live variables and G the interference graph of the program variables. Then:

$$\lambda = \omega(G) = \chi(G)$$

where $\omega(G), \chi(G)$ are the maximal size of a clique in *G* and the minimal number of colors for *G*, respectively.

A minimal coloring of G, i.e., an optimal register allocation can be found in polynomial time.

- By the theorem, the number λ of required registers can be easily computed.
- Thus variables which are to be spilled to memory, can be determined ahead of the subsequent assignment of registers.
- Thus we may, e.g., insist on keeping iteration variables from inner loops.

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- Thus variables which are to be spilled to memory, can be determined ahead of the subsequent assignment of registers.
- Thus here, we may, e.g., insist on keeping iteration variables from inner loops.
- Clearly, always λ ≤ ω(G) ≤ χ(G).
 Therefore, it suffices to color the interference graph with λ colors.
- Instead, we provide an algorithm which directly operates on the cfg ...

Observation

- Live ranges of variables in programs in SSA form behave similar to live ranges in basic blocks.
- Consider some dfs spanning tree T of the cfg with root start.
- For each variable x, the live range $\mathcal{L}[x]$ forms a tree fragment of T.
- A tree fragment is a subtree from which some subtrees have been removed ...

Example





- Although the example program is not in SSA form, all live ranges still form tree fragments.
- The intersection of tree fragments is again a tree fragment !
- A set C of tree fragments forms a clique iff their intersection is non-empty !!!
- The greedy algorithm will find an optimal coloring ...

Proof of the Intersection Property

(1) Assume $I_1 \cap I_2 \neq \emptyset$ and v_i is the root of I_i . Then:

$$v_1 \in I_2$$
 or $v_2 \in I_1$

(2) Let *C* denote a clique of tree fragments. Then there is an enumeration $C = \{I_1, \ldots, I_r\}$ with roots v_1, \ldots, v_r such that

$$v_i \in I_j$$
 for all $j \le i$

In particular, $v_r \in I_i$ for all *i*.

The Greedy Algorithm

```
forall (u \in Nodes) visited[u] = false;
forall (x \in \mathcal{L}[start]) \Gamma(x) = extract(free);
alloc(start);
```

```
void alloc (Node u) {
    visited[u] = true;
    forall ((lab, v) \in edges[u])
        if (¬visited[v]) {
            forall (x \in \mathcal{L}[u] \setminus \mathcal{L}[v]) insert(free, \Gamma(x));
            forall (x \in \mathcal{L}[v] \setminus \mathcal{L}[u]) \Gamma(x) = \text{extract}(free);
            alloc (v);
            }
        }
}
```

Example



Example



Remark

- Intersection graphs for tree fragments are also known as chordal graphs ...
- A chordal graph is an undirected graph where every cycle with more than three nodes contains a cord.
- Chordal graphs are another sub-class of perfect graphs.
- Cheap register allocation comes at a price:

when transforming into SSA form, we have introduced parallel register-register moves.

Problem

The parallel register assignment:

 $\psi_1 = R_1 = R_2 \mid R_2 = R_1$

is meant to exchange the registers R_1 and R_2 .

There are at least two ways of implementing this exchange ...

Problem

The parallel register assignment:

 $\psi_1 = R_1 = R_2 \mid R_2 = R_1$

is meant to exchange the registers R_1 and R_2 .

There are at least two ways of implementing this exchange ...

(1) Using an auxiliary register:

 $R = R_1;$ $R_1 = R_2;$ $R_2 = R;$

(2) XOR:

$$R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2;$$

$$R_2 = R_1 \oplus R_2;$$

$$R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2;$$

(2) XOR:

$$R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2;$$

$$R_2 = R_1 \oplus R_2;$$

$$R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2;$$

But what about cyclic shifts such as:

$$\psi_k = R_1 = R_2 \mid \ldots \mid R_{k-1} = R_k \mid R_k = R_1$$

for k > 2 **??**

(2) XOR:

$$R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2;$$

$$R_2 = R_1 \oplus R_2;$$

$$R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2;$$

But what about cyclic shifts such as:

$$\psi_k = R_1 = R_2 \mid \ldots \mid R_{k-1} = R_k \mid R_k = R_1$$

for k > 2 **??**

Then at most k - 1 swaps of two registers are needed:

$$\psi_k = R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2;$$

...
$$R_{k-1} \leftrightarrow R_k;$$

Next complicated case: Permutations

- Every permutation can be decomposed into a set of disjoint shifts.
- Any permutation of n registers with r shifts can be realized by n r swaps ...

Next complicated case: Permutations

- Every permutation can be decomposed into a set of disjoint shifts.
- Any permutation of n registers with r shifts can be realized by n r swaps ...

Example

 $\psi = R_1 = R_2 \mid R_2 = R_5 \mid R_3 = R_4 \mid R_4 = R_3 \mid R_5 = R_1$

consists of the cycles (R_1, R_2, R_5) and (R_3, R_4) . Therefore:

$$\psi = R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2;$$
$$R_2 \leftrightarrow R_5;$$
$$R_3 \leftrightarrow R_4;$$
The general case

- Every register receives its value at most once.
- The assignment therefore can be decomposed into a permutation together with tree-like assignments (directed towards the leaves) ...

Example

$$\psi = R_1 = R_2 \mid R_2 = R_4 \mid R_3 = R_5 \mid R_5 = R_3$$

The parallel assignment realizes the linear register moves for R_1, R_2 and R_4 together with the cyclic shift for R_3 and R_5 :

$$\psi = R_1 = R_2;$$
$$R_2 = R_4;$$
$$R_3 \leftrightarrow R_5;$$

Interprocedural Register Allocation

- \rightarrow For every local variable, there is an entry in the stack frame.
- → Before calling a function, the locals must be saved into the stack frame and be restored after the call.
- → Sometimes there is hardware support.
 Then the call is transparent for all registers.
- \rightarrow If it is our responsibility to save and restore, we may ...
 - save only registers which are over-written;
 - restore overwritten registers only.
- → Alternatively, we save only registers which are still live after the call — and then possibly into different registers → reduction of life ranges

3.2 Instruction Level Parallelism

Modern processors do not execute one instruction after the other strictly sequentially.

Here, we consider two approaches:

- (1) VLIW (Very Large Instruction Words)
- (2) Pipelining

VLIW

One instruction simultaneously executes up to k (e.g., 4) elementary Instructions.

Pipelining

Instruction execution may overlap.

Example

$$w = (R_1 = R_2 + R_3 \mid D = D_1 * D_2 \mid R_3 = M[R_4])$$

Caveat

- Instructions occupy hardware ressources.
- Instructions may access the same busses/registers hazards
- Results of an instruction may be available only after some delay.
- During execution, different parts of the hardware are involved:

• During Execute and Write different internal registers/busses/alus may be used.

We conclude:

Distributing the instruction sequence into sequences of words is amenable to various constraints ...

In the following, we ignore the phases Fetch und Decode.

Examples for Constraints

- (1) at most one load/store per word;
- (2) at most one jump;
- (3) at most one write into the same register.

Example Timing:

Floating-point Operation	3
Load/Store	2
Integer Arithmetic	1

Timing Diagram:



 R_3 is over-written, after the addition has fetched 2.

If a register is accessed simultaneously (here: R_3), a strategy of conflict solving is required ...

Conflicts

Read-Read: A register is simultaneously read.

 \implies in general, unproblematic.

Read-Write: A register is simultaneously read and written. **Conflict Resolution:**

- ... ruled out!
- Read is delayed (stalls), until write has terminated!
- Read before write returns old value!

Write-Write: A register is simultaneously written to.

 \implies in general, unproblematic.

Conflict Resolutions:

• ... ruled out!

In Our Examples ...

- simultaneous read is permitted;
- read before write;
- write/write is ruled out;
- no stalls are injected.

We first consider basic blocks, i.e., linear sequences of assignments ...

Idea: Data Dependence Graph

Vertices	Instructions
Edges	Dependencies

Example

(1) x = x + 1;(2) y = M[A];(3) t = z;(4) z = M[A + x];(5) t = y + z;

Possible Dependencies

Reaching Definitions:

Determine for each u which definitions may reach \implies can be determined by means of a system of constraints.

1

$$x = x + 1;$$

2
 $y = M[A];$
3
 $t = z;$
4
 $z = M[A + x];$
5
 $t = y + z;$
6

	\mathcal{R}			
1	$\{\langle x,1\rangle,\langle y,1\rangle,\langle z,1\rangle,\langle t,1\rangle\}$			
2	$\{\langle x,2\rangle,\langle y,1\rangle,\langle z,1\rangle,\langle t,1\rangle\}$			
3	$\{\langle x,2\rangle,\langle y,3\rangle,\langle z,1\rangle,\langle t,1\rangle\}$			
4	$\{\langle x,2\rangle,\langle y,3\rangle,\langle z,1\rangle,\langle t,4\rangle\}$			
5	$\{\langle x,2\rangle,\langle y,3\rangle,\langle z,5\rangle,\langle t,4\rangle\}$			
6	$\{\langle x,2\rangle,\langle y,3\rangle,\langle z,5\rangle,\langle t,6\rangle\}$			

Let U_i , D_i denote the sets of variables which are used or defined at the edge outgoing from u_i . Then:

$$(u_1, u_2) \in DD \quad \text{if} \quad u_1 \in \mathcal{R}[u_2] \land D_1 \cap D_2 \neq \emptyset$$
$$(u_1, u_2) \in DU \quad \text{if} \quad u_1 \in \mathcal{R}[u_2] \land D_1 \cap U_2 \neq \emptyset$$

		Def	Use
1	x = x + 1;	$\{x\}$	$\{x\}$
2	y = M[A];	$\{y\}$	$\{A\}$
3	t = z;	$\{t\}$	$\{z\}$
4	z = M[A + x];	$\{z\}$	$\{A, x\}$
5	t = y + z;	$\{t\}$	$\{y, z\}$



Let U_i , D_i denote the sets of variables which are used or defined at the edge outgoing from u_i . Then:

 $(u_1, u_2) \in DU$ if $u_1 \in \mathcal{R}[u_2] \land D_1 \cap U_2 \neq \emptyset$

		Def	Use
1	$x_1 = x + 1;$	$\{x_1\}$	$\{x\}$
2	y = M[A];	$\{y\}$	$\{A\}$
3	t=z;	$\{t\}$	$\{z\}$
4	$z_1 = M[A + x_1];$	$\{z_1\}$	$\{A, x_1\}$
5	$t_1 = y + z_1;$	$\{t_1\}$	$\{y, z_1\}$



The UD-edge (3, 4) has been inserted to exclude that z is over-written before use.

In the next step, each instruction is annotated with its (required ressources, in particular, its) execution time.

Our goal is a maximally parallel correct sequence of words.

For that, we maintain the current system state:

 $\Sigma: Vars \to \mathbb{N}$

 $\Sigma(x) =$ expected delay until x is available

Initially:

$$\Sigma(x) = 0$$

As an invariant, we guarantee on entry of the basic block, that all operations are terminated.

Then the slots of the word sequence are successively filled:

- We start with the minimal nodes in the dependence graph.
- If we fail to fill all slots of a word, we insert ; .
- After every inserted instruction, we re-compute Σ .

Caveat

- \rightarrow The execution of two VLIWs can overlap !!!
- \rightarrow Determining an optimal sequence, is NP-hard ...

Example: Word width k = 2

Word		State			
1 2		x	y	z	t
		0	0	0	0
x = x + 1	y = M[A]	0	1	0	0
t = z	z = M[A + x]	0	0	1	0
		0	0	0	0
t = y + z		0	0	0	0

In each cycle, the execution of a new word is triggered.

The state just records the number of cycles still to be waited for the result.

Remark

- If instructions put constraints on future selection, we also record these in Σ .
- Overall, we still distinuish just finitely many system states.
- The computation of the effect of a VLIW onto Σ can be compiled into a finite automaton !!!
- This automaton, though, could be quite huge.
- The challenge of making choices still remains.
- Basic blocks usually are not very large
 - \rightarrow opportunities for parallelization are limited.

if
$$(x > 1)$$
 {
 $y = M[A];$
 $z = x - 1;$
} else {
 $y = M[A + 1];$
 $z = x - 1;$
}
 $y = y + 1;$

The dependence graph must be enriched with extra control-dependencies ...



The statement z = x - 1; is executed with the same arguments in both branches and does not modify any of the remaining variables.

We could have moved it before the if anyway.

The following code could be generated:

	z = x - 1	if $(!(x > 0))$ goto A
	y = M[A]	
	goto B	
A:	y = M[A+1]	
B:	y = y + 1	

At every jump target, we guarantee the invariant.

If we allow several (known) states on entry of a sub-block, we can generate code which complies with all of these.

	z = x - 1	if $(!(x > 0))$ goto A
	y = M[A]	goto B
A:	y = M[A+1]	
B:		
	y = y + 1	

If this parallelism is not yet sufficient, we could try to speculatively execute possibly useful tasks ...

For that, we require:

- an idea which alternative is executed more frequently;
- the wrong execution may not end in a catastrophy, i.e., run-time errors such as, e.g., division by 0;
- the wrong execution must allow roll-back (e.g., by delaying a commit) or may not have any observational effects ...

... in the Example:

	z = x - 1	y = M[A]	if $(x > 0)$	goto B
	y = M[A+1]			
<i>B</i> :				
	y = y + 1			

In the case $x \le 0$ we have y = M[A] executed in advance. This value, however, is overwritten in the next step ...

In general:

x = e; has no observable effect in a branch if x is dead in this branch.

Extension 2: Unrolling of Loops

We may unrole important, i.e., inner loops several times:



Now it is clear which side of tests to prefer:

the side which stays within the unroled body of the loop.

Caveat

- The different instances of the body are translated relative to possibly different initial states.
- The code behind the loop must be correct relative to the exit state corresponding to every jump out of the loop!

Example



Duplication of the body yields:

for
$$(x = 0; x < n; x++)$$
 {
 $M[A + x] = z;$
 $x = x + 1;$
if $(!(x < n))$ break;
 $M[A + x] = z;$
}



It would be better to remove x = x + 1; together with the test in the middle — since these serialize execution of the copies !!

This is possible if x + 1 is substituted for x in the second copy, the condition is transformed and compensation code is added:

for
$$(x = 0; x + 1 < n; x = x + 2)$$
 {
 $M[A + x] = z;$
 $M[A + x + 1] = z;$
}
if $(x < n)$ {
 $M[A + x] = z;$
 $x = x + 1;$
}
M[A + x] = z;
 $x = x + 1;$
}
M[A + x] = z;
 $x = x + 1;$
 $M[A + x] = z;$
 $x = x + 1;$
 $M[A + x] = z;$
 $M[A$

 \searrow

Discussion

- Elimination of the intermediate test together with the the fusion of all increments at the end reveals that the different loop iterations are in fact independent.
- Nonetheless, we do not gain much since we only allow one store per word.
- If right-hand sides, however, are more complex, we can interleave their evaluation with the stores.

Extension 3

Sometimes, one loop alone does not provide enough opportunities for parallelization.

... but perhaps two successively in a row ...

Example

In order to fuse two loops into one, we require that:

- the iteration schemes coincide;
- the two loops access different data.

In case of individual variables, this can easily be verified.

This is more difficult in presence of arrays.

Taking the source program into account, accesses to distinct statically allocated arrays can be identified.

An analysis of accesses to the same array is significantly more difficult ...

Assume that the blocks A, B, C are distinct. Then we can combine the two loops into:

for
$$(x = 0; x < n; x++)$$
 {
 $R_1 = B[x];$ $R_2 = B[x];$
 $S_1 = C[x];$ $S_2 = C[x];$
 $T_1 = R_1 + S_1;$ $T_2 = R_2 - S_2;$
 $A[x] = T_1;$ $C[x] = T_2;$
}

The first loop may in iteration x not read data which the second loop writes to in iterations < x.

The second loop may in iteration x not read data which the first loop writes to in iterations > x.

If the index expressions of jointly accessed arrays are linear, the given constraints can be verified through integer linear programming ...

$$i \geq 0$$

$$i \leq x-1$$

$$x_{\text{write}} = i$$

$$x_{\text{read}} = x$$

$$x_{\text{read}} = x_{\text{write}}$$

 $/\!\!/ x_{read}$ read access to C by 1st loop

 $/\!\!/ x_{write}$ write access to C by 2nd loop

... obviously has no solution.

General Form:

 $s \geq t_1$ $t_2 \geq s$ $y_1 = s_1$ $y_2 = s_2$ $y_1 = y_2$

for linear expressions s, t_1, t_2, s_1, s_2 over *i* and the iteration variables.

This can be simplified to:

$$0 \leq s - t_1$$
 $0 \leq t_2 - s$ $0 = s_1 - s_2$

What should we do with it ???

Simple Case:

The two inequations have no solution over \mathbb{Q} . Then they also have no solution over \mathbb{Z} .

... in Our Example:

x = i $0 \leq i = x$ $0 \leq x - 1 - i = -1$

The second inequation has no solution.
One Variable:

The inequations where x occurs positive, provide lower bounds.

The inequations where x occurs negative, provide upper bounds.

If G, L are the greatest lower and the least upper bound, respectively, then all (integer) solution are in the interval [G, L].

Example

The only integer solution of the system is x = 1.

Discussion

- Solutions only matter within the bounds to the iteration variables.
- Every integer solution there provides a conflict.
- Fusion of loops is possible if no conflicts occur.
- The given special case suffices to solve the case one variable over \mathbb{Z} .
- The number of variables in the inequations corresponds to the nesting-depth of for-loops \implies in general, is quite small.

Discussion

• Integer Linear Programming (ILP) can decide satisfiability of a finite set of equations/inequations over \mathbb{Z} of the form:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot x_i = b \quad \text{bzw.} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot x_i \ge b , \quad a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$$

- Moreover, a (linear) cost function can be optimized.
- Warning: The decision problem is in general, already NP-hard !!!
- Notwithstanding that, surprisingly efficient implementations exist.
- Not just loop fusion, but also other re-organizations of loops yield ILP problems ...

Background 5: Presburger Arithmetic

Many problems in computer science can be formulated without multiplication.

Let us first consider two simple special cases ...

1. Linear Equations

$$2x + 3y = 24$$
$$x - y + 5z = 3$$

Question

- Is there a solution over \mathbb{Q} ?
- Is there a solution over \mathbb{Z} ?
- Is there a solution over \mathbb{N} ?

Let us reconsider the equations:

$$2x + 3y = 24$$

 $x - y + 5z = 3$

Answers

- Is there a solution over **Q** ? Yes
- Is there a solution over \mathbb{Z} ? No
- Is there a solution over \mathbb{N} ? No

Complexity

- Is there a solution over \mathbb{Q} ? Polynomial
- Is there a solution over \mathbb{Z} ? Polynomial
- Is there a solution over \mathbb{N} ? **NP-hard**

Solution Method for Integers

Observation 1

$$a_1 x_1 + \ldots + a_k x_k = b \qquad (\forall i : a_i \neq 0)$$

has a solution iff

 $gcd\{a_1,\ldots,a_k\} \mid b$

$$5y - 10z = 18$$

has no solution over \mathbb{Z} .

5y - 10z = 18

has no solution over \mathbb{Z} .

Observation 2

Adding a multiple of one equation to another does not change the set of solutions.

$$2x + 3y = 24$$
$$x - y + 5z = 3$$

$$2x + 3y = 24$$
$$x - y + 5z = 3$$

5y - 10z = 18x - y + 5z = 3

Observation 3

Adding multiples of columns to another column is an invertible transformation which we keep track of in a separate matrix ...

Observation 3

Adding multiples of columns to another column is an invertible transformation which we keep track of in a separate matrix ...

 \implies triangular form !!

Observation 4

- A special solution of a triangular system can be directly read off.
- All solutions of a homogeneous triangular system can be directly read off.
- All solutions of the original system can be recovered from the solutions of the triangular system by means of the accumulated transformation matrix.

One special solution:

 $[6, 3, 0]^{\top}$

All solutions of the homogeneous system are spanned by:

 $[0,0,1]^ op$

Solving over $\ensuremath{\mathbb{N}}$

- ... is of major practical importance;
- ... has led to the development of many new techniques;
- ... easily allows to encode NP-hard problems;
- ... remains difficult if just three variables are allowed per equation.

2. One Polynomial Special Case

$$x \geq y+5$$

$$19 \geq x$$

$$y \geq 13$$

$$y \geq x-7$$

- There are at most 2 variables per in-equation;
- no scaling factors.

Idea: Represent the system by a graph:



The in-equations are satisfiable iff

- the weight of every cycle are at most 0;
- the weights of paths reaching *x* are bounded by the weights of edges from *x* into the sink.











The in-equations are satisfiable iff

- the weight of every cycle are at most 0;
- the weights of paths reaching *x* are bounded by the weights of edges from *x* into the sink.



Apply Bellman-Ford algorithm!

3. A General Solution Method

Idea: Fourier-Motzkin Elimination

- Successively remove individual variables x !
- All in-equations with positive occurrences of x yield lower bounds.
- All in-equations with negative occurrences of x yield upper bounds.
- All lower bounds must be at most as big as all upper bounds.



Jean Baptiste Joseph Fourier, 1768–1830

$$9 \leq 4x_{1} + x_{2} \quad (1)$$

$$4 \leq x_{1} + 2x_{2} \quad (2)$$

$$0 \leq 2x_{1} - x_{2} \quad (3)$$

$$6 \leq x_{1} + 6x_{2} \quad (4)$$

$$-11 \leq -x_{1} - 2x_{2} \quad (5)$$

$$-17 \leq -6x_{1} + 2x_{2} \quad (6)$$

$$-4 \leq -x_{2} \quad (7)$$



For x_1 we obtain:

If such an x_1 exists, all lower bounds must be bounded by all upper bounds, i.e.,

This is the one-variable case which we can solve exactly:

 $\max\{-1, \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{5}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\} \leq x_2 \leq \min\{5, \frac{22}{5}, 17, 4\}$

From which we conclude: $x_2 \in [\frac{1}{2}, 4]$.

In General:

- The original system has a solution over Q iff the system after elimination of one variable has a solution over Q.
- Every elimination step may square the number of in-equations =>> exponential run-time.
- It can be modified such that it also decides satisfiability over

 $\mathbb{Z} \implies \mathsf{Omega Test}$



William Worthington Pugh, Jr. University of Maryland, College Park

Idea

- We successively remove variables. Thereby we omit division ...
- If x only occurs with coefficient ± 1 , we apply Fourier-Motzkin elimination.
- Otherwise, we provide a bound for a positive multiple of x ...

Consider, e.g., (1) and (6):

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathbf{6} \cdot x_1 & \leq & 17 + 2x_2 \\ 9 - x_2 & \leq & \mathbf{4} \cdot x_1 \end{array}$$

W.I.o.g., we only consider strict in-equations:

 $6 \cdot x_1 < 18 + 2x_2$ $8 - x_2 < 4 \cdot x_1$

... where we always divide by gcds:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 3 \cdot x_1 &<& 9+x_2\\ 8-x_2 &<& 4 \cdot x_1 \end{array}$$

This implies:

$$3 \cdot (8 - x_2) < 4 \cdot (9 + x_2)$$

We thereby obtain:

- If one derived in-equation is unsatisfiable, then also the overall system.
- If all derived in-equations are satisfiable, then there is a solution which, however, need not be integer.
- An integer solution is guaranteed to exist if there is sufficient separation between lower and upper bound ...
- Assume $\alpha < \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{x}$ $\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{x} < \beta$.

Then it should hold that:

$$b \cdot \alpha < \mathbf{a} \cdot \beta$$

and moreover:

$$\boxed{a \cdot b} < a \cdot \beta - b \cdot \alpha$$
... in the Example:

$$12 < 4 \cdot (9 + x_2) - 3 \cdot (8 - x_2)$$

or:

$$12 < 12 + 7x_2$$

or:

 $0 < x_2$

In the example, also these strengthened in-equations are satisfiable

 \implies the system has a solution over \mathbb{Z} .

Discussion

- If the strengthened in-equations are satisfiable, then also the original system. The reverse implication may be wrong !
- In the case where some upper and lower bound is not sufficiently separated, we have:

$$a \cdot \beta \le b \cdot \alpha + \boxed{a \cdot b}$$

or:

$$b \cdot \alpha < ab \cdot x < b \cdot \alpha + |a \cdot b|$$

Division with *b* yields:

$$\alpha < \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{x} < \alpha + \mathbf{a}$$

$$\implies \qquad \begin{array}{l} \alpha + i = a \cdot x \\ \implies \qquad \begin{array}{l} \text{for some} \quad i \in \{1, \dots, a-1\} \\ \hline (\alpha + a - 1)/a = x \\ \end{array} \end{array}$$

Discussion (cont.)

- → Fourier-Motzkin Elimination is not the best method for rational systems of in-equations.
- \rightarrow The Omega test is necessarily exponential.

If the system is solvable, the test generally terminates rapidly.

It may have problems with unsolvable systems.

- \rightarrow Also for ILP, there are other/smarter algorithms ...
- → For programming language problems, however, it seems to behave quite well.

4. Generalization to a Logic

Disjunction

$$(x - 2y = 15 \land x + y = 7) \lor$$
$$(x + y = 6 \land 3x + z = -8)$$

Quantors:

$$\exists x: z - 2x = 42 \land z + x = 19$$

4. Generalization to a Logic

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Quantors:

$$\exists x: z - 2x = 42 \land z + x = 19$$

Presburger Arithmetic



Mojzesz Presburger, 1904–1943 (?)

Presburger Arithmetic — full arithmetic

without multiplication

Presburger Arithmetic = full arithmetic without multiplication

Arithmetic : highly undecidable even incomplete

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Arithmetic : highly undecidable even incomplete

⇒ Hilbert's 10th Problem⇒ Gödel's Theorem

Presburger Formulas over \mathbb{N} :

$$\phi \quad ::= \quad x + y = z \quad | \quad x = n \quad |$$
$$\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2 \quad | \quad \neg \phi \quad |$$
$$\exists x : \phi$$

Presburger Formulas over \mathbb{N} :

$$\phi \qquad ::= \quad x + y = z \quad | \quad x = n \quad |$$
$$\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2 \quad | \quad \neg \phi \quad |$$
$$\exists x : \quad \phi$$

Goal: PSAT

Find values for the free variables in N such that ϕ holds ...

213	t	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
42	Z	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
89	У	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
17	X	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

213	t	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
42	Ζ	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
89	У	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
17	X	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

213	t	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
42	Ζ	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
89	У	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
17	X	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

213	t	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
42	Ζ	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
89	У	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
17	X	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

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89	У	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
17	X	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

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42	Ζ	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
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42	Ζ	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
89	У	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
17	X	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

213	t	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
42	Z	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
89	У	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
17	X	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

213	t	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
42	Ζ	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
89	У	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
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Observation

The set of satisfying variable assignments is regular !

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$$\begin{aligned} \phi_1 \wedge \phi_2 & \implies & \mathcal{L}(\phi_1) \cap \mathcal{L}(\phi_2) & \text{(Intersection)} \\ \neg \phi & \implies & \Sigma^+ \setminus \mathcal{L}(\phi) & \text{(Complement)} \\ \exists x : \phi & \implies & \pi_x(\mathcal{L}(\phi)) & \text{(Projection)} \end{aligned}$$

Projecting away the *x*-component:

213	t	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
42	Ζ	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
89	У	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
17	X	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

Projecting away the *x*-component:

213	t	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
42	Ζ	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
89	У	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0

Caveat

- Our representation of numbers is not unique: 011101 should be accepted iff some word from 011101 · 0* is accepted!
- This property is preserved by union, intersection and complement.
- It is lost by projection !!!
- The automaton for projection must be enriched such that the property is re-established !!

Automata for Basic Predicates





Automata for Basic Predicates

x + x = y



Automata for Basic Predicates

x+y=z



Results

Ferrante, Rackoff, 1973 : $PSAT \leq DSPACE(2^{2^{c \cdot n}})$

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Fischer, Rabin, 1974 :

 $PSAT \geq NTIME(2^{2^{c \cdot n}})$

3.3 Improving the Memory Layout

Goal

- Better utilization of caches
 - reduction of the number of cache misses
- Reduction of allocation/de-allocation costs
 - replacing heap allocation by stack allocation
 - \implies support to free superfluous heap objects
- Reduction of access costs
 - short-circuiting indirection chains (Unboxing)

1. Cache Optimization

Idea: local memory access

- Loading from memory fetches not just one byte but fills a complete cache line.
- Access to neighbored cells become cheaper.
- If all data of an inner loop fits into the cache, the iteration becomes maximally memory-efficient ...

Possible Solutions

- \rightarrow Reorganize the data accesses !
- \rightarrow Reorganize the data !

Such optimizations can be made fully automatic only for arrays.

Example

for
$$(j = 1; j < n; j++)$$

for $(i = 1; i < m; i++)$
 $a[i][j] = a[i-1][j-1] + a[i][j];$

- \implies At first, always iterate over the rows!
- \longrightarrow Exchange the ordering of the iterations:

for
$$(i = 1; i < m; i++)$$

for $(j = 1; j < n; j++)$
 $a[i][j] = a[i-1][j-1] + a[i][j];$

When is this permitted???

Iteration Scheme: before:


Iteration Scheme: after:



Iteration Scheme: allowed dependencies:



In our case, we must check that the following equation systems have **no** solution:

// (i_1, j_1) indices in original version// (i_2, j_2) indices in transformed version

for
$$(i = 0; i < N; i++)$$

for $(j = 0; j < M; j++)$
for $(k = 0; k < K; k++)$
 $c[i][j] = c[i][j] + a[i][k] \cdot b[k][j];$

Over b[][] the iteration is columnwise.

				1	
				2	
				3	
				4	
1	2	3	4	30	
1	2	3	4	30	

Exchange the two inner loops

for
$$(i = 0; i < N; i++)$$

for $(k = 0; k < K; k++)$
for $(j = 0; j < M; j++)$
 $c[i][j] = c[i][j] + a[i][k] \cdot b[k][j];$

Is this permitted ???

				1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	1	4	9	16

Discussion

- Correctness follows as before.
- A similar idea can also be used for the implementation of multiplication for row compressed matrices.
- Sometimes, the program must be massaged such that the transformation becomes applicable.
- Matrix-matrix multiplication perhaps requires initialization of the result matrix first ...

for
$$(i = 0; i < N; i++)$$

for $(j = 0; j < M; j++)$ {
 $c[i][j] = 0;$
for $(k = 0; k < K; k++)$
 $c[i][j] = c[i][j] + a[i][k] \cdot b[k][j];$
}

- Now, the two iterations can no longer be exchanged.
- The iteration over *j*, however, can be duplicated ...

for
$$(i = 0; i < N; i++)$$
 {
for $(j = 0; j < M; j++)$ $c[i][j] = 0;$
for $(j = 0; j < M; j++)$
for $(k = 0; k < K; k++)$
 $c[i][j] = c[i][j] + a[i][k] \cdot b[k][j];$
}

Correctness

- The read entries (here: no) may not be modified in the remaining body of the loop !!!
- → The ordering of the write accesses to a memory cell may not be changed.

We obtain:

for
$$(i = 0; i < N; i++)$$
 {
for $(j = 0; j < M; j++)$ $c[i][j] = 0;$
for $(k = 0; k < K; k++)$
for $(j = 0; j < M; j++)$
 $c[i][j] = c[i][j] + a[i][k] \cdot b[k][j];$
}

Discussion

- Instead of fusing several loops, we now have distributed the loops.
- Accordingly, conditionals may be moved out of the loop
 if-distribution ...

Caveat

Instead of using this transformation, the inner loop could also be optimized as follows:

for
$$(i = 0; i < N; i++)$$

for $(j = 0; j < M; j++)$ {
 $t = 0;$
for $(k = 0; k < K; k++)$
 $t = t + a[i][k] \cdot b[k][j];$
 $c[i][j] = t;$
}

Idea

If we find heavily used array elements $a[e_1] \dots [e_r]$ whose index expressions stay constant within the inner loop, we could instead also provide auxiliary registers.

Caveat

The latter optimization prohibits the former and vice versa ...

Discussion

- so far, the optimizations are concerned with iterations over arrays.
- Cache-aware organization of other data-structures is possible, but in general not fully automatic ...
- Example:

Stacks



Advantage

- + The implementation is simple.
- + The operations push / pop require constant time.
- + The data-structure may grow arbitrarily.

Disadvantage

 The individual list objects may be arbitrarily dispersed over the memory.

Alternative



Advantage

- + The implementation is also simple.
- + The operations push / pop still require constant time.
- + The data are consequtively allocated; stack oscillations are typically small

better Cache behavior !!!

Disadvantage

– The data-structure is **bounded**.

Improvement

- If the array is full, replace it with another of double size !!!
- If the array drops empty to a quarter, halve the array again !!!
- \implies The extra amortized costs are constant.
- \implies The implementation is no longer so trivial.

Discussion

- \rightarrow The same idea also works for queues.
- → Other data-structures are attempted to organize blockwise.
 Problem: how can accesses be organized such that they refer mostly to the same block ???



2. Stack Allocation instead of Heap Allocation

Problem

- Programming languages such as Java allocate all data-structures in the heap — even if they are only used within the current method.
- If no reference to these data survives the call, we want to allocate these on the stack.



Escape Analysis

Idea

Determine points-to information.

Determine if a created object is possibly reachable from the out side ...

Example: Our Pointer Language

$$x = \text{new}();$$

 $y = \text{new}();$
 $x[A] = y;$
 $z = y;$
 $ret = z;$

... could be a possible method body.

- are assigned to a global variable such as ret; or
- are reachable from global variables.

$$x = \operatorname{new}();$$

$$y = \operatorname{new}();$$

$$x[A] = y;$$

$$z = y;$$

$$ret = z;$$

- are assigned to a global variable such as ret; or
- are reachable from global variables.

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \mathsf{new}(); \\ y &= \mathsf{new}(); \\ x[A] &= y; \\ z &= y; \\ z &= y; \\ \mathsf{ret} &= z; \end{aligned}$$

- are assigned to a global variable such as ret; or
- are reachable from global variables.

$$x = \operatorname{new}();$$

$$y = \operatorname{new}();$$

$$x[A] = y;$$

$$z = y;$$

$$ret = z;$$

- are assigned to a global variable such as ret; or
- are reachable from global variables.

$$x = \operatorname{new}();$$

$$y = \operatorname{new}();$$

$$x[A] = y;$$

$$z = y;$$

$$ret = z;$$

We conclude:

- The objects which have been allocated by the first new() may never escape.
- They can be allocated on the stack.

Caveat

This is only meaningful if only few such objects are allocated during a method call.

If a local new() occurs within a loop, we still may allocate the objects in the heap.

Extension: Procedures

- We require an interprocedural points-to analysis.
- We know the whole program, we can, e.g., merge the control-flow graphs of all procedures into one and compute the points-to information for this.
- Caveat: If we always use the same global variables y_1, y_2, \ldots for (the simulation of) parameter passing, the computed information is necessarily imprecise.
- If the whole program is not known, we must assume that each reference which is known to a procedure escapes.

3.4 Wrap-Up

We have considered various optimizations for improving hardware utilization.

Arrangement of the Optimizations:

- First, global restructuring of procedures/functions and of loops for better memory behavior.
- Then local restructuring for better utilization of the instruction set and the processor parallelism.
- Then register allocation and finally,
- Peephole optimization for the final kick ...

Procedures:	Tail Recursion + Inlining	
	SSA	
	Stack Allocation	
Loops:	Iteration Reordering	
	\rightarrow if-Distribution	
	\rightarrow for-Distribution	
	Value Caching	
Bodies:	Instruction Scheduling with	
	→ Loop Unrolling	
	\rightarrow Loop Fusion	
Instructions:	Register Allocation	
	Instruction Selection	
	Peephole Optimization	

4 Optimization of Functional Programs

Example

let rec fac x = if $x \le 1$ then 1 else $x \cdot fac (x - 1)$

- There are no basic blocks.
- There are no loops.
- Virtually all functions are recursive!

Strategies for Optimization

→ Improve specific inefficiencies such as:

- Pattern matching
- Lazy evaluation (if supported)
- Indirections Unboxing / Escape Analysis
- Intermediate data-structures Deforestation
- \longrightarrow Detect and/or generate loops with basic blocks!
 - Tail recursion
 - Inlining
 - let-Floating

Then apply general optimization techniques

... e.g., by translation into C.

Warning

Novel analysis techniques are needed to collect information about functional programs.

Example: Inlining

let max (x, y) = if x > y then xelse ylet abs z = max (z, -z)

As result of the optimization we expect ...



Discussion

For the beginning, max is just a name. We must find out which value it takes at run-time

→ Value Analysis required !!



Nevin Heintze in the Australian team of the Prolog-Programming-Contest, 1998

The complete picture:



4.1 A Simple Functional Language

For simplicity, we consider:

$$e ::= b | (e_1, \dots, e_k) | c e_1 \dots e_k | \text{fun } x \to e$$

$$| (e_1 e_2) | (\Box_1 e) | (e_1 \Box_2 e_2) |$$

$$\text{let } x_1 = e_1 \text{ in } e_0 |$$

$$\text{match } e_0 \text{ with } p_1 \to e_1 | \dots | p_k \to e_k$$

$$p ::= b | x | c x_1 \dots x_k | (x_1, \dots, x_k)$$

$$t ::= \text{let rec } x_1 = e_1 \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } x_k = e_k \text{ in } e$$

where *b* is a constant, *x* is a variable, *c* is a (data-)constructor and \Box_i are *i*-ary operators.

Discussion

- let rec only occurs on top-level.
- Functions are always unary. Instead, there are explicit tuples.
- **if**-expressions and case distinction in function definitions is reduced to **match**-expressions.
- In case distinctions, we allow just simple patterns.
 - → Complex patterns must be decomposed ...
- **let**-definitions correspond to basic blocks.
- Type-annotations at variables, patterns or expressions could provide further useful information
 - which we ignore.
... in the Example:

A definition of max may look as follows:

let max = fun $x \rightarrow$ match x with $(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow$ (match $x_1 < x_2$ with True $\rightarrow x_2$ | False $\rightarrow x_1$ Accordingly, we have for abs :

let abs = fun
$$x \rightarrow$$
 let $z = (x, -x)$
in max z

4.2 A Simple Value Analysis

Idea

For every subexpression e we collect the set $\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp}$ of possible values of e ...

Let V denote the set of occurring (classes of) constants, functions as well as applications of constructors and operators. As our lattice, we choose:

$$\mathbb{V} = 2^V$$

As usual, we put up a constraint system:

.....

• If *e* is a value, i.e., of the form: $b, c e_1 \dots e_k, (e_1, \dots, e_k)$, an operator application or $f un x \rightarrow e$ we generate the constraint:

$$\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq \{e\}$$

• If
$$e \equiv (e_1 \ e_2)$$
 and $f \equiv \operatorname{fun} x \to e'$, then
 $\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq (f \in \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp}) ? \llbracket e' \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \emptyset$

$$\llbracket x \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq (f \in \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp}) ? \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \emptyset$$

• If $e \equiv \text{let } x_1 = e_1 \text{ in } e_0$, then we generate:

$$\llbracket x_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq \llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^{\sharp}$$

• Analogously for $t \equiv \text{letrec } x_1 = e_1 \dots x_k = e_k \text{ in } e_0$:

$$\begin{split} \llbracket x_i \rrbracket^{\sharp} & \supseteq & \llbracket e_i \rrbracket^{\sharp} \\ \llbracket t \rrbracket^{\sharp} & \supseteq & \llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \end{split}$$

 int-values returned by operators are described by the unevaluated expression;

Operator applications might return Boolean values or other basic values. Therefore, we do replace tests for basic values by non-deterministic choice ...

• Assume $e \equiv \text{match } e_0 \text{ with } p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \ldots \mid p_k \rightarrow e_k$. Then we generate for $p_i \equiv b$ (basic value),

. . .

$$\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq \llbracket e_i \rrbracket^{\sharp}$$

If $p_i \equiv c y_1 \dots y_k$ and $v \equiv c e'_1 \dots e'_k$ is a value, then $\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq (v \in \llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^{\sharp}) ? \llbracket e_i \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \emptyset$ $\llbracket y_i \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq (v \in \llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^{\sharp}) ? \llbracket e'_i \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \emptyset$ If $p_i \equiv (y_1, \ldots, y_k)$ and $v \equiv (e'_1, \ldots, e'_k)$ is a value, then $\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq (v \in \llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^{\sharp}) ? \llbracket e_i \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \emptyset$ $\llbracket y_j \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq (v \in \llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^{\sharp}) ? \llbracket e'_j \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \emptyset$ If $p_i \equiv y$, then $\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq \llbracket e_i \rrbracket^{\sharp}$ $\llbracket y \rrbracket^{\sharp} \supseteq \llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^{\sharp}$

Example The app-Function

Consider the concatenation of two lists. In Ocaml, we would write:

let rec app = fun
$$x \rightarrow$$
 match x with
[] \rightarrow fun $y \rightarrow y$
| $h::t \rightarrow$ fun $y \rightarrow h::$ app $t y$

in app [1;2] [3]

. . .

The analysis then results in:

$$\begin{split} \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= \{ \mathbf{fun} \ x \to \mathbf{match} \dots \} \\ \llbracket x \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= \{ [1; 2], [2], [] \} \\ \llbracket \mathbf{match} \dots \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= \{ \mathbf{fun} \ y \to y, \mathbf{fun} \ y \to h :: \mathbf{app} \ t \ y \} \\ \llbracket y \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= \{ [3] \} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \llbracket h \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= \{1, 2\} \\ \llbracket t \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= \{[2], []\} \\ \llbracket app t \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= \\ \llbracket app [1; 2] \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= \{ \mathbf{fun} \ y \to y, \mathbf{fun} \ y \to h :: app \ t \ y \} \\ \llbracket app \ t \ y \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= \\ \llbracket app \ [1; 2] \ [3] \rrbracket^{\sharp} &= \{ [3], h :: app \ t \ y \} \end{split}$$

. . .

Values $c e_1 \dots e_k$, (e_1, \dots, e_k) or operator applications $e_1 \Box e_2$ now are interpreted as recursive calls $c \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \dots \llbracket e_k \rrbracket^{\sharp}$, $(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp}, \dots, \llbracket e_k \rrbracket^{\sharp})$ or $\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \Box \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp}$, respectively.

 \implies regular tree grammar

... in the Example:

We obtain for $A = [app t y]^{\sharp}$:

Let $\mathcal{L}(e)$ denote the set of terms derivable from $\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp}$ w.r.t. the regular tree grammar. Thus, e.g.,

$$\mathcal{L}(h) = \{1, 2\}$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\operatorname{app} t y) = \{[a_1; \dots, a_r; 3] \mid r \ge 0, a_i \in \{1, 2\}\}$$

4.3 An Operational Semantics

Idea

We construct a **Big-Step** operational semantics which evaluates expressions w.r.t. an environment.

Values are of the form:

$$v ::= b \mid c v_1 \dots c_k \mid (v_1, \dots, v_k) \mid (\mathbf{fun} x \to e, \eta)$$

Examples for Values

$$c 1$$

[1; 2] = :: 1 (:: 2 [])
(fun x → x::y, {y ↦ [5]})

Expressions are evaluated w.r.t. an environment $\eta: Vars \rightarrow Values$.

The Big-Step operational semantics provides rules to infer the value to which an expression is evaluated w.r.t. a given environment, i.e., deals with statements of the form:

 $(e,\eta) \Longrightarrow v$

Values

$$(b, \eta) \Longrightarrow b$$

$$(\mathbf{fun} x \to e, \eta) \Longrightarrow (\mathbf{fun} x \to e, \eta)$$

$$(e_1,\eta) \Longrightarrow v_1 \ldots (e_k,\eta) \Longrightarrow v_k$$

$$(c e_1 \dots e_k, \eta) \Longrightarrow c v_1 \dots v_k$$

Operator applications are treated analogously!

$$(e_1, \eta) \Longrightarrow v_1 \quad \dots \quad (e_k, \eta) \Longrightarrow v_k$$

$$((e_1,\ldots,e_k),\eta) \Longrightarrow (v_1,\ldots,v_k)$$

Global Definition

$$e = e \dots in \dots$$

$$(e, \emptyset) \Longrightarrow v$$

$$(x,\eta) \Longrightarrow v$$

Function Application

$$(e_1, \eta) \Longrightarrow (\mathbf{fun} \ x \to e, \eta_1)$$
$$(e_2, \eta) \Longrightarrow v_2$$
$$(e, \eta_1 \oplus \{x \mapsto v_2\}) \Longrightarrow v_3$$

 $(e_1 \ e_2, \eta) \Longrightarrow v_3$

$$(e, \eta) \Longrightarrow b$$
$$(e_i, \eta) \Longrightarrow v$$

(match
$$e$$
 with $p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \ldots \mid p_k \rightarrow e_k, \eta \implies v$

if $p_i \equiv b$ is the first pattern which matches b.

$$(e, \eta) \Longrightarrow c v_1 \dots v_k$$
$$(e_i, \eta \oplus \{z_1 \mapsto v_1, \dots, z_k \mapsto v_k\}) \Longrightarrow v$$

(match e with
$$p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \ldots \mid p_k \rightarrow e_k, \eta \implies v$$

if $p_i \equiv c \ z_1 \dots z_k$ is the first pattern which matches $c \ v_1 \dots v_k$.

$$(e, \eta) \Longrightarrow (v_1, \dots, v_k)$$
$$(e_i, \eta \oplus \{y_1 \mapsto v_1, \dots, y_1 \mapsto v_k\}) \Longrightarrow v$$

(match
$$e$$
 with $p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \ldots \mid p_k \rightarrow e_k, \eta \implies v$

if
$$p_i \equiv (y_1, \ldots, y_k)$$
 is the first pattern which matches (v_1, \ldots, v_k) .

$$(e, \eta) \Longrightarrow v'$$
$$(e_i, \eta \oplus \{x \mapsto v'\}) \Longrightarrow v$$

(match e with
$$p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \ldots \mid p_k \rightarrow e_k, \eta \implies v$$

if $p_i \equiv x$ is the first pattern which matches v'.

Local Definitions

$$(e_1, \eta) \Longrightarrow v_1$$
$$(e_0, \eta \oplus \{x_1 \mapsto v_1\}) \Longrightarrow v_0$$

$$(\mathbf{let} \ x_1 = e_1 \ \mathbf{in} \ e_0, \eta) \Longrightarrow v_0$$

Variables

$$(x,\eta) \Longrightarrow \eta(x)$$

Correctness of the Analysis

For every (e, η) occurring in a proof for the program, it should hold:

- If $\eta(x) = v$, then $[v] \Delta \mathcal{L}(x)$.
- If $(e, \eta) \Longrightarrow v$, then $[v] \Delta \mathcal{L}(e) \dots$
- where [v] is the stripped expression corresponding to v, i.e., obtained by removing all environments, and
- $v \Delta L$ iff $v \in L$ or L has an expression v' which evaluates to v.

Conclusion

 $\mathcal{L}(e)$ returns a superset of the values to which e is evaluated.

4.4 Application: Inlining

Problem

• global variables. The program:

$$\begin{array}{rrrr} \mathbf{let} & x = 1 \\ \mathbf{in} \ \mathbf{let} & f = & \mathbf{let} & x = 2 \\ & & \mathbf{in} & \mathbf{fun} \ y \ \rightarrow \ y + x \\ \mathbf{in} & f \ x \end{array}$$

... computes something else than:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathbf{let} & x = 1\\ \mathbf{in} & \mathbf{let} & f = & \mathbf{let} & x = 2\\ & & \mathbf{in} & \mathbf{fun} & y \to y + x\\ \mathbf{in} & & \mathbf{let} & y = x\\ & & \mathbf{in} & y + x \end{array}$$

• recursive functions. In the definition:

foo = fun
$$y \rightarrow$$
 foo y

foo should better not be substituted.

Idea 1

- \rightarrow First, we introduce unique variable names.
- \rightarrow Then, we only substitute functions which are staticly within the scope of the same global variables as the application.
- → For every expression, we determine all function definitions with this property.

Let D = D[e] denote the set of definitions which staticly arrive at e.

• If
$$e \equiv \text{let } x_1 = e_1 \text{ in } e_0$$
 then:
 $D[e_1] = D$
 $D[e_0] = D \cup \{x_1\}$

• If
$$e \equiv \operatorname{fun} x \to e_1$$
 then:
 $D[e_1] = D \cup \{x\}$

•• Similarly, for $e \equiv \operatorname{match} \ldots c x_1 \ldots x_k \rightarrow e_i \ldots$,

$$D[e_i] = D \cup \{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$$

In all other cases, D is propagated to the sub-expressions unchanged.

... in the Example:

let x = 1in let f = let $x_1 = 2$ in fun $y \rightarrow y + x_1$ in f x

... the application f x is not in the scope of x_1 \implies we first duplicate the definition of x_1 : let x = 1in let $x_1 = 2$ in let f = let $x_1 = 2$ in fun $y \rightarrow y + x_1$ in f x



the inner definition becomes redundant !!!

let x = 1in let $x_1 = 2$ in let $f = \text{fun } y \rightarrow y + x_1$ in f x



now we can apply inlining :

let
$$x = 1$$

in let $x_1 = 2$
in let $f = \operatorname{fun} y \rightarrow y + x_1$
in let $y = x$
in $y + x_1$

Removing variable-variable-assignments, we arrive at:

let
$$x = 1$$

in let $x_1 = 2$
in let $f = \text{fun } y \rightarrow y + x_1$
in $x + x_1$

Idea 2

- \rightarrow We apply our value analysis.
- \rightarrow We ignore global variables.
- \rightarrow We only substitute functions without free variables.

Example:The map-Functionlet rec $f = fun \ x \rightarrow x \cdot x$ and $map = fun \ g \rightarrow fun \ x \rightarrow match \ x$ with $[] \rightarrow []$ $x::xs \rightarrow g \ x::map \ g \ xs$

in map f *list*

- The actual parameter f in the application map g is always fun $x \to x \cdot x$.
- Therefore, map g can be specialized to a new function h defined by:

$$h = let g = fun x \rightarrow x \cdot x$$

in fun $x \rightarrow match x$
with $[] \rightarrow []$
 $| x::xs \rightarrow g x :: map g xs$

The inner occurrence of map g can be replaced with h

 \implies fold-Transformation.

$$\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{let} \ g = \mathbf{fun} \ x \to x \cdot x$$

$$\mathbf{in} \ \mathbf{fun} \ x \to \mathbf{match} \ x$$

$$\mathbf{with} \ [] \to \ []$$

$$| \qquad x :: xs \to \ g \ x :: \mathbf{h} \ xs$$

Inlining the function g yields:

$$h = let g = fun x \rightarrow x \cdot x$$

in fun $x \rightarrow match x$
with $[] \rightarrow []$
 $| x::xs \rightarrow (let x = x)$
in $x * x$) :: h xs

Removing useless definitions and variable-variable assignments yields:

$$h = \operatorname{fun} x \to \operatorname{match} x$$

with [] \to []
 $x::xs \to x * x :: h xs$

4.5 **Deforestation**

- Functional programmers love to collect intermediate results in lists which are processed by higher-order functions.
- Examples of such higher-order functions are:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathsf{map} &=& \mathbf{fun} \ f \ \to \ \mathbf{fun} \ l \ \to \ \mathbf{match} \ l \ \mathbf{with} \ [] \ \to \ [] \\ & | \ x :: xs \ \to \ f \ x :: \mathbf{map} \ f \ xs) \end{array}$$

filter = fun $p \rightarrow$ fun $l \rightarrow$ match l with $[] \rightarrow []$ $| x::xs \rightarrow$ if px then x:: filter pxselse filter pxs)

 $\begin{aligned} \mathsf{foldl} &= \mathsf{fun} \ f \to \mathsf{fun} \ a \to \mathsf{fun} \ l \to \mathsf{match} \ l \mathsf{ with} \ [] \to a \\ &| x :: xs \to \mathsf{foldl} \ f \ (f \ a \ x) \ xs) \end{aligned}$

id = fun
$$x \rightarrow x$$

 $\mathsf{comp} = \mathsf{fun} f \to \mathsf{fun} g \to \mathsf{fun} x \to f(g x)$

$$\operatorname{comp}_1 = \operatorname{fun} f \to \operatorname{fun} g \to \operatorname{fun} x_1 \to \operatorname{fun} x_2 \to f(g x_1) x_2$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathsf{comp}_2 &=& \mathbf{fun} \ f \ \to \ \mathbf{fun} \ g \ \to \ \mathbf{fun} \ x_1 \ \to \ \mathbf{fun} \ x_2 \ \to \\ & f \ x_1 \ (g \ x_2) \end{array}$$
Example

Observations

- Explicit recursion does no longer occur!
- The implementation creates unnecessary intermediate data-structures!

length could also be implemented as:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathsf{length} &=& \mathsf{let} & f &=& \mathsf{fun} \; a \; \to \; \mathsf{fun} \; x \; \to \; a+1 \\ & & \mathsf{in} \; \mathsf{foldl} \; f \; 0 \end{array}$$

• This implementation avoids to create intermediate lists !!!



Phil Wadler, Edinburgh

Simplification Rules

Simplification Rules

 $= \operatorname{comp} f \operatorname{id} = f$ $\operatorname{comp} \operatorname{id} f$ $= \operatorname{comp}_2 f \operatorname{id} = f$ $\operatorname{comp}_1 f$ id = id map id $\operatorname{comp}(\operatorname{map} f)(\operatorname{map} g) = \operatorname{map}(\operatorname{comp} f g)$ $\operatorname{comp} (\operatorname{fold} f a) (\operatorname{map} g) = \operatorname{fold} (\operatorname{comp}_2 f g) a$ comp (filter p_1) (filter p_2) = filter (fun $x \rightarrow if p_2 x$ then $p_1 x$ else false) comp (fold f a) (filter p) = let $h = fun \ a \to fun \ x \to if \ p \ x$ then $f \ a \ x$ else a

in fold h a

Caveat

Function compositions also could occur as nested function calls ...

in fold h a l

Example, optimized:

sum = fold (+) 0length = let $f = \operatorname{comp}_2(+)$ (fun $x \to 1$) in fold f 0dev = fun $l \rightarrow$ let s_1 = sum l in let n = length l in let mean = s_1/n in let $f = \operatorname{comp} (\operatorname{fun} x \to x \cdot x)$ $(\mathbf{fun} \ x \to x - mean)$ in $let \quad g \quad = \operatorname{comp}_2(+) f \quad in$ let s_2 = fold $g \ 0 \ l$ in s_2/n

Remarks

- All intermediate lists have disappeared.
- Only foldI remain i.e., loops.
- Compositions of functions can be further simplified in the next step by Inlining.
- Inside dev, we then obtain:

$$g = \operatorname{fun} a \to \operatorname{fun} x \to \operatorname{let} \quad x_1 = x - \operatorname{mean} \operatorname{in}$$

 $\operatorname{let} \quad x_2 = x_1 \cdot x_1 \quad \operatorname{in}$
 $a + x_2$

• The result is a sequence of **let**-definitions !!!

Extension: Tabulation

If the list has been created by tabulation of a function, the creation of the list sometimes can be avoided ...

tabulate' = fun $j \rightarrow$ fun $f \rightarrow$ fun $n \rightarrow$ if $j \ge n$ then [] else (f j) :: tabulate' (j + 1) f n

tabulate = tabulate' 0

Then we have:

where

Extension (2): List Reversals

Sometimes, the ordering of lists or arguments is reversed:

rev' = fun $a \rightarrow$ fun $l \rightarrow$ match l with $[] \rightarrow a$ $| x :: xs \rightarrow \operatorname{rev}'(x :: a) xs$ = rev' [] rev comp rev rev = id $= \mathbf{fun} f \to \mathbf{fun} x \to \mathbf{fun} y \to f y x$ swap comp swap swap = id

foldr f a = comp(foldl(swap f) a) rev

Discussion

- The standard implementation of foldr is not tail-recursive.
- The last equation decomposes a foldr into two tail-recursive functions at the price that an intermediate list is created.
- Therefore, the standard implementation is probably faster.
- Sometimes, the operation rev can also be optimized away ...

We have:

comp rev (map f)=comp (map f) revcomp rev (filter p)=comp (filter p) revcomp rev (tabulate f)=rev_tabulate f

Here, rev_tabulate tabulates in reverse ordering. This function has properties quite analogous to tabulate:

Extension (3): Dependencies on the Index

- Correctness is proven by induction on the lengthes of occurring lists.
- Similar composition results also hold for transformations which take the current indices into account:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathsf{mapi}' &=& \mathbf{fun} \ i \ \to \ \mathbf{fun} \ f \ \to \ \mathbf{fun} \ l \ \to \ \mathbf{match} \ l \ \mathbf{with} \ [] \ \to \ [] \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ &$$

Analogously, there is index-dependent accumulation:

For composition, we must take care that always the same indices are used. This is achieved by:

compi = fun
$$f \rightarrow$$
 fun $g \rightarrow$ fun $i \rightarrow$ fun $x \rightarrow$ $f i (g i x)$

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathsf{cmp}_1 & = & \mathbf{fun} \ f \ \to \ \mathbf{fun} \ g \ \to \ \mathbf{fun} \ i \ \to \ \mathbf{fun} \ x_1 \ \to \ \mathbf{fun} \ x_2 \ \to \\ & f \ i \ x_1 \ (g \ x_2) \end{array}$$

Then

- $\operatorname{comp}(\operatorname{mapi} f)(\operatorname{map} g) = \operatorname{mapi}(\operatorname{comp}_2 f g)$
- comp(map f)(mapi g)
- $\mathsf{comp}\,(\mathsf{mapi}\,f)\,(\mathsf{mapi}\,g)$
- comp (foldli f a) (map g)
- comp (foldl f a) (mapi g)
- $\operatorname{comp}(\operatorname{foldli} f a) (\operatorname{mapi} g) = \operatorname{foldli}(\operatorname{compi}_2 f g) a$

 $\operatorname{comp}(\operatorname{foldli} f a)(\operatorname{tabulate} q)$

- = mapi (comp f g)
- = mapi (compi f g)
- = foldli $(\operatorname{cmp}_1 f g) a$
- = foldli $(\operatorname{cmp}_2 f g) a$

$$= \mathbf{let} \ h = \mathbf{fun} \ a \ \to \ \mathbf{fun} \ i \ \to \\ f \ i \ a \ (g \ i)$$

in loop h a

Discussion

- Warning: index-dependent transformations may not commute with rev or filter.
- All our rules can only be applied if the functions id, map, mapi, foldI, foldIi, filter, rev, tabulate, rev_tabulate, loop, rev_loop, ... are provided by a standard library: Only then the algebraic properties can be guaranteed !!!
- Similar simplification rules can be derived for any kind of tree-like data-structure tree α .
- These also provide operations map, mapi and foldl, foldli with corresponding rules.
- Further opportunities are opened up by functions to_list and from_list ...

Example

type tree α = Leaf | Node α (tree α) (tree α) map = fun $f \rightarrow$ fun $t \rightarrow$ match t with Leaf \rightarrow Leaf | Node $x \ l \ r \rightarrow$ let $l' = map f \ l$ r' = map f rin Node $(f \ x) \ l' \ r'$

to_list = to_list' []

from_list = fun
$$l \rightarrow$$
 match l
with $[] \rightarrow$ Leaf
 $| x :: xs \rightarrow Node x Leaf (from_list xs)$

Caveat

Not every natural equation is valid:

comp to_list from_list = id comp from_list to_list \neq id $\mathsf{comp to_list} (\mathsf{map} \ f) \qquad = \ \mathsf{comp} \ (\mathsf{map} \ f) \ \mathsf{to_list}$ $\mathsf{comp}\;\mathsf{from_list}\;(\mathsf{map}\;f) \quad = \;\;\mathsf{comp}\;(\mathsf{map}\;f)\;\mathsf{from_list}$ $\operatorname{comp} (\operatorname{fold} f a) \operatorname{to_list} = \operatorname{fold} f a$ $\operatorname{comp} (\operatorname{fold} f a) \operatorname{from_list} = \operatorname{fold} f a$

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In this case, there is even a rev:

comp to_list rev = comp rev to_list
comp from_list rev \neq comp rev from_list

4.6 CBN vs. CBV: Strictness Analysis

Problem

- Programming languages such as Haskell evaluate expressions for let-defined variables and actual parameters not before their values are accessed.
- This allows for an elegant treatment of (possibly) infinite lists of which only small initial segments are required for computing the result.
- Delaying evaluation by default incures, though, a non-trivial overhead ...

Example

from = fun $n \rightarrow n$:: from (n+1)

take = fun
$$k \rightarrow$$
 fun $s \rightarrow$ if $k \leq 0$ then []
else match s with [] \rightarrow []
 $| x :: xs \rightarrow x :: take (k-1) xs$

Then CBN yields

take 5 (from 0) = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]

— whereas evaluation with CBV does not terminate !!!

Then CBN yields

take 5 (from 0) = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]

— whereas evaluation with CBV does not terminate !!!

On the other hand, for CBN, tail-recursive functions may require non-constant space ???

$$fac2 = fun x \rightarrow fun a \rightarrow if x \le 0 then a$$

else fac2 $(x - 1) (a \cdot x)$

Discussion

- The multiplications are collected in the accumulating parameter through nested closures.
- Only when the value of a call fac2 x 1 is accessed, this dynamic data structure is evaluated.
- Instead, the accumulating parameter should have been passed directly by-value !!!
- This is the goal of the following optimization ...

Simplification

- At first, we rule out data structures, higher-order functions, and local function definitions.
- We introduce an unary operator # which forces the evaluation of a variable.
- Goal of the transformation is to place # at as many places as possible ...

Simplification

- At first, we rule out data structures, higher-order functions, and local function definitions.
- We introduce an unary operator # which forces the evaluation of a variable.
- Goal of the transformation is to place # at as many places as possible ...

$$e \qquad ::= \quad c \mid x \mid e_1 \square_2 e_2 \mid \square_1 e \mid f e_1 \dots e_k \mid \text{if } e_0 \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_2$$
$$\mid \text{let } r_1 = e_1 \text{ in } e$$

$$r \qquad ::= \quad x \mid \# x$$

$$d \qquad ::= f x_1 \dots x_k = e$$

p ::= letrec and $d_1 \ldots$ and d_n in e

Idea

• Describe a *k*-ary function

$$f: \mathbf{int} \to \ldots \to \mathbf{int}$$

by a function

$$\llbracket f \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \mathbb{B} \to \ldots \to \mathbb{B}$$

- 0 means: evaluation does definitely not terminate.
- 1 means: evaluation may terminate.
- $[\![f]\!]^{\sharp} 0 = 0$ means: If the function call returns a value, then the evaluation of the argument must have terminated and returned a value.

$$\implies f \text{ is strict.}$$



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Idea (cont.)

- We determine the abstract semantics of all functions.
- For that, we put up a system of equations ...

Auxiliary Function

• • •

$\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp}$	•	$(Vars \to \mathbb{B}) \to \mathbb{B}$
$[\![c]\!]^{\sharp} \rho$	=	1
$[\![x]\!]^{\sharp} \rho$	=	ho x
$\llbracket \Box_1 \ e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \ \rho$	=	$\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho$
$\llbracket e_1 \ \Box_2 \ e_2 \rrbracket^\sharp \ \rho$	=	$\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \land \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho$
$\llbracket \mathbf{if} \ e_0 \ \mathbf{then} \ e_1 \ \mathbf{else} \ e_2 rbracket^{\sharp} ho$	=	$\llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge (\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \lor \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho)$
$\llbracket f \ e_1 \ \dots \ e_k \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho$	=	$\llbracket f \rrbracket^{\sharp} (\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho) \ldots (\llbracket e_k \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{let} \ x_1 = e_1 \ \mathbf{in} \ e \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} \rho = \begin{bmatrix} e \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} \left(\rho \oplus \{x_1 \mapsto \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \} \right)$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{let} \ \#x_1 = e_1 \ \mathbf{in} \ e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho = \left(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \right) \wedge \left(\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \left(\rho \oplus \{x_1 \mapsto 1\} \right) \right)$$

System of Equations

 $\llbracket f_i \rrbracket^{\sharp} b_1 \dots b_k = \llbracket e_i \rrbracket^{\sharp} \{ x_j \mapsto b_j \mid j = 1, \dots, k \}, \qquad i = 1, \dots, n, b_1, \dots, b_k \in \mathbb{B}$

- The unkowns of the system of equations are the functions $[\![f_i]\!]^{\sharp}$ or the individual entries $[\![f_i]\!]^{\sharp}b_1 \dots b_k$ in the value table.
- All right-hand sides are monotonic!
- Consequently, there is a least solution.
- The complete lattice $\mathbb{B} \to \ldots \to \mathbb{B}$ has height $\mathcal{O}(2^k)$.

Example

For fac2, we obtain:

$$\llbracket fac2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} b_1 \ b_2 = b_1 \land (b_2 \lor \\ \llbracket fac2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} b_1 \ (b_1 \land b_2))$$

Fixpoint iteration yields:

We conclude:

- The function fac2 is strict in both arguments, i.e., if evaluation terminates, then also the evaluation of its arguments.
- Accordingly, we transform:

fac2 = fun $x \rightarrow$ fun $a \rightarrow$ if $x \leq 0$ then aelse let # x' = x - 1 $\# a' = x \cdot a$ in fac2 x' a'

Correctness of the Analysis

- The system of equations is an abstract denotational semantics.
- The denotational semantics characterizes the meaning of functions as least solution of the corresponding equations for the concrete semantics.
- For values, the denotational semantics relies on the complete partial ordering \mathbb{Z}_{\perp} .
- For complete partial orderings, Kleene's fixpoint theorem is applicable.
- As description relation Δ we use:

$$\perp \Delta 0$$
 and $z \Delta 1$ for $z \in \mathbb{Z}_{\perp}$
Extension: Data Structures

• Functions may vary in the parts which they require from a data structure ...

 $hd = fun l \rightarrow match l with x :: xs \rightarrow x$

- hd only accesses the first element of a list.
- length only accesses the backbone of its argument.
- rev forces the evaluation of the complete argument given that the result is required completely ...

Extension of the Syntax

We additionally consider expression of the form:

$$e ::= \dots | [] | e_1 :: e_2 | \operatorname{match} e_0 \operatorname{with} [] \to e_1 | x :: xs \to e_2 \\ | (e_1, e_2) | \operatorname{match} e_0 \operatorname{with} (x_1, x_2) \to e_1$$

Top Strictness

- We assume that the program is well-typed.
- We are only interested in top constructors.
- Again, we model this property with (monotonic) Boolean functions.
- For **int**-values, this coincides with strictness.
- We extend $\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho$ with rules for case-distinction ...

- The rules for **match** are analogous to those for **if**.
- In case of ::, we know nothing about the values beneath the constructor; therefore $\{x, xs \mapsto 1\}$.
- We check our analysis on the function app ...

Example

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathsf{app} &=& \mathbf{fun} \; x \; \to \; \mathbf{fun} \; y \; \to \; \mathbf{match} \; x \; \mathbf{with} \; [\;] \; \to \; y \\ &\mid \; x :: xs \; \to \; x :: \; \mathsf{app} \; xs \; y \end{array}$$

Abstract interpretation yields the system of equations:

$$\llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp} b_1 b_2 = b_1 \wedge (b_2 \vee 1)$$
$$= b_1$$

We conclude that we may conclude for sure only for the first argument that its top constructor is required.

Total Strictness

Assume that the result of the function application is totally required. Which arguments then are also totally required ?

We again refer to Boolean functions ...

 $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{match} \ e_0 \ \mathbf{with} \ [\] \ \to \ e_1 \ | \ x, :: xs \ \to \ e_2 \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} \rho = \mathbf{let} \ b = \llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \mathbf{in} \\ b \wedge \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \vee \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \left(\rho \oplus \{x \mapsto b, xs \mapsto 1\} \right) \vee \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \left(\rho \oplus \{x \mapsto 1, xs \mapsto b\} \right) \\ \llbracket \mathbf{match} \ e_0 \ \mathbf{with} \ (x_1, x_2) \ \to \ e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho = \mathbf{let} \ b = \llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \mathbf{in} \\ \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \left(\rho \oplus \{x_1 \mapsto 1, x_2 \mapsto b\} \right) \vee \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \left(\rho \oplus \{x_1 \mapsto b, x_2 \mapsto 1\} \right) \\ \llbracket \llbracket \Pi \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho = \mathbf{let} \\ \llbracket e_1 :: e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho = \mathbf{let} \\ \llbracket (e_1, e_2) \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ \equiv \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ \equiv \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \\ = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \wedge \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho$

Discussion

- The rules for constructor applications have changed.
- Also the treatment of **match** now involves the components z and x_1, x_2 .
- Again, we check the approach for the function app.

Example

Abstract interpretation yields the system of equations:

$$\begin{split} \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp} b_1 \ b_2 &= b_1 \wedge b_2 \lor b_1 \wedge \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp} 1 \ b_2 \lor 1 \wedge \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp} b_1 \ b_2 \\ &= b_1 \wedge b_2 \lor b_1 \wedge \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp} 1 \ b_2 \lor \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp} b_1 \ b_2 \end{split}$$

This results in the following fixpoint iteration:

We deduce that both arguments are definitely totally required if the result is totally required.

Caveat

Whether or not the result is totally required, depends on the context of the function call!

In such a context, a specialized function may be called ...

Discussion

- Both strictness analyses employ the same complete lattice.
- Results and application, though, are quite different.
- Thereby, we use the following description relations:

Top Strictness	:	$\perp \Delta 0$
Total Strictness	:	$z \Delta 0$ if \perp occurs in z .

• Both analyses can also be combined to an a joint analysis ...

Combined Strictness Analysis

• We use the complete lattice:

 $\mathbb{T} = \{ 0 \sqsubset 1 \sqsubset 2 \}$

• The description relation is given by:

```
\perp \Delta 0 \quad z \Delta 1 \ (z \text{ contains } \perp) \quad z \Delta 2 \ (z \text{ value})
```

- The lattice is more informative, the functions, though, are no longer as efficiently representable, e.g., through Boolean expressions.
- We require the auxiliary functions:

$$(i \sqsubseteq x); \ y = \begin{cases} y & \text{if } i \sqsubseteq x \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The Combined Evaluation Function

$$\begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{match} e_{0} \operatorname{with} [] \to e_{1} | x :: xs \to e_{2} \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} \rho = \operatorname{let} b = \llbracket e_{0} \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \operatorname{in} \\ (2 \sqsubseteq b) ; \llbracket e_{1} \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \sqcup \\ (1 \sqsubseteq b) ; (\llbracket e_{2} \rrbracket^{\sharp} (\rho \oplus \{x \mapsto 2, xs \mapsto b\}) \\ \sqcup \llbracket e_{2} \rrbracket^{\sharp} (\rho \oplus \{x \mapsto b, xs \mapsto 2\})) \\ \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{match} e_{0} \operatorname{with} (x_{1}, x_{2}) \to e_{1} \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho = \operatorname{let} b = \llbracket e_{0} \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \operatorname{in} \\ (1 \sqsubseteq b) ; (\llbracket e_{1} \rrbracket^{\sharp} (\rho \oplus \{x_{1} \mapsto 2, x_{2} \mapsto b\}) \\ \sqcup \llbracket e_{1} \rrbracket^{\sharp} (\rho \oplus \{x_{1} \mapsto b, x_{2} \mapsto 2\})) \\ \\ \llbracket [e_{1} \colon^{\sharp} \rho = 2 \\ \llbracket e_{1} :: e_{2} \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho = 1 \sqcup (\llbracket e_{1} \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho \sqcap \llbracket e_{2} \rrbracket^{\sharp} \rho) \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

Example

For our beloved function app, we obtain:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{app} \end{bmatrix}^{\sharp} d_1 d_2 = (2 \sqsubseteq d_1); d_2 \sqcup (1 \sqsubseteq d_1); (1 \sqcup \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp} d_1 d_2 \sqcup d_1 \sqcap \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp} 2 d_2)$$
$$= (2 \sqsubseteq d_1); d_2 \sqcup (1 \sqsubseteq d_1); 1 \sqcup (1 \sqsubseteq d_1); \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp} d_1 d_2 \sqcup d_1 \sqcap \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp} 2 d_2$$

this results in the fixpoint computation:

We conclude

- that both arguments are totally required if the result is totally required; and
- that the root of the first argument is required if the root of the result is required.

Remark

The analysis can be easily generalized such that it guarantees evaluation up to a depth d.

Further Directions

- Our Approach is also applicable to other data structures.
- In principle, also higher-order (monomorphic) functions can be analyzed in this way.
- Then, however, we require higher-order abstract functions of which there are many.
- Such functions therefore are approximated by:

```
fun x_1 \rightarrow \ldots fun x_r \rightarrow \top
```

 For some known higher-order functions such as map, foldl, loop, ... only unary or binary functional arguments are required — of which there are sufficiently few.

5 Optimization of Logic Programs

We only consider the mini language PuP ("Pure Prolog"). In particular, we do not consider:

- arithmetic;
- the cut-operator.
- Self-modification by means of assert and retract.

Example

bigger(X,Y)	\leftarrow	X = elephant, Y = horse
bigger(X,Y)	\leftarrow	X = horse, Y = donkey
bigger(X,Y)	\leftarrow	X = donkey, Y = dog
bigger(X,Y)	\leftarrow	X = donkey, Y = monkey
$is_bigger(X, Y)$	\leftarrow	bigger(X,Y)
$is_bigger(X, Y)$	\leftarrow	$bigger(X, Z), is_bigger(Z, Y)$
	\leftarrow	<pre>is_bigger(elephant, dog)</pre>

A more realistic Example

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{app}(X, Y, Z) &\leftarrow X = [], \ Y = Z \\ \mathsf{app}(X, Y, Z) &\leftarrow X = [H|X'], \ Z = [H|Z'], \ \mathsf{app}(X', Y, Z') \\ &\leftarrow \ \mathsf{app}(X, [Y, c], [a, b, Z]) \end{aligned}$$

A more realistic Example

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{app}(X, Y, Z) &\leftarrow X = [], \ Y = Z \\ \mathsf{app}(X, Y, Z) &\leftarrow X = [H|X'], \ Z = [H|Z'], \ \mathsf{app}(X', Y, Z') \\ &\leftarrow \ \mathsf{app}(X, [Y, c], [a, b, Z]) \end{aligned}$$

Remark

[]	 the atom empty lis	st
[H Z]	 binary constructor	r application
[a, b, Z]	 Abbreviation for:	[a [b [Z []]]]

Accordingly, a program p is constructed as follows:

$$t ::= a | X | _ | f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$$

$$g ::= p(t_1, \dots, t_k) | X = t$$

$$c ::= p(X_1, \dots, X_k) \leftarrow g_1, \dots, g_r$$

$$q ::= \leftarrow g_1, \dots, g_r$$

$$p ::= c_1 \dots c_m q$$

- A term t either is an atom, a (possibly anonymous) variable or a constructor application.
- A goal g either is a literal, i.e., a predicate call, or a unification.
- A clause *c* consists of a head $p(X_1, ..., X_k)$ together with body consisting of a sequence of goals.
- A program consists of a sequence of clauses together with a sequence of goals as query.

Procedural View of PuP-Programs

literal	 procedure call
predicate	 procedure
definition	 body
term	 value
unification	 basic computation step
binding of variables	 side effect

Caveat: Predicate calls ...

- do not return results!
- modify the caller solely through side effects
- may fail. Then, the following definition is tried backtracking

Inefficiencies

Backtracking: ● The matching alternative must be searched for → Indexing

- Since a successful call may still fail later, the stack can only be cleared if there are no pending alternatives.
- **Unification:** The translation possibly must switch between build and check several times.
 - In case of unification with a variable, an Occur Check must be performed.
- Type Checking: Since Prolog is untyped, it must be checked at run-time whether or not a term is of the desired form.
 - Otherwise, ugly errors could show up.

Some Optimizations

- Replacing last calls with jumps;
- Compile-time type inference;
- Identification of deterministic predicates ...

Example

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{app}(X, Y, Z) &\leftarrow X = [], \ Y = Z \\ \mathsf{app}(X, Y, Z) &\leftarrow X = [H|X'], \ Z = [H|Z'], \ \mathsf{app}(X', Y, Z') \\ &\leftarrow \ \mathsf{app}([a, b], [Y, c], Z) \end{aligned}$$

Observation

- In PuP, functions must be simulated through predicates.
- These then have designated input- and output parameters.
- Input parameters are those which are instantiated with a variable-free term whenever the predicate is called.

These are also called ground.

- In the example, the first parameter of app is an input parameter.
- Unification with such a parameter can be implemented as pattern matching !
- Then we see that app in fact is deterministic !!!

5.1 Groundness Analysis

A variable X is called ground w.r.t. a program execution π starting program entry and entering a program point v, if X is bound to a variable-free term.

Goal

- Find all variables which are ground whenever a particular program point is reached !
- Find all arguments of a predicate which are ground whenever the predicate is called !

Idea

- Describe groundness by values from \mathbb{B} :
 - 1 = variable-free term;
 - 0 = term which contains variables.
- A set of variable assignments is described by Boolean functions.
 - $X \leftrightarrow Y = X$ is ground iff Y is ground.
 - $X \wedge Y = X$ and Y are ground.

Idea (cont.)

- The constant function 0 denotes an unreachable program point.
- Occurring sets of variable assignments are closed under substitution.

This means that for every occurring function $\phi \neq 0$,

$$\phi(1,\ldots,1)=1$$

These functions are called positive.

- The set of all positive functions is called Pos. Ordering: $\phi_1 \sqsubseteq \phi_2$ if $\phi_1 \Rightarrow \phi_2$.
- In particular, the least element is 0.

Example



Remarks

- Not all positive functions are monotonic !!!
- For *k* variables, there are $2^{2^{k}-1} + 1$ many functions.
- The height of the complete lattice is 2^k .
- We construct an interprocedural analysis which for every predicate p determines a (monotonic) transformation

$$\llbracket p \rrbracket^{\sharp} : \mathsf{Pos} \to \mathsf{Pos}$$

• For every clause, $p(X_1, \ldots, X_k) \Leftarrow g_1, \ldots, g_n$ we obtain the constraint:

$$\llbracket p \rrbracket^{\sharp} \psi \quad \supseteq \quad \exists X_{k+1}, \dots, X_m. \llbracket g_n \rrbracket^{\sharp} (\dots (\llbracket g_1 \rrbracket^{\sharp} \psi) \dots)$$

// m number of clause variables

Abstract Unification

$$\llbracket X = t \rrbracket^{\sharp} \psi = \psi \land (X \leftrightarrow X_1 \land \dots \land X_r)$$

if $Vars(t) = \{X_1, \dots, X_r\}.$

Abstract Literal

$$\llbracket q(s_1, \ldots, s_k) \rrbracket^{\sharp} \psi \quad = \quad \operatorname{combine}_{s_1, \ldots, s_k}^{\sharp} (\psi, \llbracket q \rrbracket^{\sharp} (\operatorname{enter}_{s_1, \ldots, s_k}^{\sharp} \psi))$$

// analogous to procedure call !!

Thereby

$$\operatorname{enter}_{s_1,\ldots,s_k}^{\sharp}\psi = \operatorname{ren}\left(\exists X_1,\ldots,X_m, \left[\!\left[\bar{X}_1=s_1,\ldots,\bar{X}_k=s_k\right]\!\right]^{\sharp}\psi\right)$$
$$\operatorname{combine}_{s_1,\ldots,s_k}^{\sharp}(\psi,\psi_1) = \exists \bar{X}_1,\ldots,\bar{X}_r,\psi \wedge \left[\!\left[\bar{X}_1=s_1,\ldots,\bar{X}_k=s_k\right]\!\right]^{\sharp}(\overline{\operatorname{ren}}\psi_1)$$

where

$$\exists X. \phi = \phi[0/X] \lor \phi[1/X]$$

ren $\phi = \phi[X_1/\bar{X}_1, \dots, X_k/\bar{X}_k]$

$$\overline{\operatorname{ren}} \phi = \phi[\overline{X}_1/X_1, \dots, \overline{X}_r/X_r]$$

Example

$$app(X, Y, Z) \leftarrow X = [], Y = Z$$
$$app(X, Y, Z) \leftarrow X = [H|X'], Z = [H|Z'], app(X', Y, Z')$$

Then

where for $\psi = X \wedge H \wedge X' \wedge (Z \leftrightarrow Z')$:

 $enter_{...}^{\sharp}(\psi) = X$ $combine_{...}^{\sharp}(\psi, X \land (Y \leftrightarrow Z)) = (X \land H \land X' \land (Z \leftrightarrow Z') \land (Y \leftrightarrow Z')$

Example (Cont.)

Furthermore,

$$\begin{split} \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp}(Z) & \sqsupseteq \quad X \land Y \land Z \\ \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp}(Z) & \sqsupset \quad \mathsf{let} \ \psi = H \land Z \land Z' \land (X \leftrightarrow X') \\ & \mathbf{in} \ \exists H, X', Z'. \ \mathsf{combine}_{\dots}^{\sharp} \left(\psi, \llbracket \mathsf{app} \rrbracket^{\sharp}(\mathsf{enter}_{\dots}^{\sharp}(\psi)) \right) \end{split}$$

where for $\psi = Z \wedge H \wedge Z' \wedge (X \leftrightarrow X')$:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathsf{enter}_{\dots}^{\sharp}(\psi) & = & Z \\ \mathsf{combine}_{\dots}^{\sharp}(\psi, X \wedge Y \wedge Z) & = & X \wedge H \wedge X' \wedge Y \wedge Z \wedge Z' \end{array}$$

Fixpoint iteration therefore yields:

$$[\operatorname{\mathsf{app}}]^{\sharp}(X) = X \wedge (Y \leftrightarrow Z) \qquad [[\operatorname{\mathsf{app}}]^{\sharp}(Z) = X \wedge Y \wedge Z$$

Discussion

- Exhaustive tabulation of the transformation [app][#] is not feasible.
- Therefore, we rely on demand-driven fixpoint iteration !
- The evaluation starts with the evaluation of the query g, i.e., with the evaluation of $[\![g]\!]^{\sharp} 1$.
- The set of inspected fixpoint variables $[\![p]\!]^{\sharp} \psi$ yields a description of all possible calls.
- For an efficient representation of functions $\psi \in \mathsf{Pos}$ we rely on binary decision diagrams (BDDs).

Background 6: Binary Decision Diagrams Idea (1)

- Choose an ordering x_1, \ldots, x_k on the arguments ...
- Represent the function $f : \mathbb{B} \to \ldots \to \mathbb{B}$ by $[f]_0$ where:

$$egin{array}{rll} [b]_k&=&b\ [f]_{i-1}&=&{f fun}\ x_i\ o\ {f if}\ x_i\ {f then}\ [f\ 1]_i\ {f else}\ [f\ 0]_i \end{array}$$

Example $f x_1 x_2 x_3 = x_1 \land (x_2 \leftrightarrow x_3)$

... yields the tree:



Idea (2)

- Decision trees are exponentially large ...
- Often, however, many sub-trees are isomorphic !!
- Isomorphic sub-trees need to be represented only once ...



Idea (3)

• Nodes whose test is irrelevant, can also be abandoned ...


Discussion

• This representation of the Boolean function f is unique !

Equality of functions is efficiently decidable !!

For the representation to be useful, it should support the basic operations: ∧, ∨, ¬, ⇒, ∃x_j...

$$[\exists x_j, f]_{i-1} = \operatorname{fun} x_i \to \operatorname{if} x_i \operatorname{then} [\exists x_j, f 1]_i$$

$$\operatorname{else} [\exists x_j, f 0]_i \qquad \text{if } i < j$$

$$[\exists x_j, f]_{j-1} = [f 0 \lor f 1]_j$$

- Operations are executed bottom-up.
- Root nodes of already constructed sub-graphs are stored in a unique-table

Isomorphy can be tested in constant time !

• The operations thus are polynomial in the size of the input BDDs.

Discussion

- Originally, BDDs have been developped for circuit verification.
- Today, they are also applied to the verification of software ...
- A system state is encoded by a sequence of bits.
- A BDD then describes the set of all reachable system states.
- Caveat: Repeated application of Boolean operations may increase the size dramatically !
- The variable ordering may have a dramatic impact ...

Example: $(x_1 \leftrightarrow x_2) \land (x_3 \leftrightarrow x_4)$





Discussion (2)

• In general, consider the function:

$$(x_1 \leftrightarrow x_2) \land \ldots \land (x_{2n-1} \leftrightarrow x_{2n})$$

W.r.t. the variable ordering:

 $x_1 < x_2 < \ldots < x_{2n}$

the BDD has 3n internal nodes.

W.r.t. the variable ordering:

 $x_1 < x_3 < \ldots < x_{2n-1} < x_2 < x_4 < \ldots < x_{2n}$

the BDD has more than 2^n internal nodes !!

 A similar result holds for the implementation of Addition through BDDs.

Discussion (3)

- Not all Boolean functions have small BDDs ...
- Difficult functions:
 - \Box multiplication;
 - □ indirect addressing ...

→ data-intensive programs cannot be analyzed in this way !

Perspectives: Further Properties of Programs

Freeness: Is X_i possibly/always unbound ?

If X_i is always unbound, no indexing for X_i is required. If X_i is never unbound, indexing for X_i is complete.

Pair Sharing: Are X_i, X_j possibly bound to terms t_i, t_j with

 $Vars(t_i) \cap Vars(t_j) \neq \emptyset$?

Literals without sharing can be executed in parallel.

Remark:

Both analyses may profit from Groundness !

5.2 **Types for Prolog**

Example

Discussion

- In Prolog, a type is a set of ground terms with a simple description.
- There is no common agreement what simple means.
- One possibility are (non-deterministic) finite tree automata or normal Horn clauses:

Comparison

Normal clauses	Tree automaton
unary predicate	state
normal clause	transition
constructor in the head	input symbol
body	pre-condition

General Form

$$p(a(X_1, \dots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_1(X_1), \dots, p_k(X_k)$$

$$p(X) \leftarrow$$

$$p(b) \leftarrow$$

Properties

- Types then are in fact regular tree languages.
- Types are closed under intersection:

 $\langle p, q \rangle (a(X_1, \dots, X_k)) \leftarrow \langle p_1, q_1 \rangle (X_1), \dots, \langle p_k, q_k \rangle (X_k)$ if $p(a(X_1, \dots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_1(X_1), \dots, p_k(X_k)$ and $q(a(X_1, \dots, X_k)) \leftarrow q_1(X_1), \dots, q_k(X_k)$

- Types are also closed under union.
- Queries p(X) and p(t) can be decided in polynomial time but:
- ... only in presence of tabulation !
- Or the program is topdown deterministic ...

Example: Topdown vs. Bottom-up

 $p(a(X_1, X_2)) \leftarrow p_1(X_1), p_2(X_2)$ $p(a(X_1, X_2)) \leftarrow p_2(X_1), p_1(X_2)$ $p_1(b) \leftarrow$ $p_2(c) \leftarrow$

... is bottom-up, but not topdown deterministic.

There is no topdown deterministic program for this type !

Topdown deterministic types are closed under intersection, but not under union !!!

For a set T of terms, we define the set $\Pi(T)$ of paths in terms from T:

$$\Pi(T) = \bigcup \{\Pi(t) \mid t \in T\}$$

$$\Pi(b) = \{b\}$$

$$\Pi(a(t_1, \dots, t_k)) = \{a_j w \mid w \in \Pi(t_j)\} \quad (k > 0)$$

$$// \text{ for new unary constructors } a_j$$

Example

$$T = \{a(b,c), a(c,b)\} \\ \Pi(T) = \{a_1b, a_2c, a_1c, a_2b\}$$

Vice versa from a set P of paths, a set $\Pi^{-}(P)$ of terms can be recovered:

 $\Pi^{-}(P) = \{t \mid \Pi(t) \subseteq P\}$

Example (Cont.)

$$P = \{a_1b, a_2c, a_1c, a_2b\}$$
$$\Pi^-(P) = \{a(b, b), a(b, c), a(c, b), a(c, c)\}$$

The set has become larger !!

Theorem

Assume that T is a regular set of terms. Then:

- $\Pi(T)$ is regular.
- $T \subseteq \Pi^{-}(\Pi(T)).$
- $T = \Pi^{-}(\Pi(T))$ iff T is topdown deterministic.
- $\Pi^{-}(\Pi(T))$ is the smallest superset of T which is topdown deterministic.

Consequence

If we are interested in topdown deterministic types, it suffices to determine the set of paths in terms !!!

Example (Cont.)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{add}(X,Y,Z) &\leftarrow X = 0, \mathsf{nat}(Y), Y = Z \\ \mathsf{add}(X,Y,Z) &\leftarrow \mathsf{nat}(X), X = s(X'), Z = s(Z'), \mathsf{add}(X',Y,Z') \\ \mathsf{mult}(X,Y,Z) &\leftarrow X = 0, \mathsf{nat}(Y), Z = 0 \\ \mathsf{mult}(X,Y,Z) &\leftarrow \mathsf{nat}(X), X = s(X'), \mathsf{mult}(X',Y,Z'), \mathsf{add}(Z',Y,Z) \end{aligned}$$

Question

Which run-time checks are necessary?

Idea

- Approximate the semantics of predicates by means of topdown-deterministic regular tree languages !
- Alternatively: Approximate the set of paths in the semantics of predicates by regular word languages !

Idea

• All predicates p/k, k > 0, are split into predicates $p_1/1, \ldots, p_k/1$.

Semantics

Let \mathcal{C} denote a set of clauses.

The set $[\![p]\!]_{\mathcal{C}}$ is the set of tuples of ground terms (s_1, \ldots, s_k) , for which $p(s_1, \ldots, s_k)$ is provable.

 $[\![p]\!]_{\mathcal{C}}$ (*p* predicate) thus is the smallest collection of sets of tuples for which:

 $\sigma(\underline{t}) \in \llbracket p \rrbracket_{\mathcal{C}}$ when ever $\forall i. \sigma(\underline{t}_i) \in \llbracket p_i \rrbracket_{\mathcal{C}}$

for clauses $p(\underline{t}) \leftarrow p_1(\underline{t}_1), \dots, p_n(\underline{t}_n) \in C$ and ground substitutions σ .

Approximation of Paths

Every clause

$$p(t_1,\ldots,t_k) \leftarrow \alpha$$

is approximated by the clauses:

$$p_{j}(w) \qquad \leftarrow \ \bigwedge \Pi(\alpha) \quad \text{where}$$

$$\Pi(g_{1}, \dots, g_{m}) = \Pi(g_{1}) \cup \dots \cup \Pi(g_{m})$$

$$\Pi(q(s_{1}, \dots, s_{n})) = \{q_{i}(w) \mid w \in \Pi(s_{i})\}$$

$$f_{j} = 1, \dots, k, w \in \Pi(t_{j})).$$
Example

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathsf{add}(0,Y,Y) & \leftarrow & \mathsf{nat}(Y) \\ \mathsf{add}(s(X),Y,s(Z)) & \leftarrow & \mathsf{add}(X,Y,Z) \end{array}$$

yields

 $\mathsf{add}_1(0) \leftarrow \mathsf{nat}_1(Y)$ $\mathsf{add}_2(Y) \quad \leftarrow \quad \mathsf{nat}_1(Y)$ $\mathsf{add}_3(Y) \leftarrow \mathsf{nat}_1(Y)$ $\operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_1(s_1 X) \leftarrow \operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_1(X), \operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_2(Y),$ $\operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_3(Z)$ $\operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_2(Y) \quad \leftarrow \operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_1(X), \operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_2(Y),$ $\operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_3(Z)$ $\operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_3(s_1 Z) \leftarrow \operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_1(X), \operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_2(Y),$ $\operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_3(Z)$

Discussion

- Every literal has at most one occurrence of a variable.
- The literals $q_j(w_jY)$ where the variable Y does not occur in the head, represent tests:

If there is a w with $w_j w \in [\![q_j]\!]_{\mathcal{C}^{\sharp}}$ for all such j, then we can cancel these literals.

If there is no such w, then we can cancel the clause ...

... in the Example:

The literals:

```
\operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_1(X), \operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_2(Y), \operatorname{\mathsf{add}}_3(Z)
```

are all satisfiable.

We conclude:

$add_1(0)$	\leftarrow	
$add_2(Y)$	\leftarrow	$nat_1(Y)$
$add_3(Y)$	\leftarrow	$nat_1(Y)$
$add_1(s_1 X)$	\leftarrow	$add_1(X)$
$add_2(Y)$	\leftarrow	$add_2(Y)$
$add_{a}(s_{1} Z)$,	dd(7)

We conclude:

$add_1(0)$	\leftarrow	
$add_2(Y)$	\leftarrow	$nat_1(Y)$
$add_3(Y)$	\leftarrow	$nat_1(Y)$
$add_1(s_1 X)$	\leftarrow	$add_1(X)$

$$\mathsf{add}_3(s_1 Z) \quad \leftarrow \quad \mathsf{add}_3(Z)$$

We verify:

Theorem

Assume that C is a set of clauses.

Let C^{\sharp} denote the corresponding set of clauses for the paths. Then for all predicates p/k:

 $\Pi(\llbracket p \rrbracket_{\mathcal{C}}) \subseteq \llbracket p_1 \rrbracket_{\mathcal{C}^{\sharp}} \cup \ldots \cup \llbracket p_k \rrbracket_{\mathcal{C}^{\sharp}}$

Proof

Induction on the approximations of the respective fixpoints.

A set of clauses with unary predicates and unary constructors is called Alternating Pushdown System (APS).

Theorem

• Every APS is equivalent to a simple APS of the form:

$$p(a X) \leftarrow p_1(X), \dots, p_r(X)$$

$$p(X) \leftarrow$$

$$p(b) \leftarrow$$

$$p() \leftarrow$$

• Every APS is equivalent to a normal APS of the form:

$$p(a X) \leftarrow p_1(X)$$

$$p(X) \leftarrow$$

$$p(b) \leftarrow$$

$$p() \leftarrow$$

Step 1: Removal of complicated heads:

For $w = a^{(1)} \dots a^{(m)}$ (m > 1) we replace

p(w X)	\leftarrow	rhs	with:
$p(a^{(1)}X)$	\leftarrow	$p_2(X)$	
$p_2(a^{(2)} X)$	\leftarrow	$p_3(X)$	
	•••		
$p_{m-1}(a^{(m-1)}X)$	\leftarrow	$p_m(X)$	
$p_m(a^{(m)}X)$	\leftarrow	rhs	

 $// p_j$ all new

Step 1 (Cont.): Removal of complicated heads:

For $w = a^{(1)} \dots a^{(m)}b$ (m > 0) we replace

p(w)	\leftarrow	rhs	with
$\boldsymbol{p}(a^{(1)} X)$	\leftarrow	$p_2(X)$	
$p_2(a^{(2)}X)$	\leftarrow	$p_3(X)$	
	• • •		
$p_{m-1}(a^{(m-1)}X)$	\leftarrow	$p_m(X)$	
$p_m(a^{(m)}X)$	\leftarrow	$p_{m+1}(X)$	

//	p_j all new

 $p_{m+1}(b) \qquad \leftarrow rhs$

Step 2: Splitting

We separate independent parts of pre-conditions into auxiliary predicates:

$$head \leftarrow rest, \ p_1(w_1 X), \dots, p_m(w_m X)$$
$$(X \text{ does not occur in } head, \ rest)$$
is replaced with

$$head \leftarrow rest, q()$$
$$q() \leftarrow p_1(w_1 X), \dots, p_m(w_m X)$$

for a new predicate q/0.

Step 3: Simplification

We add simpler derived clauses:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} head & \leftarrow p(a \, w), rest \\ p(a \, X) & \leftarrow p_1(X), \dots, p_r(X) \\ & & \text{implies} \\ head & \leftarrow p_1(w), \dots, p_r(w), rest \\ p(X) & \leftarrow p_1(X), \dots, p_m(X) \\ p_i(a \, X) & \leftarrow p_{i1}(X), \dots, p_{ir_i}(X) \\ & & \text{implies} \\ p(a \, X) & \leftarrow p_{11}(X), \dots, p_{mr_m}(X) \\ p(X) & \leftarrow p_1(X), \dots, p_m(X) \\ p_i(b) & \leftarrow & \text{implies} \\ p(b) & \leftarrow \\ g_{30} \end{array}$$

Step 3 (Cont.): Simplification

head $\leftarrow p(w), rest, p(X) \leftarrow implies$ $head \leftarrow rest$ head $\leftarrow p(b), rest, \qquad p(b) \leftarrow \qquad implies$ $head \leftarrow rest$ head $\leftarrow p(), rest, p() \leftarrow implies$ $head \leftarrow rest$ $p() \leftarrow p_1(X), \ldots, p_m(X), p_i(b) \leftarrow$ implies $p() \leftarrow$ $p() \leftarrow p_1(X), \ldots, p_m(X), \qquad p_i(a X) \leftarrow p_{i1}(X), \ldots, p_{ir_i}(X)$ implies $p() \leftarrow p_{11}(X), \ldots, p_{mr_m}(X)$

Example

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \operatorname{add}_1(X) & \leftarrow & \operatorname{add}_0(X) \\ \operatorname{add}_0(0) & \leftarrow & \\ \operatorname{add}_1(X) & \leftarrow & \operatorname{add}_1(X) \\ \operatorname{add}_1(s_1X) & \leftarrow & \operatorname{add}_1(X) \end{array}$$

... results in the new clause:

 $\mathsf{add}_1(0) \leftarrow$

Theorem

Assume that C is a finite set of clauses for which steps 1 and 2 have been executed and which then has been saturated according to step 3.

Assume that $C_0 \subseteq C$ is the subset of simple clauses of C. Then for all occurring predicates p,

$$\llbracket p \rrbracket_{\mathcal{C}_0} = \llbracket p \rrbracket_{\mathcal{C}}$$

Proof

Induction on the depth of terms in $[\![p]\!]_{\mathcal{C}}$.

... in the Example:

For $\operatorname{add}_1(X)$ we obtain the following clauses:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathsf{add}_1(0) & \leftarrow \\ \mathsf{add}_1(s_1 X) & \leftarrow & \mathsf{add}_1(X) \end{array}$$

These clauses are already normal.

Transforming into Normal Clauses

Introduce new predicates for conjunctions of predicates.

Assume that $A = \{p_1, \ldots, p_m\}$. Then:

 $[A](b) \leftarrow \qquad \text{whenever} \quad p_i(b) \leftarrow \text{ for all } i.$ $[A](a X) \leftarrow [B](X) \qquad \text{whenever} \quad B = \{p_{ij} \mid i = 1, \dots, m\} \quad \text{for}$ $p_i(a X) \leftarrow p_{i1}(X), \dots, p_{ir_i}(X)$

Last Step: Transformation into a Type

• First, the automaton is determinized ...
Last Step: Transformation into a Type

- First, the automaton is determinized ...
- Then transitions for the components of constructors *a*:

 $p(a_j X) \leftarrow p^{(j)}(X)$

are joined into a transition for a:

$$p(a(X_1,\ldots,X_k)) \leftarrow p^{(1)}(X_1),\ldots,p^{(k)}(X_k)$$

• Finally, the predicates p_j for the components of the predicate p/k are joined to a transition:

$$p(X_1,\ldots,X_k) \leftarrow p_1(X_1),\ldots,p_k(X_k)$$

In the Example we find:

In the Example we find:

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{add}(X, Y, Z) &\leftarrow \operatorname{add}_1(X), \operatorname{nat}(Y), q'(Z) & \text{where} \\ q'(0) &\leftarrow \\ q'(s X) &\leftarrow q'(X) \\ q' &= \{\operatorname{nat}, \operatorname{add}_2\} \end{aligned}$$

The types add_1, q' , nat are all equivalent.

Discussion

• For type-checking, it suffices to check for every predicate p/k that

$$\llbracket p_i \rrbracket_{\mathcal{C}^{\sharp}} \subseteq \Pi(T_i)$$

- Since the T_i are topdown deterministic, we have a deterministic automaton for $\Pi(T_i)$.
- Therefore, we can easily construct a DFA for the complement $\overline{\Pi(T_i)}$!!
- Then we check whether

$$\llbracket p_i \rrbracket_{\mathcal{C}^{\sharp}} \cap \overline{\Pi(T_i)} = \emptyset$$

 \rightarrow this saves us determinization.

Caveat

- The emptiness problem for APS is DEXPTIME-complete !
- In many cases, though, our method terminates quickly.

Caveat

- The emptiness problem for APS is DEXPTIME-complete !
- In many cases, though, our method terminates quickly.
- Inferred types can also be used to understand legacy code.
- Then, however, they are only useful if they are not too complicated !
- Our type inference provides very precise information.
- In practical applications, further widenings are applied to accelerate the analysis, e.g., by reducing the number of occurring sets.

5.3 Goal-directed Type Inference

Prolog programs explore predicates only insofar as they contribute to answer a query.

Example: append

 $\begin{aligned} \mathsf{app}([], Y, Y) & \leftarrow \\ \mathsf{app}([H|T], Y, [H|Z]) & \leftarrow \quad \mathsf{app}(T, Y, Z) \\ & \leftarrow \quad \mathsf{app}([1, 2], [3], Z) \end{aligned}$

... results in

The *APS*-Approximation

- $$\begin{split} & \operatorname{app}_1([|]_1(H)) & \leftarrow \quad \operatorname{app}_1(T), \operatorname{app}_2(Y), \operatorname{app}_3(Z). \\ & \operatorname{app}_1([|]_2(T)) & \leftarrow \quad \operatorname{app}_1(T), \operatorname{app}_2(Y), \operatorname{app}_3(Z). \\ & \operatorname{app}_2(Y) & \leftarrow \quad \operatorname{app}_1(T), \operatorname{app}_2(Y), \operatorname{app}_3(Z). \\ & \operatorname{app}_3([|]_1(H)) & \leftarrow \quad \operatorname{app}_1(T), \operatorname{app}_2(Y), \operatorname{app}_3(Z). \\ & \operatorname{app}_3([|]_2(Z)) & \leftarrow \quad \operatorname{app}_1(T), \operatorname{app}_2(Y), \operatorname{app}_3(Z). \end{split}$$
- $\mathsf{app}_1([]) \longleftarrow$
- $\operatorname{app}_2(X) \leftarrow$
- $\mathsf{app}_3(X)) \qquad \leftarrow$
 - $\leftarrow \operatorname{app}_1([|]_1(1)), \operatorname{app}_1([|]_2([|]_1(2))), \operatorname{app}_1([|]_2([|]_2([]))), \operatorname{app}_2([|]_1(3)), \operatorname{app}_2([|]_2([])), \operatorname{app}_3(X)$

Ignoring the query, we find via normalization:

 $\operatorname{app}_2(X) \leftarrow$ $\operatorname{app}_3(X) \leftarrow$ $\mathsf{app}_1([]) \leftarrow$ $\operatorname{app}_1([l]_2 X) \leftarrow q_0(X)$ $\operatorname{app}_1([l]_2 X) \leftarrow q_1(X)$ $\operatorname{app}_1([l]_2 X) \leftarrow q_2(X)$ $\operatorname{app}_1([l]_1X) \leftarrow$ $q_0([]) \leftarrow$ $q_1([l]_2 X) \quad \leftarrow \quad q_0(X)$ $q_1([]_2X) \leftarrow q_1(X)$ $q_1([l]_2 X) \quad \leftarrow \quad q_2(X)$ $q_2([l]_1X) \leftarrow$

Discussion

- The second and third argument can be arbitrary.
- The first argument is a list where nothing is known about the elements.
- Ignoring the query, this result is the best we can hope for.
- Better results can be obtained if additionally call patterns are tracked !

 \implies Magic Set Transformation

Magic Sets

• For every predicate p/k, we introduce a new predicate called p/k with the clauses

 $\operatorname{called}_p(\underline{t}) \leftarrow \text{ for the query } \leftarrow \mathsf{p}(\underline{t})$

•

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{called}_{p_i}(\underline{t_i}) &\leftarrow \mathsf{called}_p(\underline{t}), \mathsf{p}_1(\underline{t_1}), \dots, \mathsf{p}_{i-1}(\underline{t_{i-1}}) \\ \\ p(\underline{t}) &\leftarrow \mathsf{called}_p(\underline{t}), \mathsf{p}_1(\underline{t_1}), \dots, \mathsf{p}_m(\underline{t_m}) \end{aligned}$$

for every clause:

$$\mathsf{p}(\underline{t}) \leftarrow \mathsf{p}_1(\underline{t}_1), \dots, \mathsf{p}_m(\underline{t}_m)$$

Example: append (Cont.)

 $\begin{aligned} \mathsf{app}([], Y, Y) &\leftarrow \mathsf{called}([], Y, Y) \\ \mathsf{app}([H|T], Y, [H|Z]) &\leftarrow \mathsf{called}([H|T], Y, [H|Z]), \\ &\qquad \mathsf{app}(T, Y, Z) \end{aligned}$

 $\mathsf{called}(T, Y, Z) \quad \leftarrow \quad \mathsf{called}([H|T], Y, [H|Z])$

 $\mathsf{called}([1,2],[3],Z) \quad \leftarrow \quad$

The APS-Approximation

- $\operatorname{app}_1([]) \leftarrow \operatorname{called}_1([]), \operatorname{called}_2(X), \operatorname{called}_3(X)$
- $\operatorname{app}_2(X) \leftarrow \operatorname{called}_1([]), \operatorname{called}_2(X), \operatorname{called}_3(X)$
- $\operatorname{app}_3(X) \leftarrow \operatorname{called}_1([]), \operatorname{called}_2(X), \operatorname{called}_3(X)$
- $\begin{aligned} \mathsf{app}_1([|]_1H) &\leftarrow \mathsf{called}_1([|]_1H), \mathsf{called}_1([|]_2T), \mathsf{called}_2(Y), \mathsf{called}_3([|]_1H), \mathsf{called}_3([|]_2Z), \\ \mathsf{app}_1(T), \mathsf{app}_2(Y), \mathsf{app}_3(Z) \end{aligned}$
- $\begin{aligned} \mathsf{app}_1([|]_2 T) &\leftarrow \mathsf{called}_1([|]_1 H), \mathsf{called}_1([|]_2 T), \mathsf{called}_2(Y), \mathsf{called}_3([|]_1 H), \mathsf{called}_3([|]_2 Z), \\ \mathsf{app}_1(T), \mathsf{app}_2(Y), \mathsf{app}_3(Z) \end{aligned}$
- $$\begin{split} \mathsf{app}_2(Y) & \leftarrow \mathsf{called}_1([|]_1H), \mathsf{called}_1([|]_2T), \mathsf{called}_2(Y), \mathsf{called}_3([|]_1H), \mathsf{called}_3([|]_2Z), \\ \mathsf{app}_1(T), \mathsf{app}_2(Y), \mathsf{app}_3(Z) \end{split}$$
- $$\begin{split} \mathsf{app}_3([l]_1H) & \leftarrow \quad \mathsf{called}_1([l]_1H), \mathsf{called}_1([l]_2T), \mathsf{called}_2(Y), \mathsf{called}_3([l]_1H), \mathsf{called}_3([l]_2Z), \\ \mathsf{app}_1(T), \mathsf{app}_2(Y), \mathsf{app}_3(Z) \end{split}$$
- $$\begin{split} \mathsf{app}_3([l]_2 Z) & \leftarrow \quad \mathsf{called}_1([l]_1 H), \mathsf{called}_1([l]_2 T), \mathsf{called}_2(Y), \mathsf{called}_3([l]_1 H), \mathsf{called}_3([l]_2 Z), \\ \mathsf{app}_1(T), \mathsf{app}_2(Y), \mathsf{app}_3(Z) \end{split}$$

- $\mathsf{called}_1(T)$

- $called_1([l]_11)$ \leftarrow

. . .

- $\mathsf{called}_1([l]_2([l]_12) \leftarrow$
- $called_1([|]_2[|]_2[])$ \leftarrow
- $called_2([|]_13)$ \leftarrow
- $\mathsf{called}_2([|]_2[])$ \leftarrow
- $called_3(X)$ \leftarrow

- $\leftarrow \quad \mathsf{called}_1([l]_1H), \mathsf{called}_1([l]_2T), \mathsf{called}_2(Y), \mathsf{called}_3([l]_1H), \mathsf{called}_3([l]_2Z)$
- $\mathsf{called}_2(Y) \qquad \leftarrow \quad \mathsf{called}_1([|]_1H), \mathsf{called}_1([|]_2T), \mathsf{called}_2(Y), \mathsf{called}_3([|]_1H), \mathsf{called}_3([|]_2Z)$
- $\mathsf{called}_3(Z) \qquad \leftarrow \quad \mathsf{called}_1([|]_1H), \mathsf{called}_1([|]_2T), \mathsf{called}_2(Y), \mathsf{called}_3([|]_1H), \mathsf{called}_3([|]_2Z)$

The Normalized *APS*-Approximation (Cont.)

$app_3([l]_1X)$	\leftarrow	$q_3(X)$
$app_3([l]_2 X)$	\leftarrow	$q_0(X)$
$app_3([]_2X)$	\leftarrow	$q_4(X)$
$app_3([l]_2 X)$	\leftarrow	$q_6(X)$
$app_3([l]_2 X)$	\leftarrow	$q_7(X)$
$app_3([l]_2 X)$	\leftarrow	$q_8(X)$
$q_0([])$	\leftarrow	
$q_1(1)$	\leftarrow	
$q_2(2)$	\leftarrow	
$q_{3}(3)$	\leftarrow	

 $q_4([|]_2 X) \leftarrow q_0(X)$ $q_5([|]_1 X) \leftarrow q_2(X)$ $q_6([|]_1 X) \leftarrow q_3(X)$ $q_7([|]_1 X) \leftarrow q_1(X)$ $q_7([|]_1 X) \leftarrow q_2(X)$ $q_8([|]_2 X) \leftarrow q_4(X)$ $q_8([|]_2 X) \leftarrow q_7(X)$ $q_8([|]_2 X) \leftarrow q_8(X)$ $q_8([|]_2 X) \leftarrow q_6(X)$

Discussion

- The result now is amazingly precise !!
- The correct values for the second parameter is inferred.
- For the result parameter, a list containing 1,2 and 3 is inferred.
- It only fails to infer that this list is finite and of length 3.

Perspective: Normal Horn Clauses

- Prolog may no longer be the sexiest programming language ...
- Horn clauses, though, are very well suited for the specification of analysis problems.
- It is a separate problem then to solve the stated analysis problem.
- If the least solution cannot be computed exactly, approximate solutions may at least yield approximative answers ...

Example: Cryptographic Protocols

Rules for the Exchange of Messages



Properties to be verified

secrecy, authenticity, ...

The Dolev-Yao Model

• Messages are terms:

	Representation
$\{m\}_k$	encrypt(m,k)
$\langle m_1, m_2 angle$	$\texttt{pair}(m_1,m_2)$

- $\begin{array}{l} \longrightarrow \\ \end{array} \quad \text{Distinct terms represent distinct messages} \\ \longrightarrow \\ \begin{array}{l} \text{perfect cryptography. Therefore, we have:} \\ \\ \{m\}_k = \{m'\}_{k'} \text{ iff } m = m' \text{ and } k = k' \end{array} \end{array}$
- The attacker has full control over the network: All messages are exchanged with the attacker.

Example: The Needham-Schroeder Protocol

1.
$$A \longrightarrow B : \{a, n_a\}_{k_b}$$

2. $B \longrightarrow A : \{n_a, n_b\}_{k_a}$
3. $A \longrightarrow B : \{n_b\}_{k_b}$

Abstraction

- Unbounded number of sessions !!
- Nonces are not necessarily fresh ??

Idea

Characterize the knowledge of the attacker by means of Horn clauses ...

1.
$$A \longrightarrow B : \{a, n_a\}_{k_b}$$
 known $(\{a, n_a\}_{k_b}) \leftarrow$
2. $B \longrightarrow A : \{n_a, n_b\}_{k_a}$ known $(\{X, n_b\}_{k_a}) \leftarrow$ known $(\{a, X\}_{k_b})$
3. $A \longrightarrow B : \{n_b\}_{k_b}$ known $(\{X\}_{k_b}) \leftarrow$ known $(\{n_a, X\}_{k_a})$

Secrecy of N_b : $\leftarrow \operatorname{known}(n_b)$.

Discussion

- We have abstracted all nonces with finitely many.
- Less restrictive (though still correct) abstractions are still possible ...

1.
$$A \longrightarrow B : \{a, n_a\}_{k_b} \dots$$

2. $B \longrightarrow A : \{n_a, n_b\}_{k_a} \operatorname{known}(\{X, n_b(X)\}_{k_a}) \leftarrow \operatorname{known}(\{a, X\}_{k_b})$
3. $A \longrightarrow B : \{n_b\}_{k_b} \dots$

The fresh nonce is a function of the received nonce.

Blanchet 2001

Further capabilities of the attacker

Discussion

- Type inference for Prolog computed a regular abstraction of the set of paths of the denotational semantics.
- Sometimes, this is too imprecise!
- Instead, we now approximate the denotational semantics directly ...

- This, however, can be quite expensive
 - \implies not well suited for compilers
 - \implies in general, much more precise

Simplification

We only consider clauses whose heads are of the form:

 $p(f(X_1, \ldots, X_k))$ or p(b) or $p(X_1, \ldots, X_k)$ Such clauses are called H1.

Theorem

• Every finite set of H1-clauses is equivalent to a finite set of simple H1-clauses of the form:

$$p(f(X_1, \dots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_1(X_{i_1}), \dots, p_r(X_{i_1})$$

$$p(X_1, \dots, X_k) \leftarrow p_1(X_{i_1}), \dots, p_r(X_{i_1})$$

$$p(b) \leftarrow$$

• ... or even to a finite set of normal H1-clauses.

Idea

We successively introduce simpler clauses until the complicated ones become superfluous ...

Rule 1: Splitting

We separate independent parts from the pre-conditions:

Rule 2 Simplification

We introduce simpler derived clauses:

Rule 3 (Cont.): Simplification

$$p(X) \leftarrow p_1(X), \dots, p_m(X)$$

$$p_i(f(X_1, \dots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_{i1}(X_{i1}), \dots, p_{ir_i}(X_{ir_i})$$
implies
$$p(f(X_1, \dots, X_k))) \leftarrow p_{11}(X_{11}), \dots, p_{mr_m}(X_{mr_m})$$

head	$\leftarrow p(b), res$	st
p(b)	\leftarrow im	plies
head	$\leftarrow rest$	

Rule 4: Guard Simplification

$$p() \leftarrow p_1(X), \dots, p_m(X)$$

$$p_i(f(X_1, \dots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_{i1}(X_{i1}), \dots, p_{ir_i}(X_{ir_i})$$
implies
$$p() \leftarrow p_{11}(X_{11}), \dots, p_{mr_m}(X_{mr_m})$$

$$p() \qquad \leftarrow \quad p_1(X), \dots, p_m(X)$$

$$p_i(b) \qquad \leftarrow \qquad \text{implies}$$

$$p() \qquad \leftarrow$$

Theorem

Assume that C is a finite set of clauses which is closed under splitting and simplification and guard simplification.

Let $C_0 \subseteq C$ denote the subset of simple clauses of C. Then for all occurring predicates p,

$$\llbracket p \rrbracket_{\mathcal{C}_0} = \llbracket p \rrbracket_{\mathcal{C}}$$

Proof

Induction on the depth of terms in tuples of $[\![p]\!]_{\mathcal{C}}$.

Transformation into normal clauses

Introduce fresh predicates for conjunctions of unary predicates. Assume $A = \{p_1, \dots, p_m\}$. Then:

 $\begin{array}{lll} [A](b) & \leftarrow & \text{whenever} & p_i(b) \leftarrow & \text{for all } i. \\ \\ [A](f(X_1, \dots, X_k)) & \leftarrow & [B_1](X_1), \dots, [B_k](X_k) \\ & & \text{whenever} & B_i = \{p_{jl} \mid X_{i_{jl}} = X_i\} & \text{for} \\ & & p_j(f(X_1, \dots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_{j1}(X_{i_{j1}}), \dots, p_{jr_j}(X_{i_{jr_j}}) \end{array}$

Caveat

- The emptiness problem for Horn clauses in H1 is **DEXPTIME-complete** !
- In many cases, our method still terminates quickly

Not all Horn clauses are in H1 !

 \implies an approximation technique is required ...

Approximation of Horn Clauses

Step 1

Simplification of pre-conditions by splitting, simplification and guard simplification (as before)

Step 2

Introduction of copies of variables X. Every copy receives all literals of X as pre-condition.

$$p(f(X, X)) \leftarrow q(X)$$
 yields:
 $p(f(X, X')) \leftarrow q(X), q(X')$

Step 3

Introduction of an auxiliary predicate for every non-variable subterm of the head.

 $p(f(g(X,Y),Z)) \leftarrow q_1(X), q_2(Y), q_3(Z) \quad \text{yields}:$ $p_1(g(X,Y)) \leftarrow q_1(X), q_2(Y), q_3(Z)$ $p(f(H,Z)) \leftarrow p_1(H), q_1(X), q_2(Y), q_3(Z)$