

Static Program Analysis

Seidl/Wilhelm/Hack: Compiler Design – Analysis and
Transformation, Springer Verlag, 2012

A Short History of Static Program Analysis

- Early high-level programming languages were implemented on very small and very slow machines.
- Compilers needed to generate executables that were extremely efficient in space and time.
- Compiler writers invented efficiency-increasing program transformations, wrongly called **optimizing transformations**.
- Transformations must not change the semantics of programs.
- Enabling conditions guaranteed semantics preservation.
- Enabling conditions were checked by static analysis of programs.

Theoretical Foundations of Static Program Analysis

- Theoretical foundations for the solution of **recursive equations**: Kleene (1930s), Tarski (1955)
- Gary Kildall (1972) clarified the lattice-theoretic foundation of **data-flow analysis**.
- Patrick Cousot (1974) established the relation to the programming-language semantics.

Static Program Analysis as a Verification Method

- Automatic method to derive **invariants** about program behavior, answers questions about program behavior:
 - will index always be within bounds at program point p ?
 - will memory access at p always hit the cache?
- answers of sound static analysis are **correct**, but **approximate**: don't know is a valid answer!
- analyses proved correct wrt. language semantics,

Proposed Lectures Content:

1. Introductory example: rules-of-sign analysis
2. theoretical foundations: lattices
3. an operational semantics of the language
4. another example: constant propagation
5. relating the semantics to the analysis—correctness proofs
6. some further static analyses in compilers: Elimination of superfluous computations
 - available expressions
 - live variables
 - array-bounds checks

1 Introduction

... in this course and in the Seidl/Wilhelm/Hack book:

a simple **imperative** programming language with:

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

Intermediate language into which (almost) everything can be compiled.
However, no procedures. So, only **intra-procedural analyses**!

2 Example: Rules-of-Sign Analysis

Starting Point: Questions about a program, mostly at a particular program point:

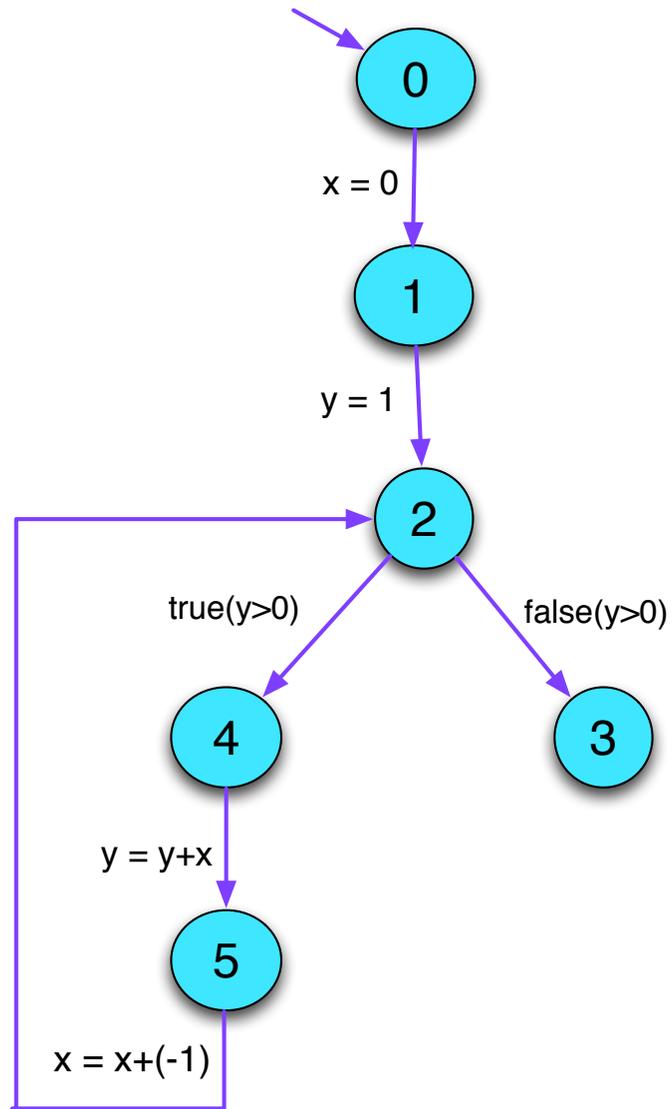
- May variable x have value 0 when program execution reaches this program point? \longrightarrow Attempt to exclude division by 0.
- May x have a negative value? \longrightarrow Attempt to exclude sqrt of a negative number.

Solution: Determine at each program point the sign of the values of all variables of numeric type.

Determines a sound, but maybe approximate answer.

Example program represented as *control-flow graph*

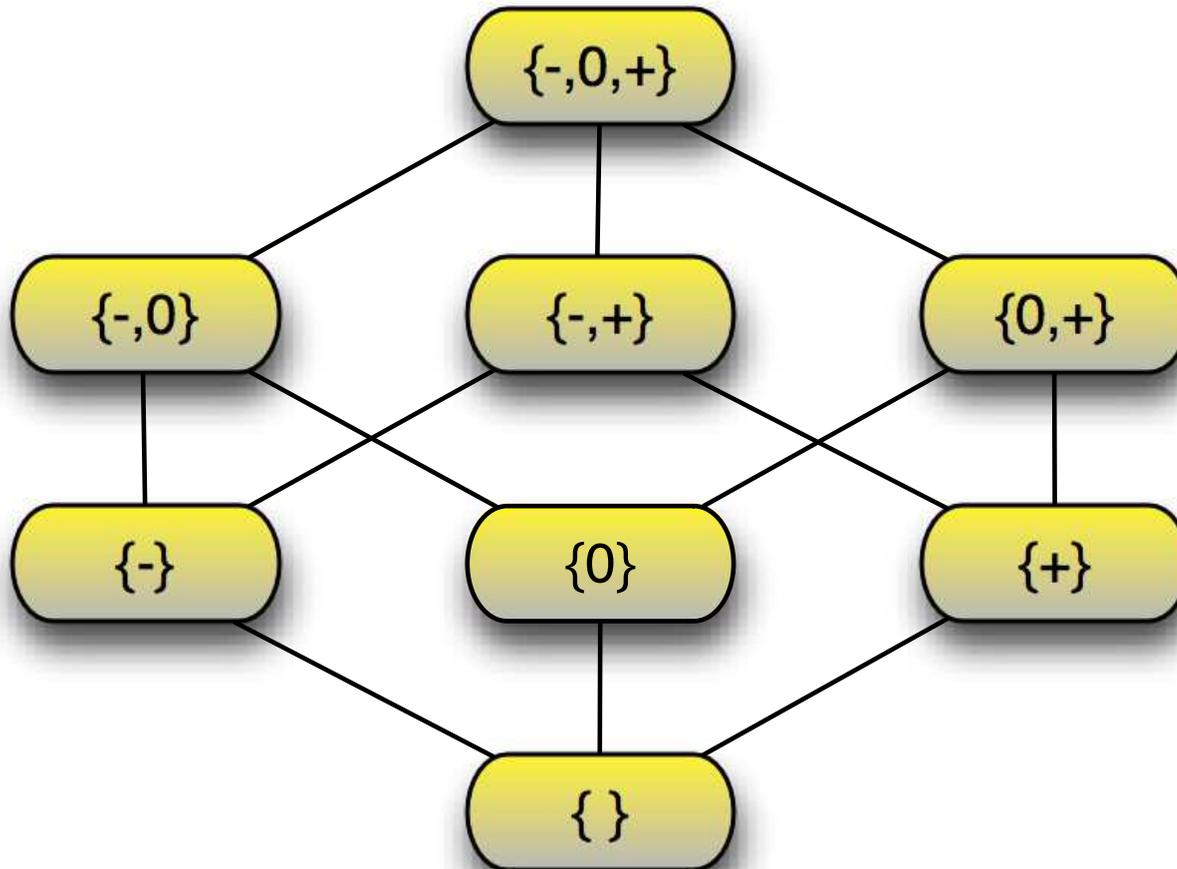
```
1: x = 0;  
2: y = 1;  
3: while (y > 0) do  
4:     y = y + x;  
5:     x = x + (-1);
```



All the ingredients:

- a set of **information elements**, each a set of possible signs,
- a **partial order**, “ \sqsubseteq ”, on these elements, specifying the ”relative strength” of two information elements,
- these together form the **abstract domain**, a **lattice**,
- functions describing how signs of variables change by the execution of a statement, **abstract edge effects**,
- these need an **abstract arithmetic**, an **arithmetic on signs**.

We construct the abstract domain for single variables starting with the lattice $Signs = 2^{\{-,0,+ \}}$ with the relation " \sqsubseteq " = " \subseteq ".



The analysis should "bind" program variables to elements in *Signs*.

So, the abstract domain is $\mathbb{D} = (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \text{Signs})_{\perp}$, a **Sign-environment**.

$\perp \in \mathbb{D}$ is the function mapping all arguments to $\{\}$.

The partial order on \mathbb{D} is $D_1 \sqsubseteq D_2$ iff

$$D_1 = \perp \quad \text{or}$$

$$D_1 x \supseteq D_2 x \quad (x \in \text{Vars})$$

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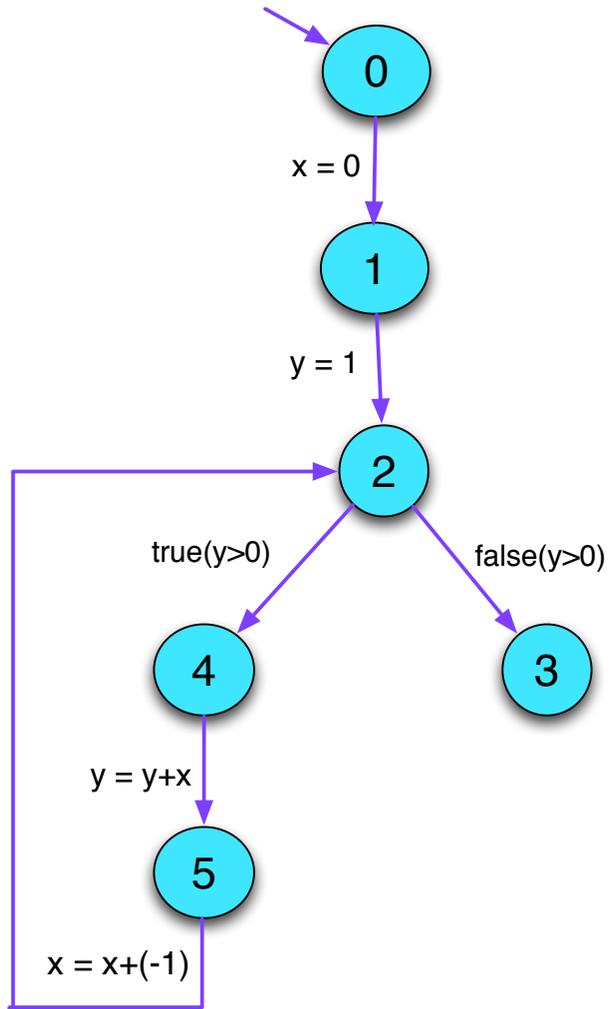
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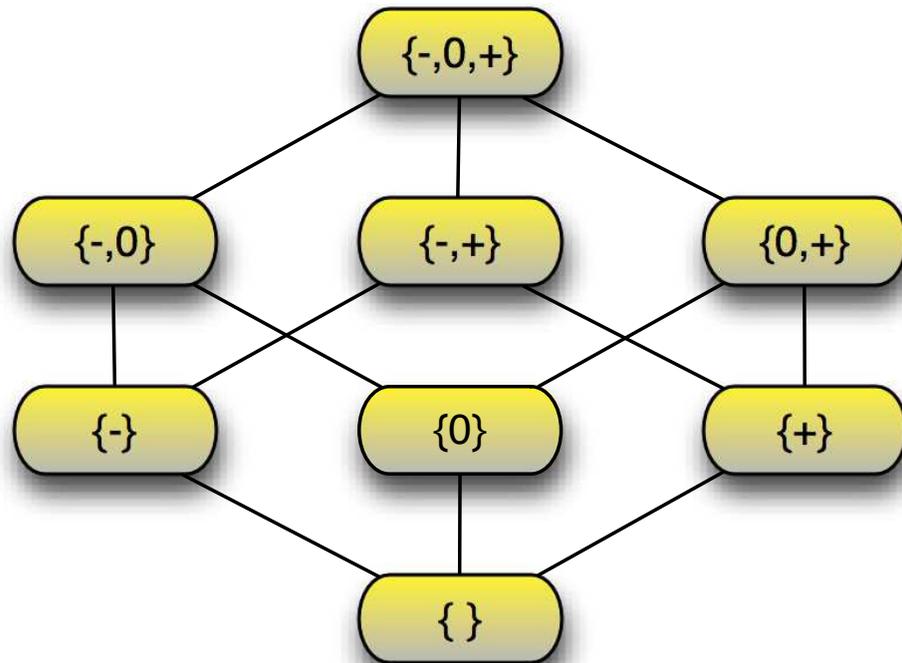
Intuition?

D_1 is at least as precise as D_2 since D_2 admits at least as many signs as D_1

How did we analyze the program?

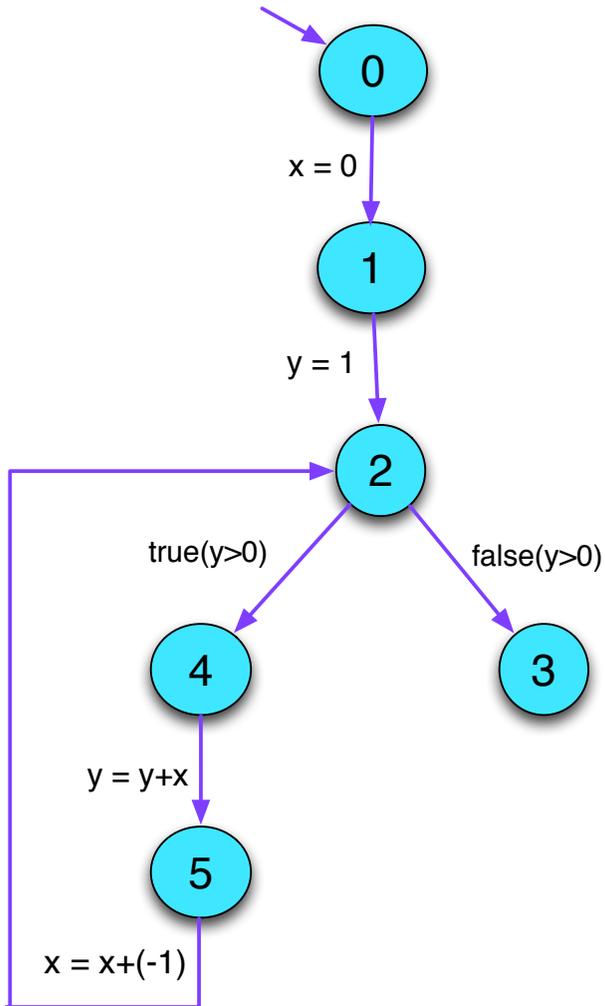


In particular, how did we walk the lattice for y at program point 5?



How is a solution found?

Iterating until a fixed-point is reached



0		1		2		3		4		5	
<i>x</i>	<i>y</i>										

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- We want to determine the signs of the values of expressions.
- For some sub-expressions, the analysis may yield $\{+, -, 0\}$, which means, it couldn't find out.
- We replace the concrete operators \square working on values by **abstract** operators $\square^\#$ working on signs:
- The abstract operators allow to define an **abstract** evaluation of expressions:

$$\llbracket e \rrbracket^\# : (Vars \rightarrow Signs) \rightarrow Signs$$

Determining the sign of expressions in a Sign-environment is defined by the function $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket : Exp \times SignEnv \rightarrow Val$

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket c \rrbracket^\# D &= \begin{cases} \{+\} & \text{if } c > 0 \\ \{-\} & \text{if } c < 0 \\ \{0\} & \text{if } c = 0 \end{cases} \\ \llbracket v \rrbracket^\# &= D(v) \\ \llbracket e_1 \square e_2 \rrbracket^\# D &= \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# D \square^\# \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^\# D \\ \llbracket \square e \rrbracket^\# D &= \square^\# \llbracket e \rrbracket^\# D \end{aligned}$$

A remark about the notation:

$\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket$ is given in a "distributed" form; its first argument appears between the brackets, the second follows the brackets.

Abstract operators working on signs (Addition)

$+ \#$	$\{0\}$	$\{+\}$	$\{-\}$	$\{-, 0\}$	$\{-, +\}$	$\{0, +\}$	$\{-, 0, +\}$
$\{0\}$	$\{0\}$	$\{+\}$					
$\{+\}$							
$\{-\}$							
$\{-, 0\}$							
$\{-, +\}$							
$\{0, +\}$							
$\{-, 0, +\}$	$\{-, 0, +\}$						

Abstract operators working on signs (Multiplication)

$\times \#$	$\{0\}$	$\{+\}$	$\{-\}$	\dots
$\{0\}$	$\{0\}$	$\{0\}$	$\{0\}$	
$\{+\}$	$\{0\}$	$\{+\}$	$\{-\}$	
$\{-\}$	$\{0\}$	$\{-\}$	$\{+\}$	
$\{-, 0\}$	$\{0\}$	$\{-, 0\}$	$\{0, +\}$	
$\{-, +\}$	$\{0\}$	$\{-, +\}$	$\{-, +\}$	
$\{0, +\}$	$\{0\}$	$\{0, +\}$	$\{-, 0\}$	
$\{-, 0, +\}$	$\{0\}$	$\{-, 0, +\}$	$\{-, 0, +\}$	

Abstract operators working on signs (unary minus)

$- \#$	$\{0\}$	$\{+\}$	$\{-\}$	$\{-, 0\}$	$\{-, +\}$	$\{0, +\}$	$\{-, 0, +\}$
	$\{0\}$	$\{-\}$	$\{+\}$	$\{+, 0\}$	$\{-, +\}$	$\{0, -\}$	$\{-, 0, +\}$

Working an example:

$$D = \{x \mapsto \{+\}, y \mapsto \{+\}\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket x + 7 \rrbracket^\# D &= \llbracket x \rrbracket^\# D +^\# \llbracket 7 \rrbracket^\# D \\ &= \{+\} +^\# \{+\} \\ &= \{+\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket x + (-y) \rrbracket^\# D &= \{+\} +^\# (-^\# \llbracket y \rrbracket^\# D) \\ &= \{+\} +^\# (-^\# \{+\}) \\ &= \{+\} +^\# \{-\} \\ &= \{+, -, 0\} \end{aligned}$$

$\llbracket lab \rrbracket^\#$ is the abstract edge effects associated with edge k .

It depends only on the label lab :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \llbracket ; \rrbracket^\# D &= D \\
 \llbracket \text{true}(e) \rrbracket^\# D &= D \\
 \llbracket \text{false}(e) \rrbracket^\# D &= D \\
 \llbracket x = e; \rrbracket^\# D &= D \oplus \{x \mapsto \llbracket e \rrbracket^\# D\} \\
 \llbracket x = M[e]; \rrbracket^\# D &= D \oplus \{x \mapsto \{+, -, 0\}\} \\
 \llbracket M[e_1] = e_2; \rrbracket^\# D &= D
 \end{aligned}$$

... whenever $D \neq \perp$

These edge effects can be composed to the **effect** of a path $\pi = k_1 \dots k_r$:

$$\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^\# = \llbracket k_r \rrbracket^\# \circ \dots \circ \llbracket k_1 \rrbracket^\#$$

Consider a program node v :

- For every path π from program entry $start$ to v the analysis should determine for each program variable x the set of all signs that the values of x may have at v as a result of executing π .
 - Initially at program start, no information about signs is available.
 - The analysis computes a **superset** of the set of signs as **safe information**.
- ⇒ For each node v , we need the set:

$$\mathcal{S}[v] = \bigcup \{ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket^\# \top \mid \pi : start \rightarrow^* v \}$$

where \top is the function binding all variables to $\{-, 0, +\}$.

This function describes that we don't know the sign of any variable at program entry.

Question:

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

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Collect all constraints on the values of $\mathcal{S}[u]$ into a **system of constraints**:

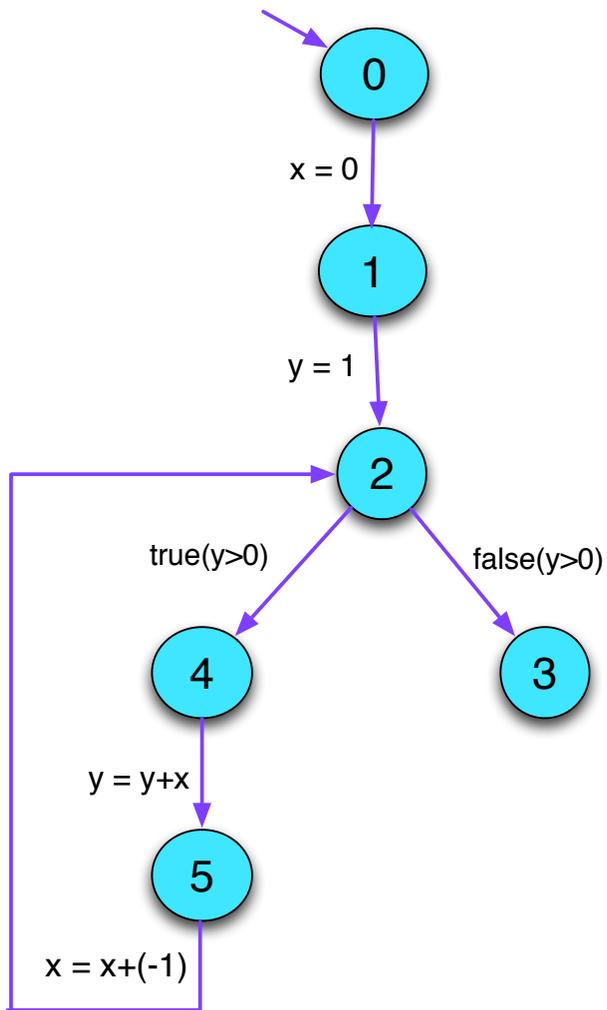
$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{S}[start] &\supseteq \top \\ \mathcal{S}[v] &\supseteq \llbracket k \rrbracket^\# (\mathcal{S}[u]) \quad k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge}\end{aligned}$$

Why \supseteq ?

Wanted:

- a **least** solution (why least?)
- an algorithm that computes this solution

Example:



$$\mathcal{S}[0] \supseteq \top$$

$$\mathcal{S}[1] \supseteq \mathcal{S}[0] \oplus \{x \mapsto \{0\}\}$$

$$\mathcal{S}[2] \supseteq \mathcal{S}[1] \oplus \{y \mapsto \{+\}\}$$

$$\mathcal{S}[2] \supseteq \mathcal{S}[5] \oplus \{x \mapsto \llbracket x + (-1) \rrbracket^\# \mathcal{S}[5]\}$$

$$\mathcal{S}[3] \supseteq \mathcal{S}[2]$$

$$\mathcal{S}[4] \supseteq \mathcal{S}[2]$$

$$\mathcal{S}[5] \supseteq \mathcal{S}[4] \oplus \{y \mapsto \llbracket y + x \rrbracket^\# \mathcal{S}[4]\}$$

3 An Operational Semantics

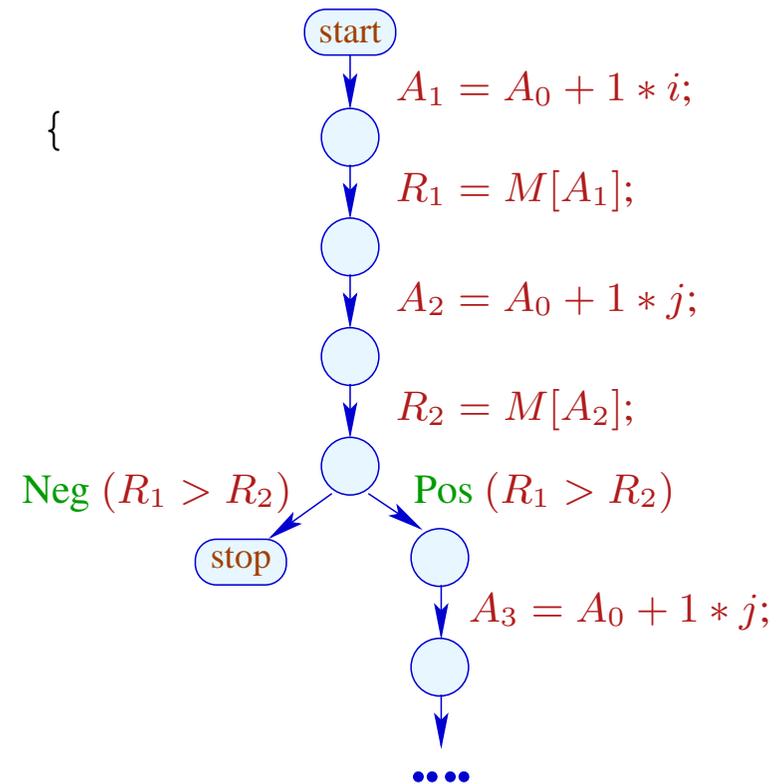
Programs are represented as **control-flow graphs**.

Example:

```

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

```



Thereby, represent:

vertex	program point
start	program start
stop	program exit
edge	labeled with a statement or a condition

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

Edge Labelings:

Test : Pos (e) or Neg (e) (better true(e) or false(e))

Assignment : $R = e$;

Load : $R = M[e]$;

Store : $M[e_1] = e_2$;

Nop : ;

Execution of a **path** is a computation.

A computation transforms a **state** $s = (\rho, \mu)$ where:

$\rho : Vars \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$	values of variables (contents of symbolic registers)
$\mu : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$	contents of memory

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

$$\llbracket k \rrbracket = \llbracket lab \rrbracket$$

of the state:

$$\llbracket ; \rrbracket (\rho, \mu) = (\rho, \mu)$$

$$\llbracket \text{true } (e) \rrbracket (\rho, \mu) = (\rho, \mu) \quad \text{if } \llbracket e \rrbracket \rho \neq 0$$

$$\llbracket \text{false } (e) \rrbracket (\rho, \mu) = (\rho, \mu) \quad \text{if } \llbracket e \rrbracket \rho = 0$$

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

$$// \llbracket x + y \rrbracket \{x \mapsto 7, y \mapsto -1\} = 6$$

$$// \llbracket !(x == 4) \rrbracket \{x \mapsto 5\} = 1$$

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

// where “ \oplus ” modifies a mapping at a given argument

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

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

Example:

$$\llbracket x = x + 1; \rrbracket (\{x \mapsto 5\}, \mu) = (\rho, \mu) \quad \text{where}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \{x \mapsto 5\} \oplus \{x \mapsto \llbracket x + 1 \rrbracket \{x \mapsto 5\}\} \\ &= \{x \mapsto 5\} \oplus \{x \mapsto 6\} \\ &= \{x \mapsto 6\} \end{aligned}$$

A path $\pi = k_1 k_2 \dots k_m$ defines a **computation** in the state s if

$$s \in \text{def} (\llbracket k_m \rrbracket \circ \dots \circ \llbracket k_1 \rrbracket)$$

The **result** of the computation is $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket s = (\llbracket k_m \rrbracket \circ \dots \circ \llbracket k_1 \rrbracket) s$

The approach:

A static analysis needs to collect **correct** and hopefully **precise** information about a program in a **terminating** computation.

Concepts:

- **partial orders** relate information for their contents/quality/precision,
- **least upper bounds** combine information in the best possible way,
- **monotonic functions** preserve the order, prevent loss of collected information, prevent oscillation.

4 Complete Lattices

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

$$a \sqsubseteq a \quad \textit{reflexivity}$$

$$a \sqsubseteq b \wedge b \sqsubseteq a \implies a = b \quad \textit{anti-symmetry}$$

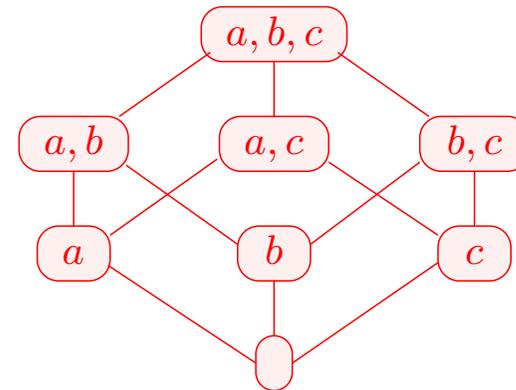
$$a \sqsubseteq b \wedge b \sqsubseteq c \implies a \sqsubseteq c \quad \textit{transitivity}$$

Intuition: \sqsubseteq represents **precision**.

By convention: $a \sqsubseteq b$ means a is **at least as precise as** b .

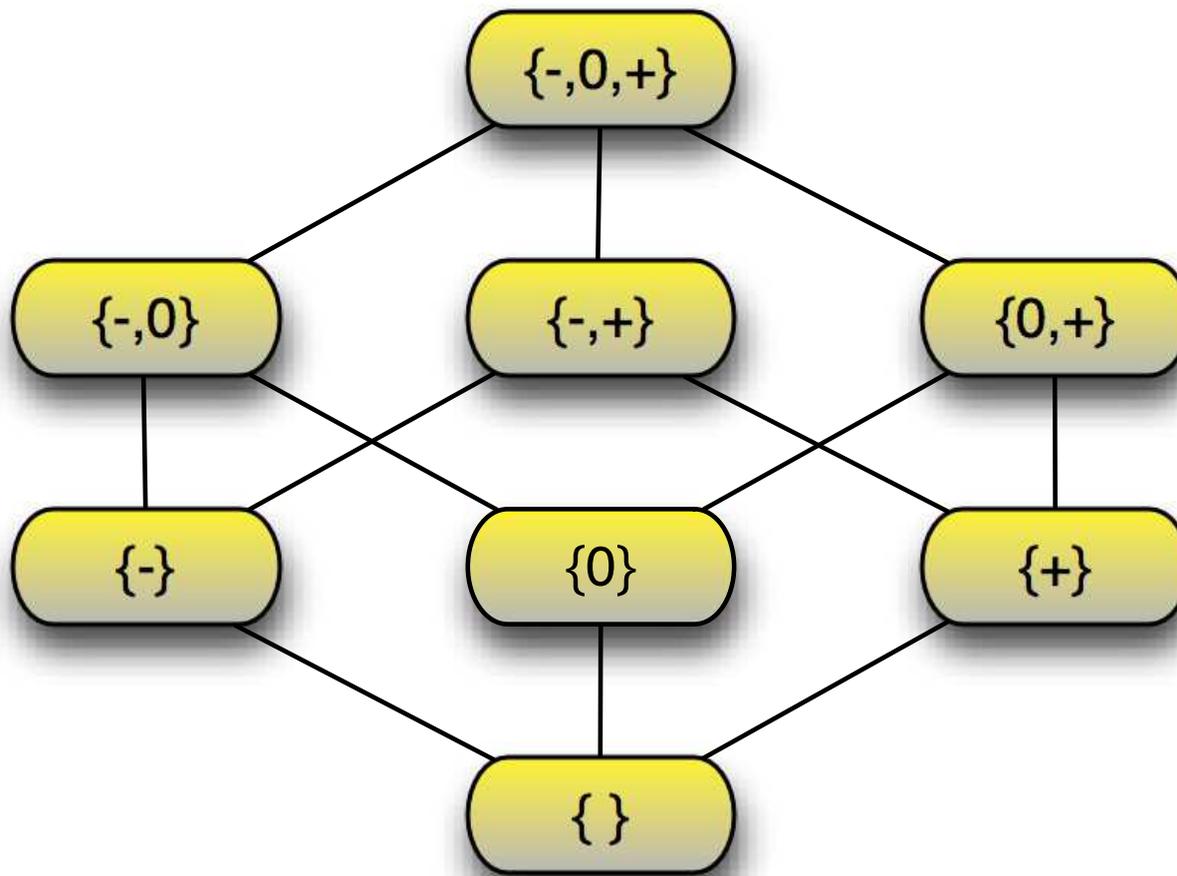
Examples:

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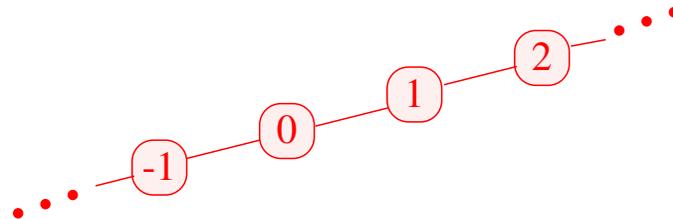
1. The rules-of-sign analysis uses the following lattice $\mathbb{D} = 2^{\{-,0,+ \}}$ with the relation " \subseteq ":



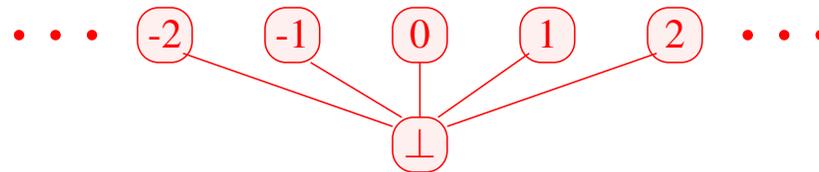
2. \mathbb{Z} with the relation “=” :



2. \mathbb{Z} with the relation “ \leq ” :



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



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$$x \leq d \quad \text{for all } x \in X$$

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The least upper bound is the **youngest common ancestor** in the pictorial representation of lattices.

Intuition: It is the **best combined information** for X .

Caveat:

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

A partially ordered set \mathbb{D} is a **complete lattice (cl)** if every subset $X \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ has a least upper bound $\bigsqcup X \in \mathbb{D}$.

Note:

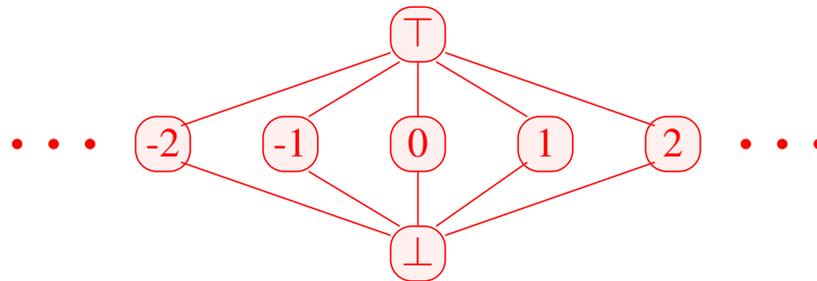
Every complete lattice has

→ a **least** element $\perp = \bigsqcup \emptyset \in \mathbb{D}$;

→ a **greatest** element $\top = \bigsqcup \mathbb{D} \in \mathbb{D}$.

Examples:

1. $\mathbb{D} = 2^{\{-,0,+ \}}$ with \sqsubseteq is a complete lattice
2. $\mathbb{D} = \mathbb{Z}$ with “ \leq ” is not a complete lattice.
3. $\mathbb{D} = \mathbb{Z}_\perp$ is also not a complete lattice
4. With an extra element \top , we obtain the **flat** lattice
 $\mathbb{Z}_\perp^\top = \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\perp, \top\}$:



Theorem:

If \mathbb{D} is a complete lattice, then every subset $X \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ has a **greatest lower bound** $\bigwedge X$.

Back to the system of constraints for Rules-of-Signs Analysis!

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}[start] &\sqsupseteq \top \\ \mathcal{S}[v] &\sqsupseteq \llbracket k \rrbracket^\# (\mathcal{S}[u]) \quad k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge} \end{aligned}$$

Combine all constraints for a variable v by least-upper-bound operator \sqcup :

$$\mathcal{S}[v] \sqsupseteq \sqcup \{ \llbracket k \rrbracket^\# (\mathcal{S}[u]) \mid k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge} \}$$

Our generic form of the systems of constraints:

$$x_i \sqsupseteq f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) \quad (*)$$

Relation to the running example:

x_i	unknown	here:	$\mathcal{S}[u]$
\mathbb{D}	values	here:	<i>Signs</i>
$\sqsubseteq \subseteq \mathbb{D} \times \mathbb{D}$	ordering relation	here:	\subseteq
$f_i: \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$	constraint	here:	...

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- $\text{inc } x = x + 1$ is monotonic.
- $\text{dec } x = x - 1$ is monotonic.
- $\text{inv } x = -x$ is **not monotonic**

Theorem:

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

Theorem:

If \mathbb{D} is a complete lattice, then the set $[S \rightarrow \mathbb{D}]$ of functions $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$ is also a complete lattice where

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

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In particular for $F \subseteq [S \rightarrow \mathbb{D}_2]$,

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

Wanted: least solution for:

$$x_i \sqsupseteq f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (*)$$

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

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Idea:

- Consider $F : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ where

$$F(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \quad \text{with} \quad y_i = f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

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- If all f_i are monotonic, then also F

Wanted: least solution for

$$x_i \sqsupseteq f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (*)$$

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

Idea:

- Consider $F : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ where

$$F(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \quad \text{with} \quad y_i = f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

- If all f_i are monotonic, then also F
- We successively **approximate** a solution from below. We construct:

$$\perp, \quad F \perp, \quad F^2 \perp, \quad F^3 \perp, \quad \dots$$

Intuition: This iteration **eliminates unjustified assumptions**.

Hope: We eventually reach a solution!

Theorem

- $\underline{\perp}, F \underline{\perp}, F^2 \underline{\perp}, \dots$ form an ascending chain :
$$\underline{\perp} \sqsubseteq F \underline{\perp} \sqsubseteq F^2 \underline{\perp} \sqsubseteq \dots$$
- If $F^k \underline{\perp} = F^{k+1} \underline{\perp}$, F^k is the least solution.
- If all ascending chains are finite, such a k always exists.

Proof

The first claim follows by **induction**:

Foundation: $F^0 \underline{\perp} = \underline{\perp} \sqsubseteq F^1 \underline{\perp}$

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

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

since F monotonic

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since F monotonic

Conclusion:

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

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

Theorem

Knaster – Tarski

Assume \mathbb{D} is a complete lattice. Then every **monotonic** function $f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$ has a **least fixed point** $d_0 \in \mathbb{D}$.

Remark:

The least fixed point d_0 is in P and a **lower bound**

$\implies d_0$ is the least value x

Application:

Assume
$$x_i \sqsupseteq f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (*)$$

is a **system of constraints** where all $f_i : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$ are monotonic.

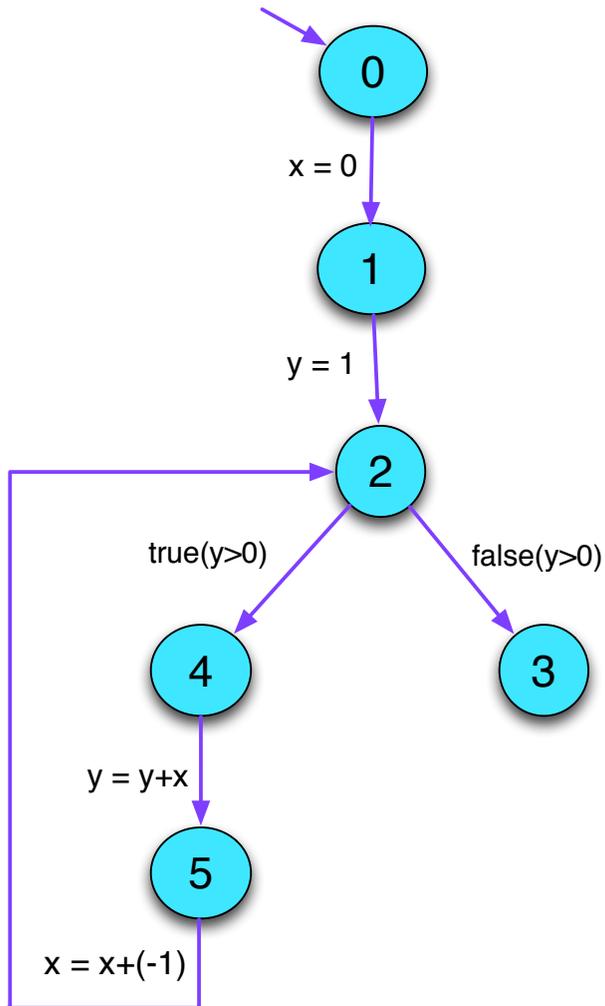
\implies least solution of $(*) =$ least fixed point of F

Conclusion:

Systems of inequalities can be solved through **fixed-point iteration**, i.e., by repeated evaluation of right-hand sides

Caveat: Naive fixed-point iteration is rather **inefficient**

Example:

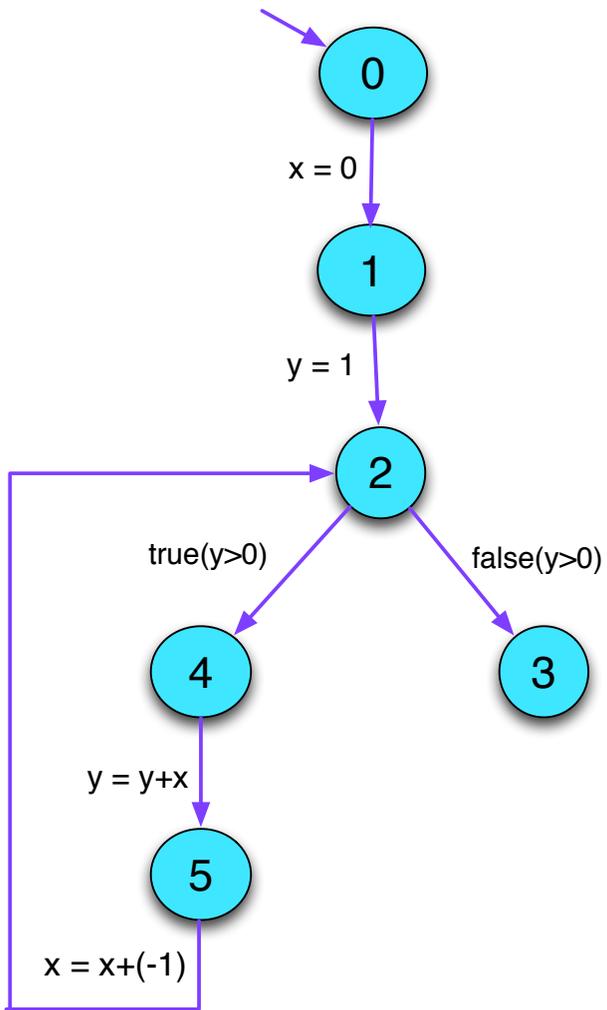


0		1		2		3		4		5	
x	y										

Idea: Round Robin Iteration

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

Example:



0		1		2		3		4		5	
x	y										

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

```
for (i = 1; i ≤ n; i++)  $x_i = \perp$ ;  
do {  
    finished = true;  
    for (i = 1; i ≤ n; i++) {  
        new =  $f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ ;  
        if ( $!(x_i \sqsupseteq \text{new})$ ) {  
            finished = false;  
             $x_i = x_i \sqcup \text{new}$ ;  
        }  
    }  
} while (!finished);
```

What we have learned:

- The information derived by static program analysis is partially ordered in a complete lattice.
- the partial order represents information content/precision of the lattice elements.
- least upper-bound combines information in the best possible way.
- Monotone functions prevent loss of information.

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

$$\mathcal{I}[\textit{start}] \sqsupseteq d_0$$

$$\mathcal{I}[v] \sqsupseteq \llbracket k \rrbracket^\# (\mathcal{I}[u]) \quad k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge}$$

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

Wanted: **MOP** (Merge Over all Paths)

$$\mathcal{I}^*[v] = \bigsqcup \{ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket^\# d_0 \mid \pi : \textit{start} \rightarrow^* v \}$$

Theorem

Kam, Ullman 1975

Assume \mathcal{I} is a solution of the constraint system. Then:

$$\mathcal{I}[v] \sqsupseteq \mathcal{I}^*[v] \quad \text{for every } v$$

In particular: $\mathcal{I}[v] \sqsupseteq \llbracket \pi \rrbracket^\# d_0$ for every $\pi : \textit{start} \rightarrow^* v$

Disappointment: Are solutions of the constraint system **just** upper bounds?

Answer: In general: **yes**

Notable exception, if all functions $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\sharp$ are **distributive**.

The function $f : \mathbb{D}_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}_2$ is called **distributive**, if $f(\bigsqcup X) = \bigsqcup \{f x \mid x \in X\}$ for all $\emptyset \neq X \subseteq \mathbb{D}$;

Remark: If $f : \mathbb{D}_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}_2$ is distributive, then it is also monotonic

Theorem

Kildall 1972

Assume all v are reachable from *start*.

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

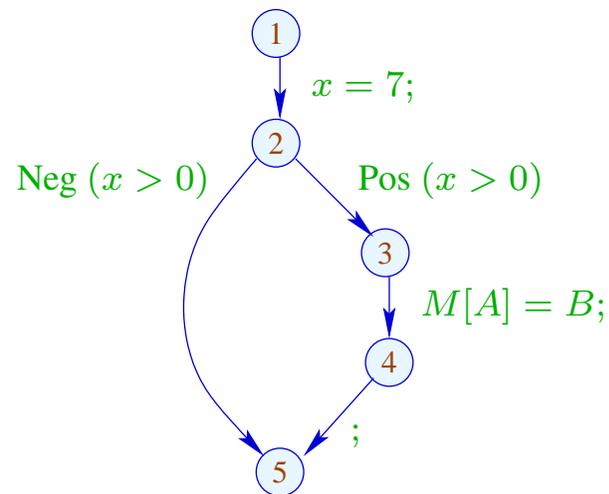
Question: Are the edge effects of the Rules-of-Sign analysis distributive?

5 Constant Propagation

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

Example:

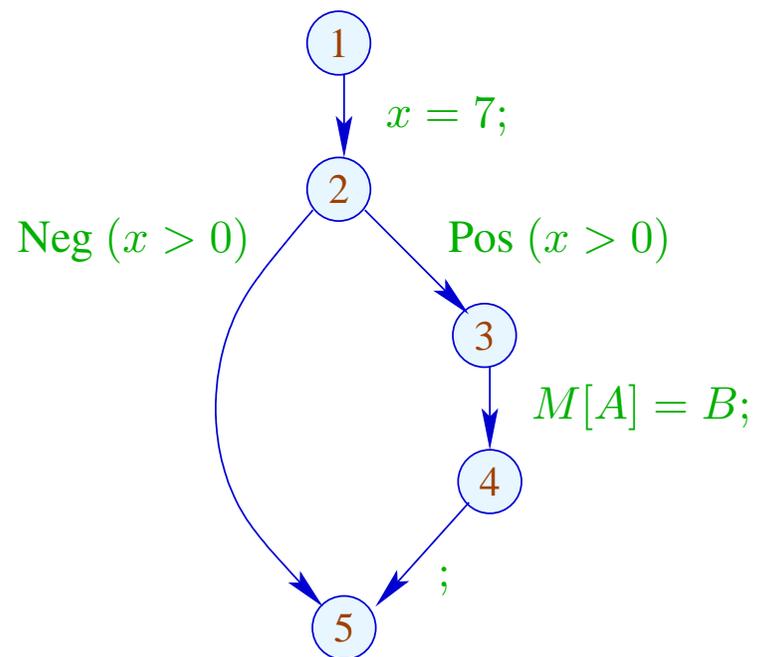
```
 $x = 7;$   
if ( $x > 0$ )  
     $M[A] = B;$ 
```



Obviously, x has always the value 7

Thus, the memory access is **always** executed

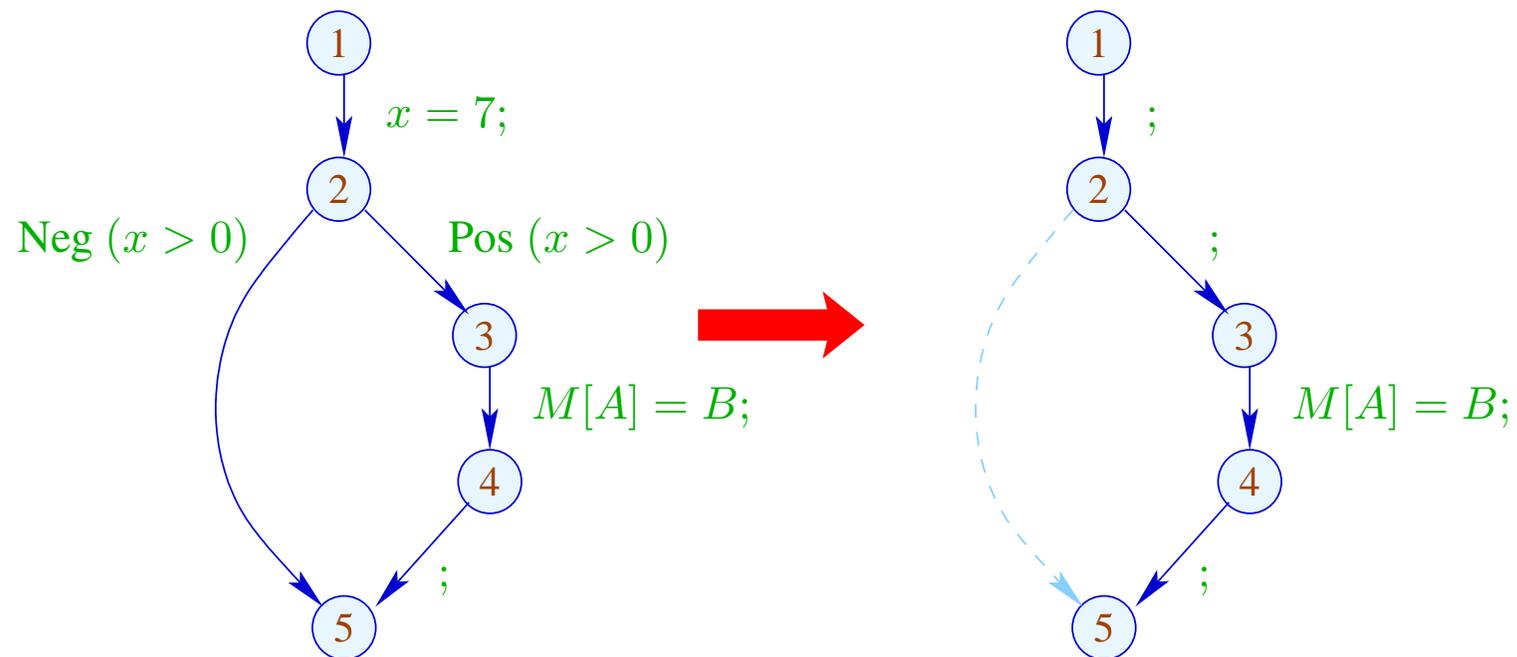
Goal:



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Goal:



Idea:

Design an analysis that for every program point u determines the values that variables **definitely** have at u ;

As a side effect, it also tells whether u can be reached at all

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Design an analysis that for every program point u , determines the values that variables **definitely** have at u ;

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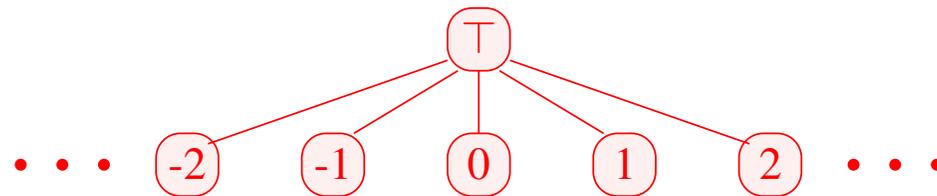
We need to design a complete lattice and an abstract semantics for this analysis.

It abstracts from the variable binding of the state, $\rho : Vars \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$, in a similar way as the Rules-of-Sign analysis.

As in the case of the Rules-of-Signs analysis the complete lattice is constructed in two steps.

(1) The potential values of variables:

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



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

$$(2) \quad \mathbb{D} = (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top)_\perp = (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top) \cup \{\perp\}$$

// \perp denotes: “not reachable”

$$\text{with } D_1 \sqsubseteq D_2 \text{ iff } \perp = D_1 \quad \text{or} \\ D_1 x \sqsubseteq D_2 x \quad (x \in \text{Vars})$$

Remark: \mathbb{D} is a complete lattice

For every edge $k = (_, lab, _)$, construct an effect function $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\# = \llbracket lab \rrbracket^\# : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$ which simulates the **concrete** computation.

Obviously, $\llbracket lab \rrbracket^\# \perp = \perp$ for all lab

Now let $\perp \neq D \in Vars \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top$.

Idea:

- We use D to determine the values of expressions.

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As in the Rules-of-Sign analysis, we replace the concrete operators

\square by **abstract** operators $\square^\#$ that can handle \top :

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

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

- The abstract operators allow to define an **abstract** evaluation of expressions:

$$\llbracket e \rrbracket^\# : (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket c \rrbracket^\# D &= c \\ \llbracket e_1 \square e_2 \rrbracket^\# D &= \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# D \square^\# \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^\# D \end{aligned}$$

... analogously for **unary** operators

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... analogously for **unary** operators

Example:

$$D = \{x \mapsto 2, y \mapsto \top\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket x + 7 \rrbracket^\# D &= \llbracket x \rrbracket^\# D +^\# \llbracket 7 \rrbracket^\# D \\ &= 2 +^\# 7 \\ &= 9 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket x - y \rrbracket^\# D &= 2 -^\# \top \\ &= \top \end{aligned}$$

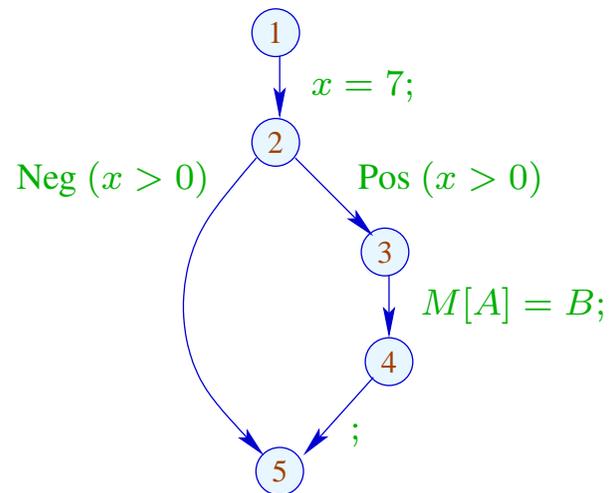
Thus, we obtain the following abstract edge effects $\llbracket lab \rrbracket^\#$:

$$\begin{aligned}
\llbracket ; \rrbracket^\# D &= D \\
\llbracket \text{true}(e) \rrbracket^\# D &= \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } 0 = \llbracket e \rrbracket^\# D & \text{definitely false} \\ D & \text{otherwise} & \text{possibly true} \end{cases} \\
\llbracket \text{false}(e) \rrbracket^\# D &= \begin{cases} D & \text{if } 0 \sqsubseteq \llbracket e \rrbracket^\# D & \text{possibly false} \\ \perp & \text{otherwise} & \text{definitely true} \end{cases} \\
\llbracket x = e; \rrbracket^\# D &= D \oplus \{x \mapsto \llbracket e \rrbracket^\# D\} \\
\llbracket x = M[e]; \rrbracket^\# D &= D \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\} \\
\llbracket M[e_1] = e_2; \rrbracket^\# D &= D
\end{aligned}$$

... whenever $D \neq \perp$

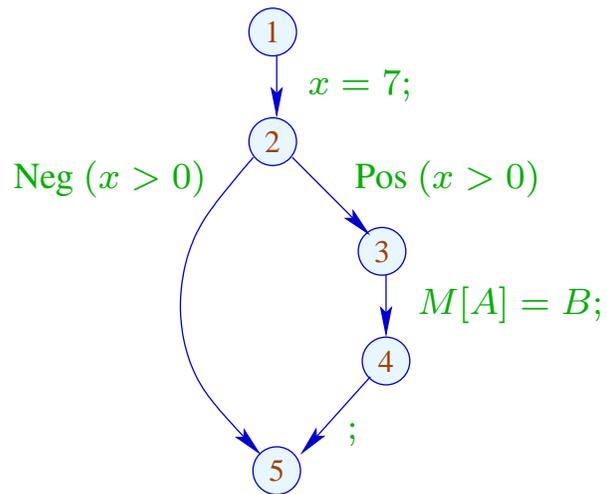
At *start*, we have $D_{\top} = \{x \mapsto \top \mid x \in Vars\}$.

Example:



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

Example:



1	$\{x \mapsto \top\}$
2	$\{x \mapsto 7\}$
3	$\{x \mapsto 7\}$
4	$\{x \mapsto 7\}$
5	$\perp \sqcup \{x \mapsto 7\} = \{x \mapsto 7\}$

The abstract effects of edges $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\#$ are again composed to form the effects of paths $\pi = k_1 \dots k_r$ by:

$$\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^\# = \llbracket k_r \rrbracket^\# \circ \dots \circ \llbracket k_1 \rrbracket^\# \quad : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$$

Idea for Correctness:

Abstract Interpretation

Cousot, Cousot 1977

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

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

Concretization: $\gamma a = \{x \mid x \Delta a\}$

// returns the set of described values

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

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

Concretization:

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

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Concretization:

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(2) **Variable Bindings:** $\Delta \subseteq (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}) \times (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top)_\perp$

$$\rho \Delta D \quad \text{iff} \quad D \neq \perp \wedge \rho x \sqsubseteq D x \quad (x \in \text{Vars})$$

Concretization:

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

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

(3) States:

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

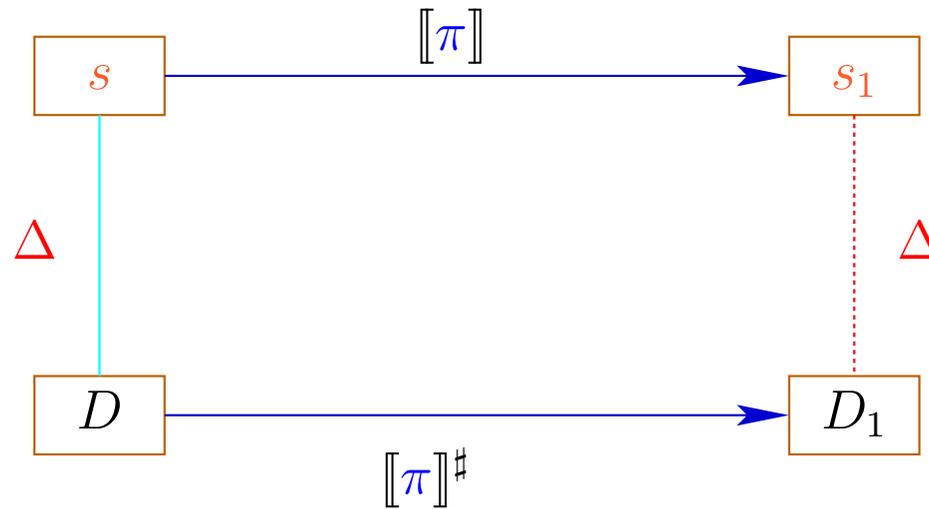
Concretization:

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

We show correctness:

(*) If $s \Delta D$ and $[[\pi]] s$ is defined, then:

$$([[\pi]] s) \Delta ([[\pi]]^\# D)$$



The abstract semantics simulates the concrete semantics

In particular:

$$[[\pi]] s \in \gamma ([[\pi]]^\# D)$$

The abstract semantics simulates the concrete semantics

In particular:

$$\llbracket \pi \rrbracket s \in \gamma (\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^\# D)$$

In **practice**, this means for example that $D x = -7$ implies:

$$\begin{aligned} \rho' x &= -7 \text{ for all } \rho' \in \gamma D \\ \implies \rho_1 x &= -7 \text{ for } (\rho_1, _) = \llbracket \pi \rrbracket s \end{aligned}$$

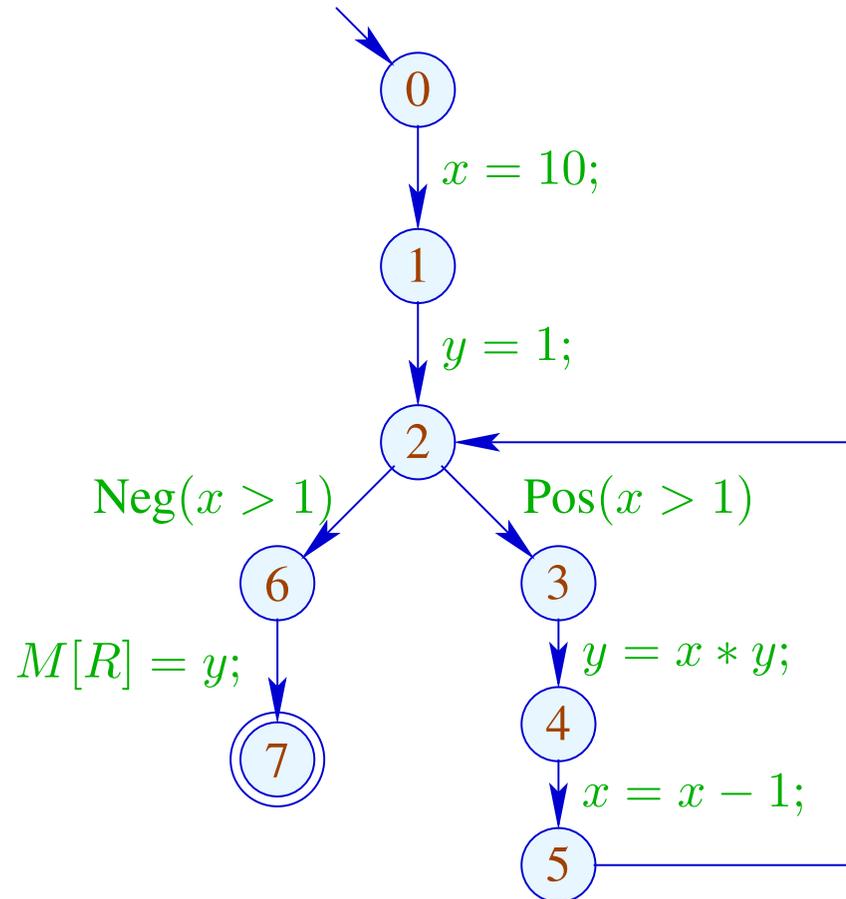
The MOP-Solution:

$$\mathcal{D}^*[v] = \bigsqcup \{ [\pi]^\# D_\top \mid \pi : \textit{start} \rightarrow^* v \}$$

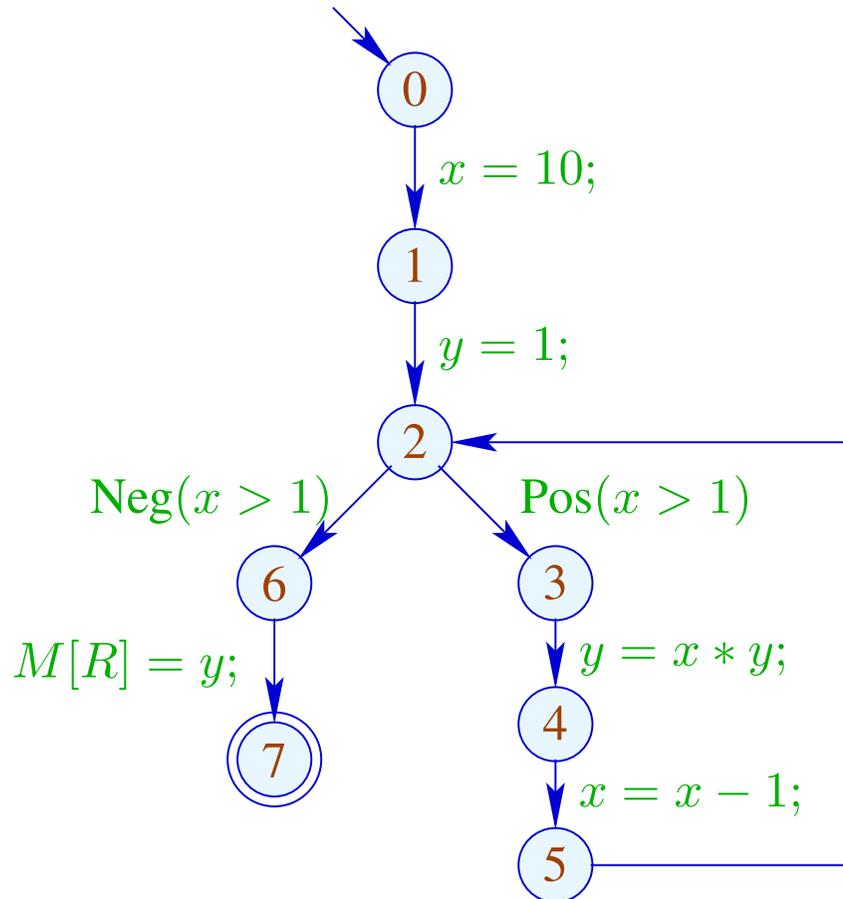
where $D_\top x = \top$ ($x \in \textit{Vars}$).

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

Example:

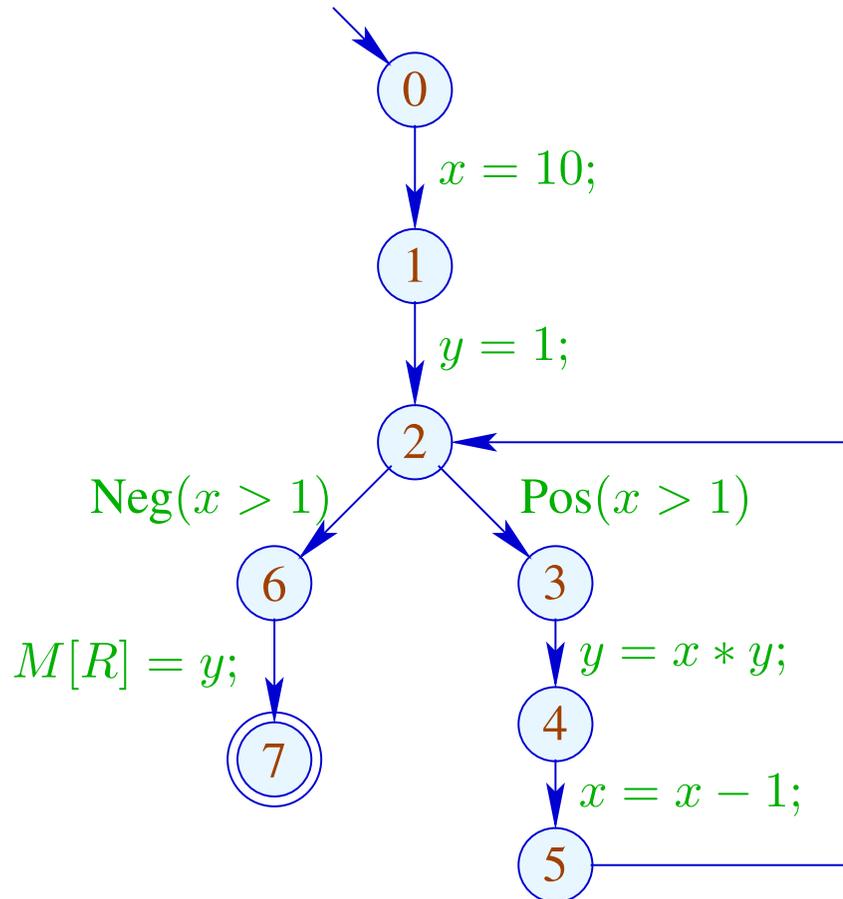


Example:



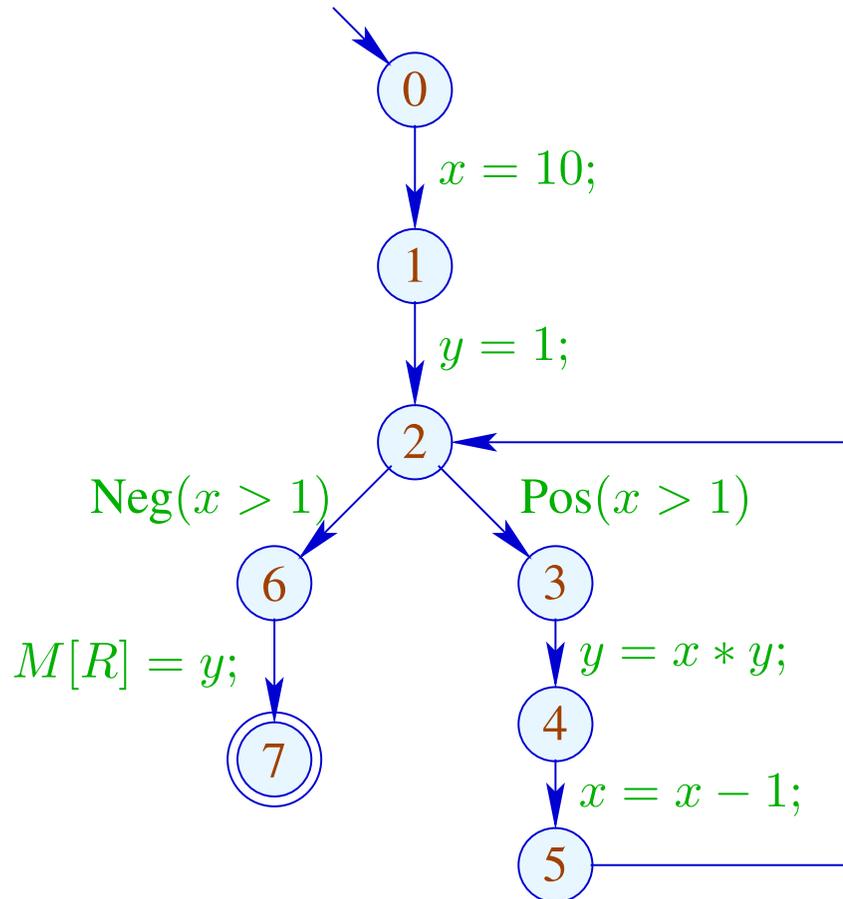
	1	
	x	y
0	⊤	⊤
1	10	⊤
2	10	1
3	10	1
4	10	10
5	9	10
6	⊥	
7	⊥	

Example:



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

Example:



	1		2		3	
	x	y	x	y	x	y
0	⊤	⊤	⊤	⊤		
1	10	⊤	10	⊤		
2	10	1	⊤	⊤		
3	10	1	⊤	⊤		
4	10	10	⊤	⊤	dito	
5	9	10	⊤	⊤		
6	⊥		⊤	⊤		
7	⊥		⊤	⊤		

Concrete vs. Abstract Execution:

Although program and all initial values are given, abstract execution does not compute the result!

On the other hand, fixed-point iteration is guaranteed to terminate:

For n program points and m variables, we maximally need:

$n \cdot (m + 1)$ rounds

Observation: The effects of edges are **not distributive!**

Counterexample: $f = \llbracket x = x + y; \rrbracket^\sharp$

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

$$D_2 = \{x \mapsto 3, y \mapsto 2\}$$

$$\text{Then } f D_1 \sqcup f D_2 = \{x \mapsto 5, y \mapsto 3\} \sqcup \{x \mapsto 5, y \mapsto 2\}$$

$$= \{x \mapsto 5, y \mapsto \top\}$$

$$\neq \{x \mapsto \top, y \mapsto \top\}$$

$$= f \{x \mapsto \top, y \mapsto \top\}$$

$$= f (D_1 \sqcup D_2)$$

We conclude:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

6 Removing superfluous computations

A computation may be superfluous because

- the result is already available, \longrightarrow available-expression analysis, or
- the result is not needed \longrightarrow live-variable analysis.

6.1 Redundant computations

Idea:

If an expression at a program point is guaranteed to be computed to the value it had before, then

- store this value after the first computation;
- replace every further computation through a look-up

Question to be answered by static analysis: Is an expression available?

Problem: Identify sources of redundant computations!

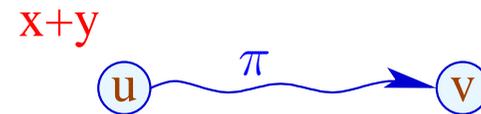
Example:

$$\begin{aligned} z &= 1; \\ y &= M[17]; \\ A : \quad x_1 &= \boxed{y + z}; \\ &\dots \\ B : \quad x_2 &= \boxed{y + z}; \end{aligned}$$

B is a **redundant** computation of the value of $\boxed{y + z}$, if

- (1) A is **always** executed **before** B ; and
- (2) y and z at B have the same values as at A

Situation: The value of $x + y$ is computed at program point u



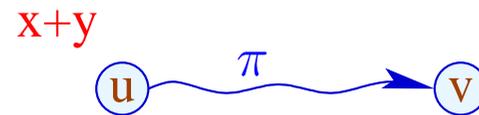
and a computation along path π reaches v where it evaluates again $x + y$

....

If x and y have not been modified in π , then evaluation of $x + y$ at v returns the same value as evaluation at u .

This property can be checked at every edge in π .

Situation: The value of $x + y$ is computed at program point u



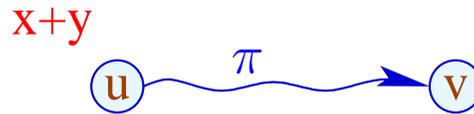
and a computation along path π reaches v where it evaluates again $x + y$
.... If x and y have not been modified in π , then evaluation of $x + y$ at v is known to return the same value as evaluation at u

This property can be checked at every edge in π .

More efficient: Do this check for all expressions occurring in the program in parallel.

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

Situation: The value of $x + y$ is computed at program point u



and a computation along path π reaches v where it evaluates again $x + y$
... 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 .

This property can be checked at every edge in π .

More efficient: Do this check for all expressions occurring in the
program in parallel.

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

Every edge k transforms this set into a set $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\# A$ of expressions
whose values are available **after** execution of k .

$\llbracket k \rrbracket^\# A$ is the **(abstract) edge effect** associated with k

These edge effects can be composed to the **effect** of a path $\pi = k_1 \dots k_r$:

$$\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^\# = \llbracket k_r \rrbracket^\# \circ \dots \circ \llbracket k_1 \rrbracket^\#$$

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The effect $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\#$ of an edge $k = (u, lab, v)$ only depends on the label lab , i.e., $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\# = \llbracket lab \rrbracket^\#$

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The effect $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\#$ of an edge $k = (u, \text{lab}, v)$ only depends on the label lab , i.e., $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\# = \llbracket \text{lab} \rrbracket^\#$ where:

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket ; \rrbracket^\# A &= A \\ \llbracket \text{true}(e) \rrbracket^\# A &= \llbracket \text{false}(e) \rrbracket^\# A = A \cup \{e\} \\ \llbracket x = e; \rrbracket^\# A &= (A \cup \{e\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_x \quad \text{where} \\ &\quad \text{Expr}_x \text{ all expressions that contain } x \end{aligned}$$

$$\llbracket x = M[e]; \rrbracket^\# A = (A \cup \{e\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_x$$

$$\llbracket M[e_1] = e_2; \rrbracket^\# A = A \cup \{e_1, e_2\}$$

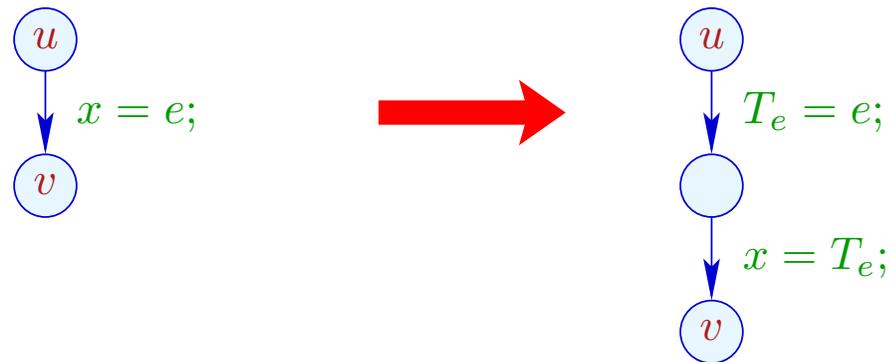
- An expression is **available** at v if it is available along all paths π to v .
 - For every such path π , the analysis determines the set of expressions that are available along π .
 - Initially at program start, **nothing** is available.
 - The analysis computes the **intersection** of the availability sets as **safe information**.
- ⇒ For each node v , we need the set:

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

How does a compiler exploit this information?

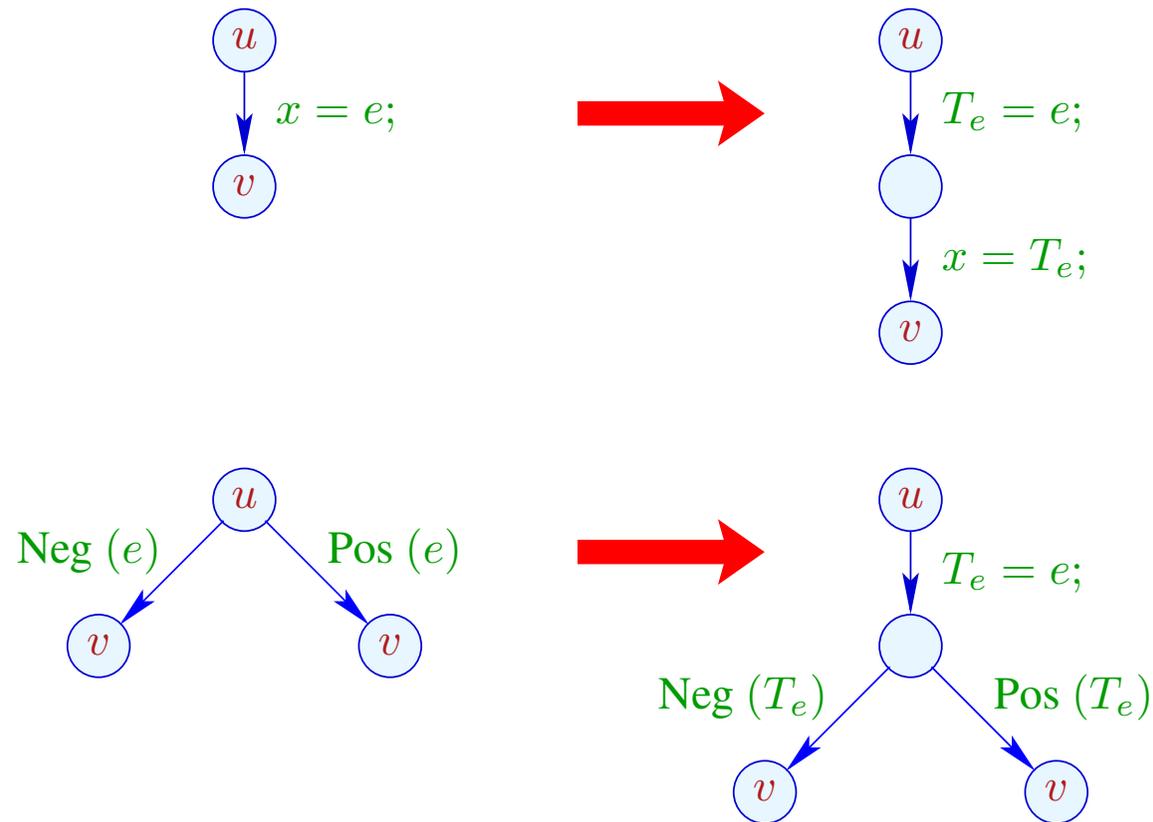
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We provide a novel register T_e as storage for the values of e :



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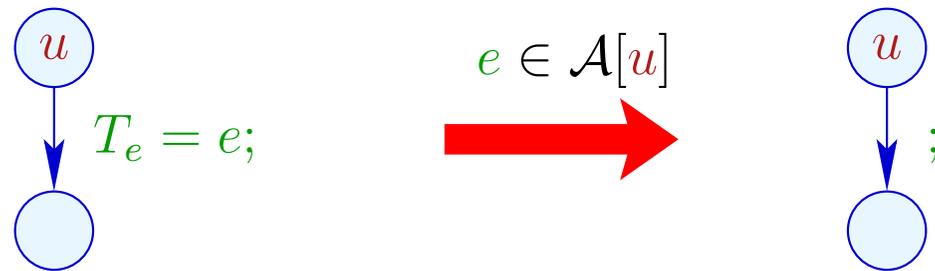
We provide novel registers T_e as **storage** for the value of e :



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

Transformation AEE (available expression elimination):

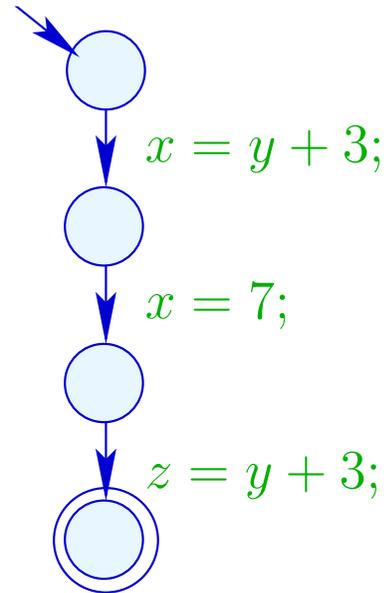
If e is available at program point u , then e need not be re-evaluated:



We replace the assignment with *Nop*.

Example:

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

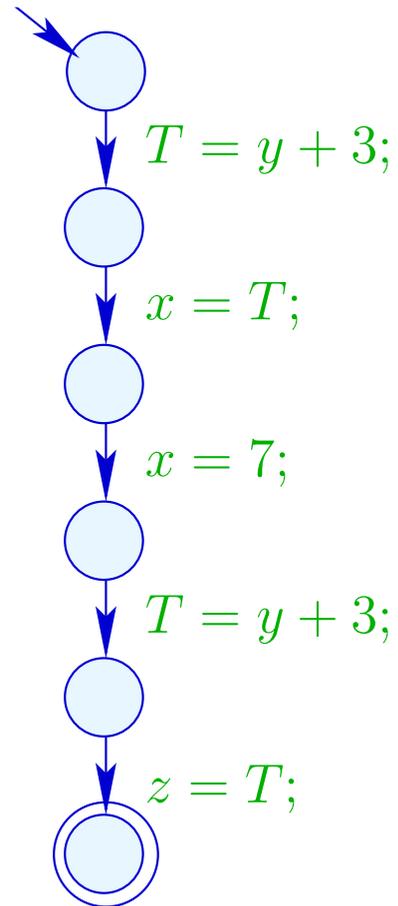


Example:

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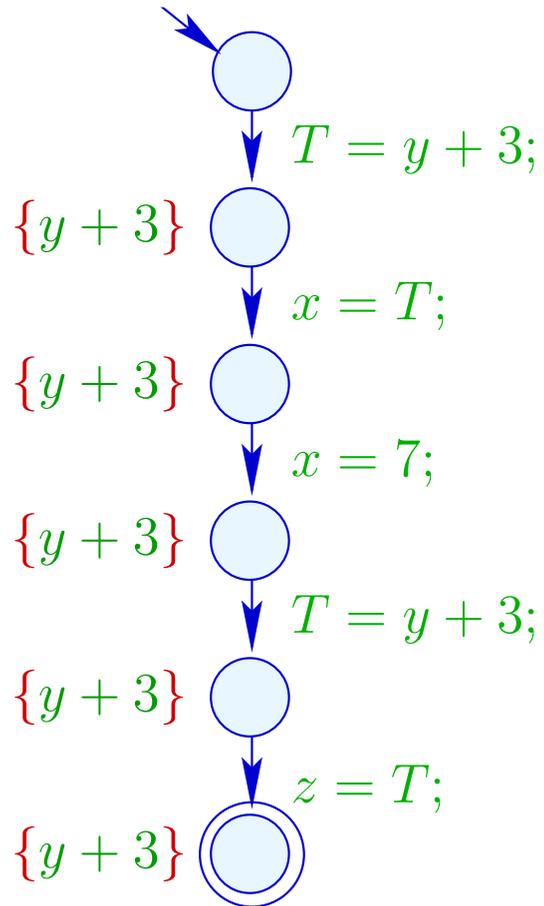
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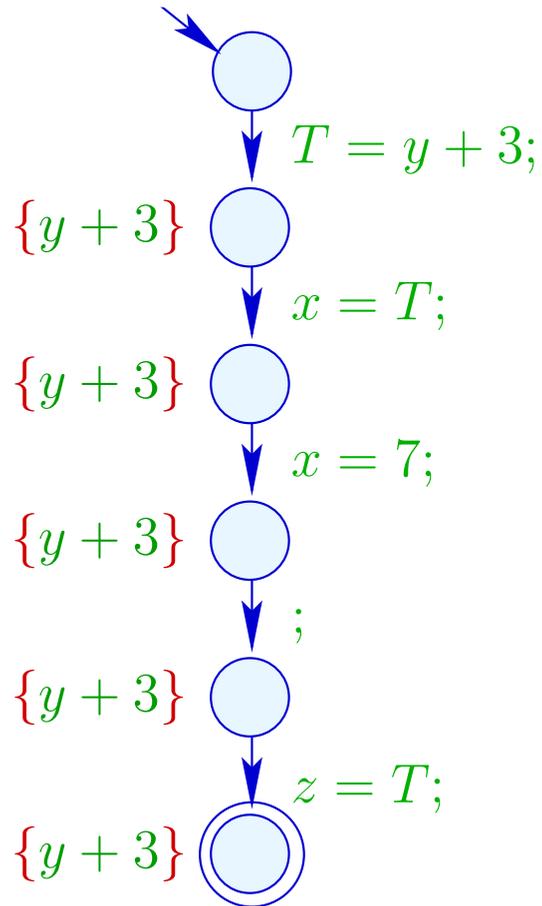
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Warning:

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

- $x \notin \text{Vars}(e)$; why?
- $e \notin \text{Vars}$; why?
- the evaluation of e is **non-trivial**; why?

Warning:

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

- $x \notin \text{Vars}(e)$; otherwise e is not available afterwards.
- $e \notin \text{Vars}$; otherwise values are shuffled around
- the evaluation of e is **non-trivial**; otherwise the efficiency of the code is decreased.

Open **question** ...

Question:

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{A}[start] &\subseteq \emptyset \\ \mathcal{A}[v] &\subseteq \llbracket k \rrbracket^\# (\mathcal{A}[u]) \quad k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge}\end{aligned}$$

Why \subseteq ?

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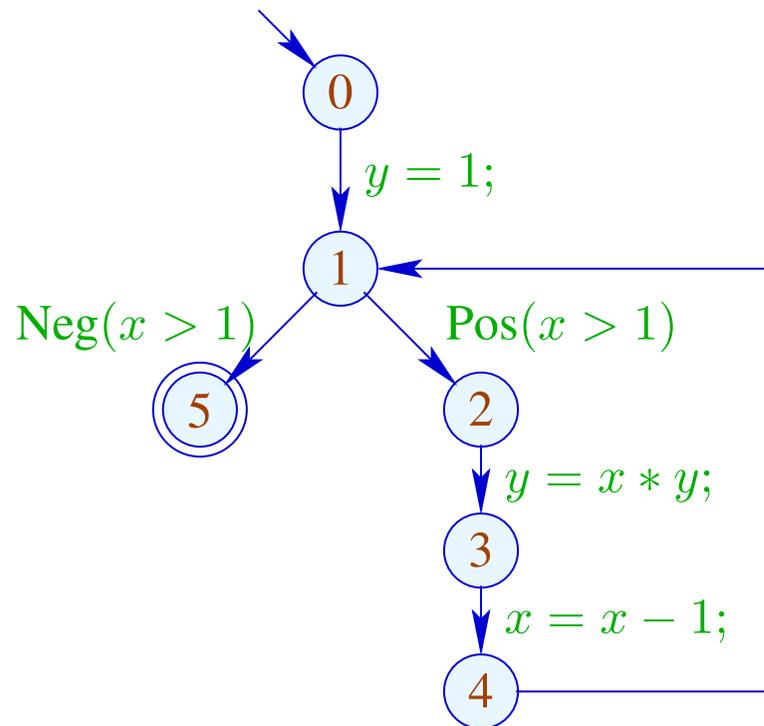
Then combine all constraints for each variable v by applying the least-upper-bound operator \longrightarrow

$$\mathcal{A}[v] \subseteq \bigcap \{ \llbracket k \rrbracket^\# (\mathcal{A}[u]) \mid k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge} \}$$

Wanted:

- a **greatest** solution (why greatest?)
- an algorithm that computes this solution

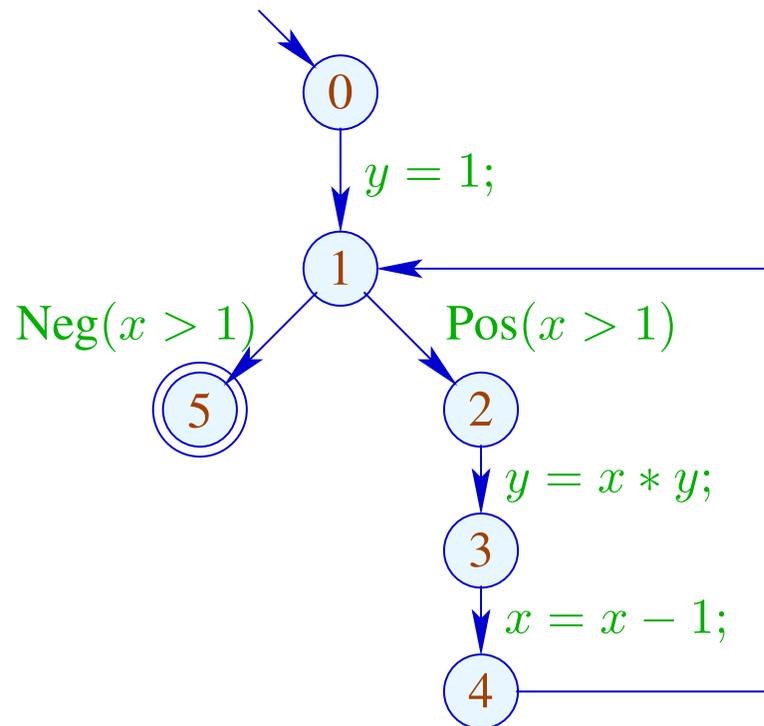
Example:



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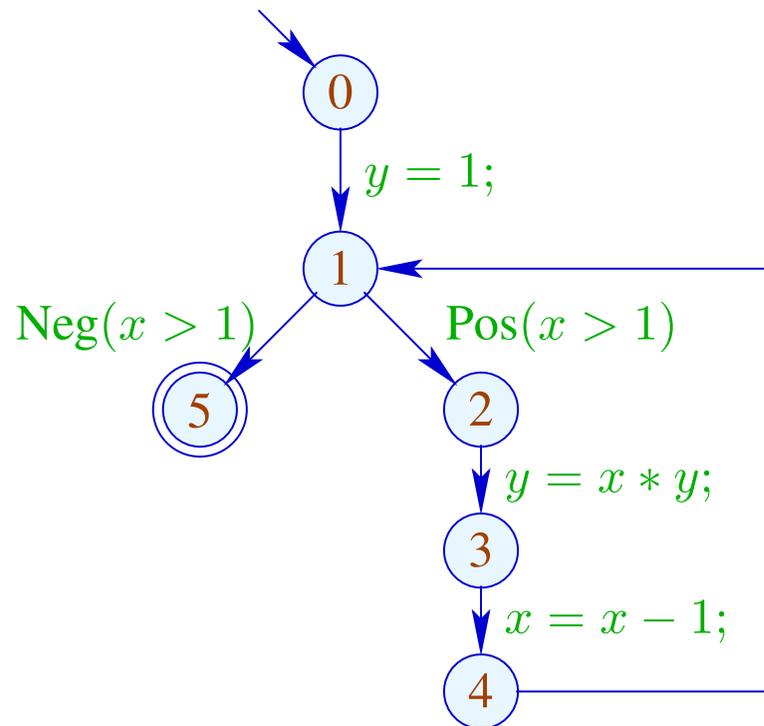


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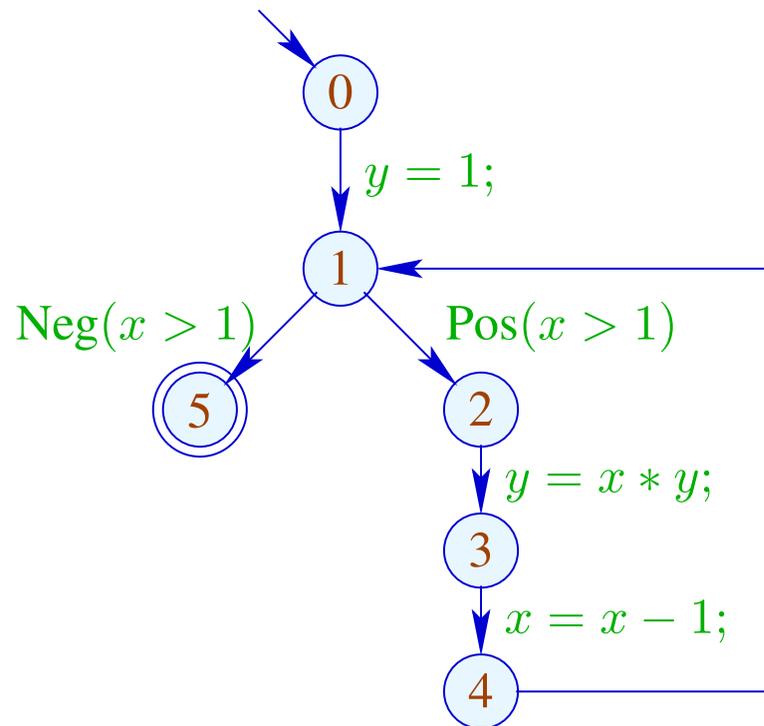


$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{A}[0] &\subseteq \emptyset \\ \mathcal{A}[1] &\subseteq (\mathcal{A}[0] \cup \{1\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_y \\ \mathcal{A}[1] &\subseteq \mathcal{A}[4]\end{aligned}$$

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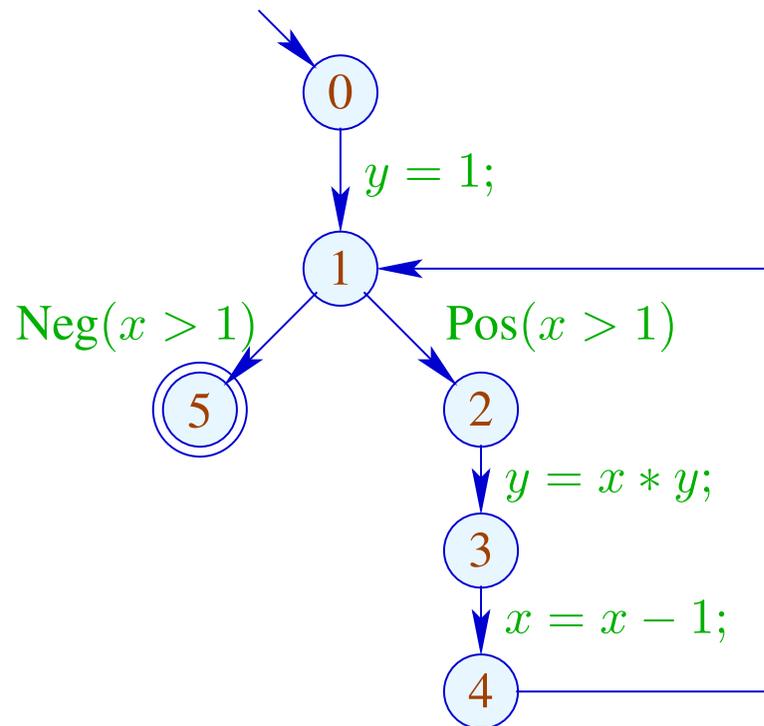


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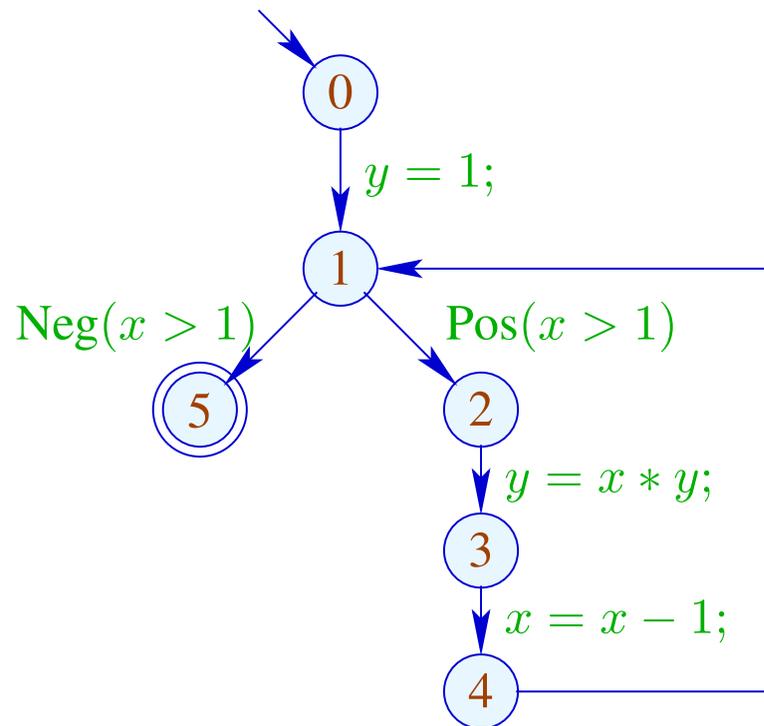
$$\mathcal{A}[2] \subseteq \mathcal{A}[1] \cup \{x > 1\}$$

$$\mathcal{A}[3] \subseteq (\mathcal{A}[2] \cup \{x * y\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_y$$

Wanted:

- a **greatest** solution (why greatest?)
- an algorithm that computes this solution

Example:

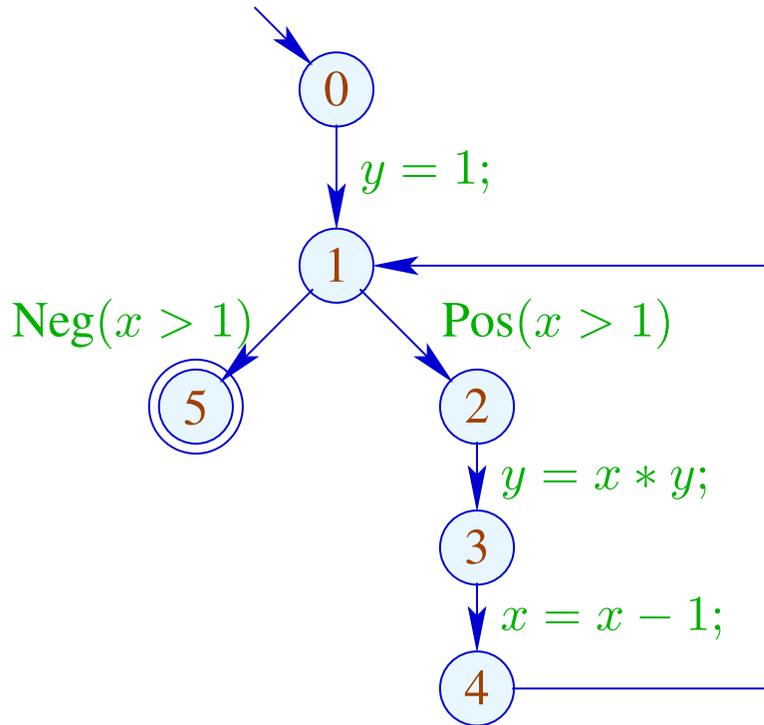


$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{A}[0] &\subseteq \emptyset \\ \mathcal{A}[1] &\subseteq (\mathcal{A}[0] \cup \{1\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_y \\ \mathcal{A}[1] &\subseteq \mathcal{A}[4] \\ \mathcal{A}[2] &\subseteq \mathcal{A}[1] \cup \{x > 1\} \\ \mathcal{A}[3] &\subseteq (\mathcal{A}[2] \cup \{x * y\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_y \\ \mathcal{A}[4] &\subseteq (\mathcal{A}[3] \cup \{x - 1\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_x\end{aligned}$$

Wanted:

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Example:

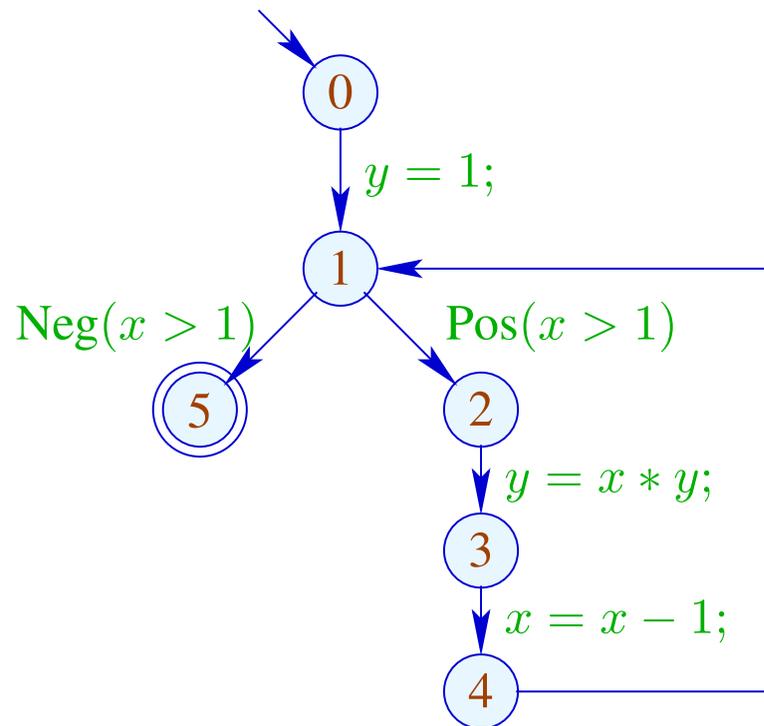


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Wanted:

- a **greatest** solution,
- an algorithm that computes this solution.

Example:



Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{A}[0] &= \emptyset \\ \mathcal{A}[1] &= \{1\} \\ \mathcal{A}[2] &= \{1, x > 1\} \\ \mathcal{A}[3] &= \{1, x > 1\} \\ \mathcal{A}[4] &= \{1\} \\ \mathcal{A}[5] &= \{1, x > 1\}\end{aligned}$$

Observation:

- Again, the possible values for $\mathcal{A}[u]$ form a **complete lattice**:

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

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- The order on the lattice elements indicates what is **better information**,
more available expressions may allow more optimizations
- The functions $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\sharp : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$ have the form $f_i x = a_i \cap x \cup b_i$.
They are called *gen/kill* functions — \cap kills, \cup generates.
- they are **monotonic**, i.e.,

$$\llbracket k \rrbracket^\sharp(B_1) \sqsubseteq \llbracket k \rrbracket^\sharp(B_2) \quad \text{iff} \quad B_1 \sqsubseteq B_2$$

The operations “ \circ ”, “ \sqcup ” and “ \sqcap ” can be explicitly defined by:

$$\begin{aligned}(f_2 \circ f_1) x &= a_1 \cap a_2 \cap x \cup a_2 \cap b_1 \cup b_2 \\(f_1 \sqcup f_2) x &= (a_1 \cup a_2) \cap x \cup b_1 \cup b_2 \\(f_1 \sqcap f_2) x &= (a_1 \cup b_1) \cap (a_2 \cup b_2) \cap x \cup b_1 \cap b_2\end{aligned}$$

6.2 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 overwritten before it can be used.

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

Note:

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

Note:

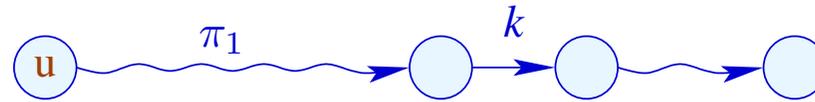
- Assignments to dead variables can be removed.
- Such inefficiencies may originate from other transformations.

Formal Definition:

The variable x is called **live** at u along a path π starting at u

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 .

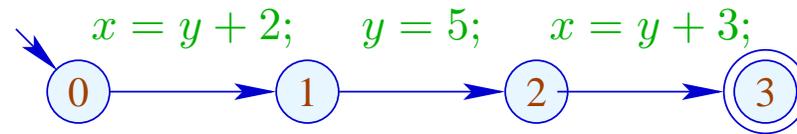


Thereby, the set of all defined or used variables at an edge $k = (_, lab, _)$ is defined by

<i>lab</i>	<i>used</i>	<i>defined</i>
;	\emptyset	\emptyset
$true(e)$	$Vars(e)$	\emptyset
$false(e)$	$Vars(e)$	\emptyset
$x = e;$	$Vars(e)$	$\{x\}$
$x = M[e];$	$Vars(e)$	$\{x\}$
$M[e_1] = e_2;$	$Vars(e_1) \cup Vars(e_2)$	\emptyset

A variable x which is not live at u along π is called **dead** at u along π .

Example:



Then we observe:

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

The variable x is **live** at u if x is live at u along **some** path to the exit . Otherwise, x is called **dead** at u .

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

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

Idea:

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

Note: Edge transformers go "backwards"!

Let $\mathbb{L} = 2^{Vars}$.

For $k = (_, lab, _)$, define $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\# = \llbracket lab \rrbracket^\#$ by:

$$\begin{aligned}\llbracket ; \rrbracket^\# L &= L \\ \llbracket true(e) \rrbracket^\# L &= \llbracket false(e) \rrbracket^\# L = L \cup Vars(e) \\ \llbracket x = e; \rrbracket^\# L &= (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup Vars(e) \\ \llbracket x = M[e]; \rrbracket^\# L &= (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup Vars(e) \\ \llbracket M[e_1] = e_2; \rrbracket^\# L &= L \cup Vars(e_1) \cup Vars(e_2)\end{aligned}$$

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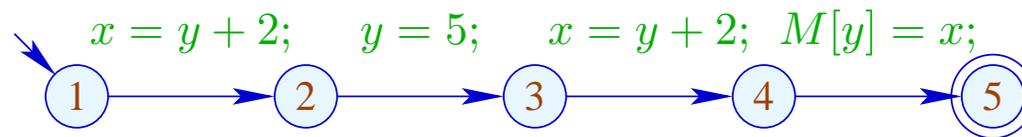
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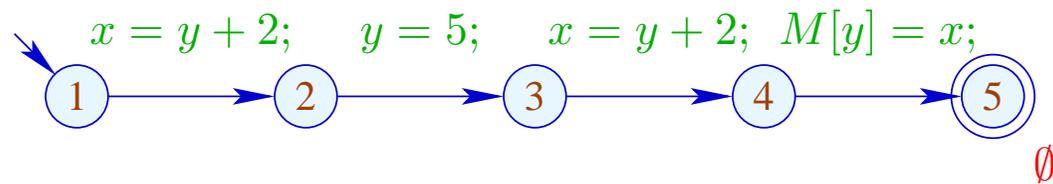
$\llbracket k \rrbracket^\#$ can again be composed to the effects of $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^\#$ of paths $\pi = k_1 \dots k_r$ by:

$$\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^\# = \llbracket k_1 \rrbracket^\# \circ \dots \circ \llbracket k_r \rrbracket^\#$$

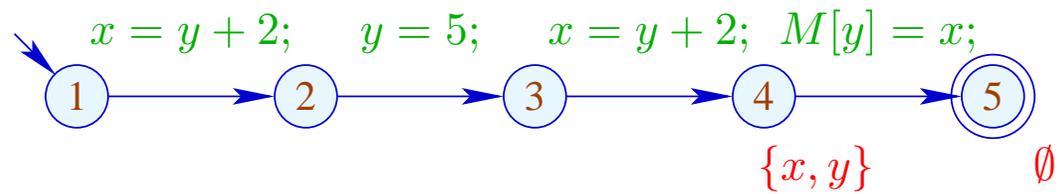
We verify that these definitions are **meaningful**



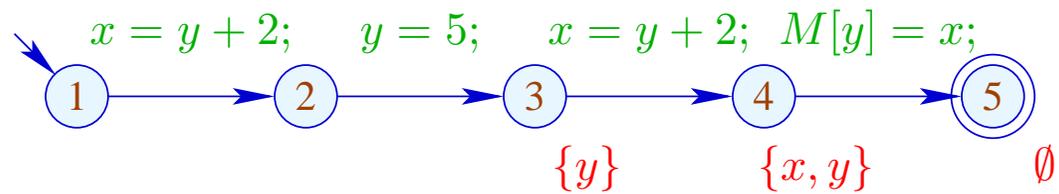
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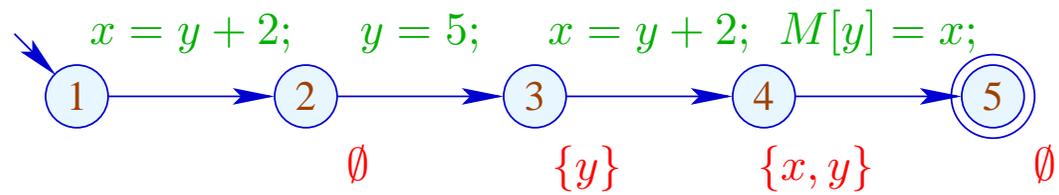
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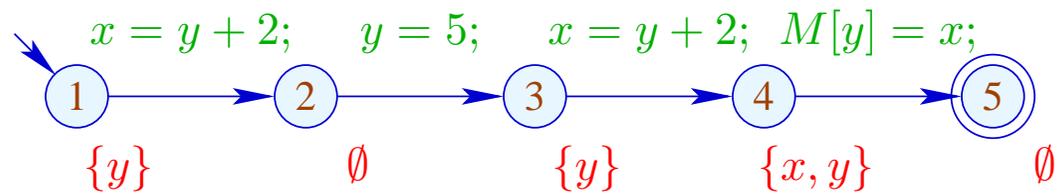
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We verify that these definitions are **meaningful**



A variable is **live** at a program point u if there is at least one path from u to program exit on which it is live.

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

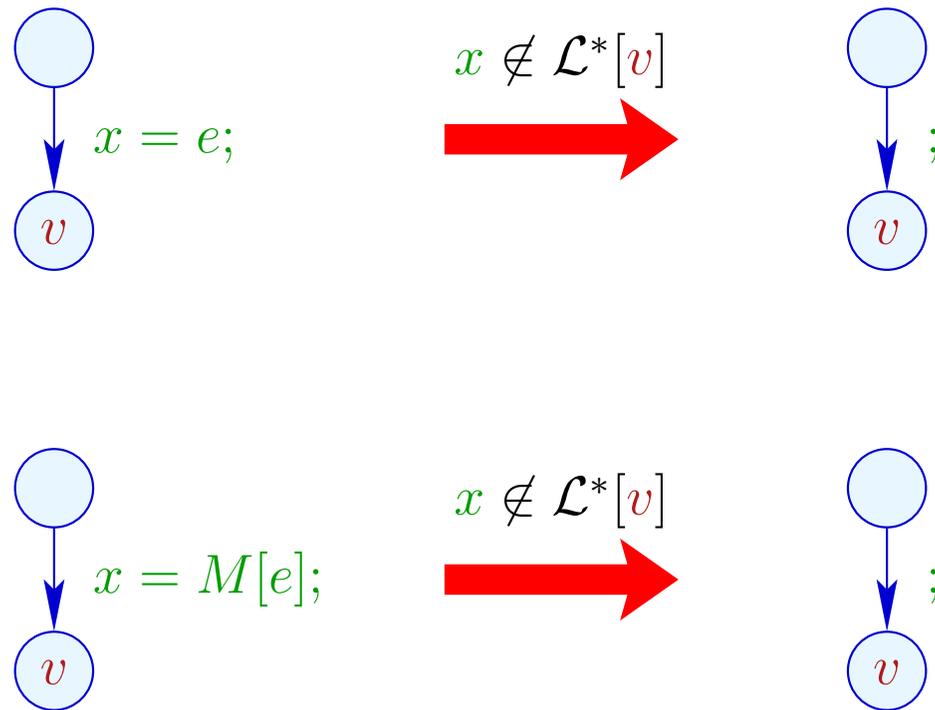
$$\mathcal{L}^*[u] = \bigcup \{ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket \# \emptyset \mid \pi : u \rightarrow^* \text{stop} \}$$

No variables are assumed to be live at program exit.

As partial order for \mathbb{L} we use $\sqsubseteq = \subseteq$. **why?**

So, the least upper bound is \bigcup . **why?**

Transformation DE (Dead assignment Elimination):



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 $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^\# L$ 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 as in the original program.

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

(1) Collecting constraints:

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

$$\mathcal{L}[u] \supseteq \llbracket k \rrbracket^\# (\mathcal{L}[v]) \quad k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge}$$

(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 least solution \mathcal{L} of the constraint system equals \mathcal{L}^* since all $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\#$ are distributive

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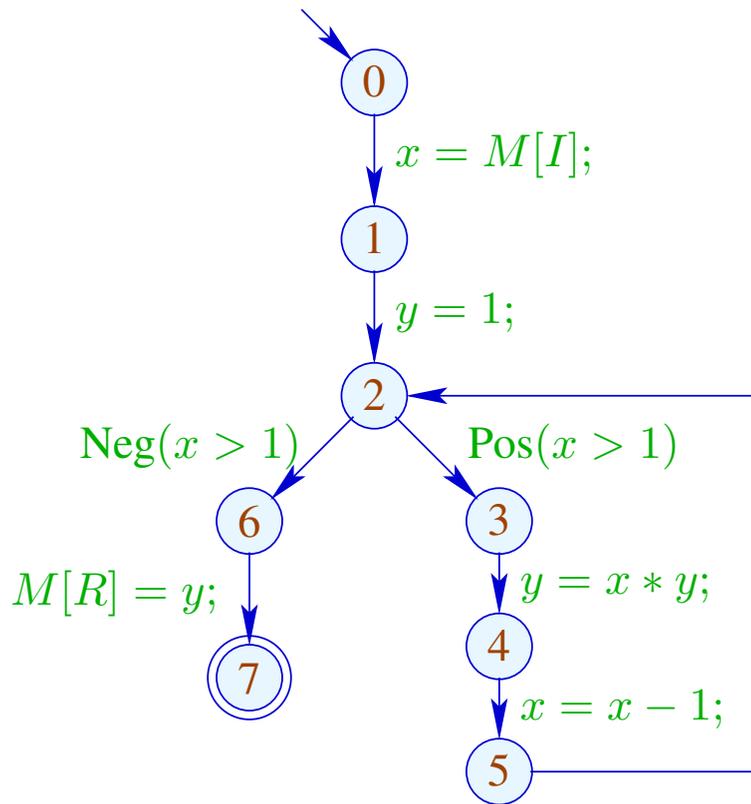
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Note: The information is propagated **backwards!**

Example:



$$\mathcal{L}[0] \supseteq (\mathcal{L}[1] \setminus \{x\}) \cup \{I\}$$

$$\mathcal{L}[1] \supseteq \mathcal{L}[2] \setminus \{y\}$$

$$\mathcal{L}[2] \supseteq (\mathcal{L}[6] \cup \{x\}) \cup (\mathcal{L}[3] \cup \{x\})$$

$$\mathcal{L}[3] \supseteq (\mathcal{L}[4] \setminus \{y\}) \cup \{x, y\}$$

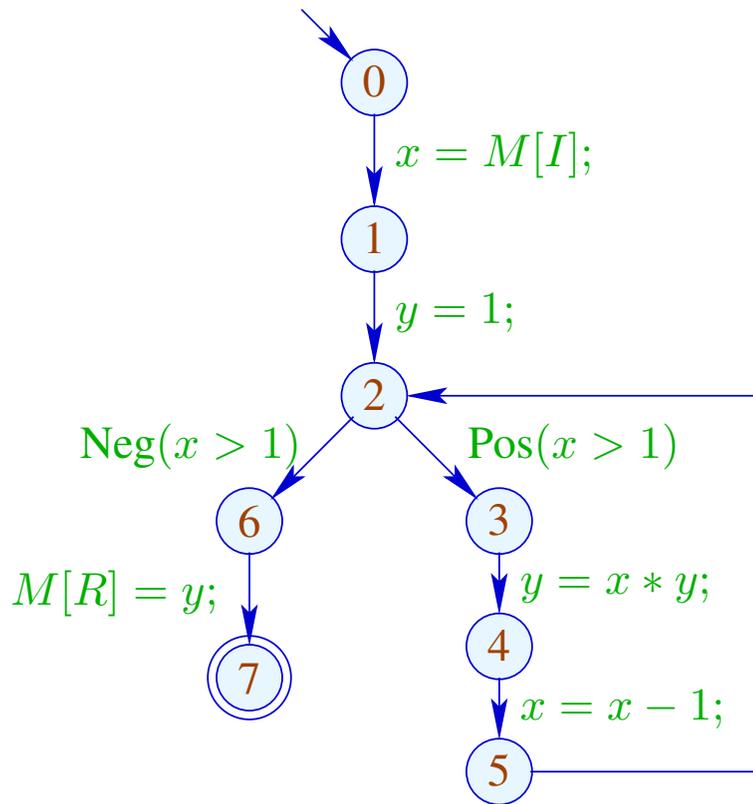
$$\mathcal{L}[4] \supseteq (\mathcal{L}[5] \setminus \{x\}) \cup \{x\}$$

$$\mathcal{L}[5] \supseteq \mathcal{L}[2]$$

$$\mathcal{L}[6] \supseteq \mathcal{L}[7] \cup \{y, R\}$$

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

Example:

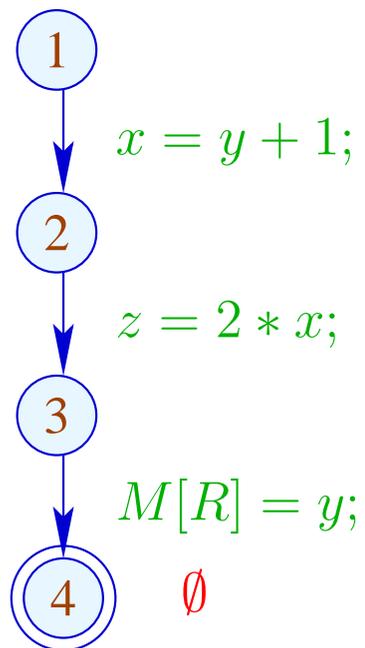


	1	2
7	\emptyset	
6	$\{y, R\}$	
2	$\{x, y, R\}$	dito
5	$\{x, y, R\}$	
4	$\{x, y, R\}$	
3	$\{x, y, R\}$	
1	$\{x, R\}$	
0	$\{I, R\}$	

The left-hand side of no assignment is **dead**

Caveat:

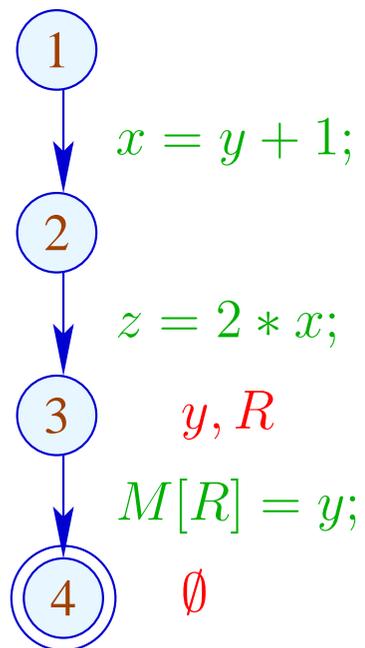
Removal of assignments to dead variables may kill further variables:



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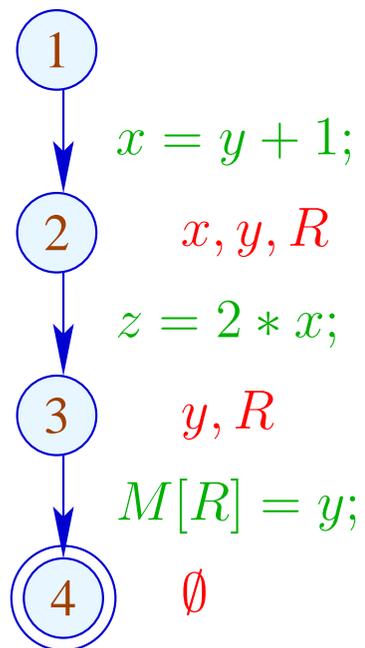
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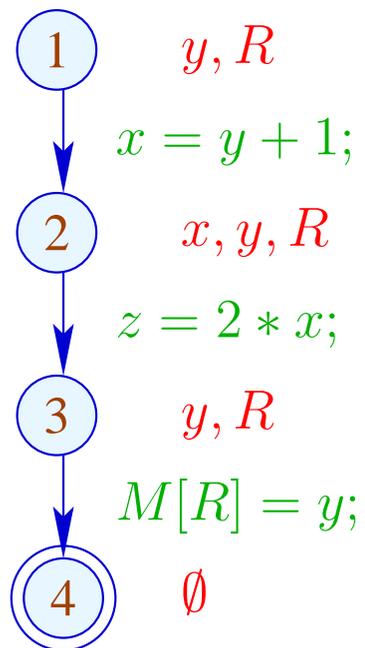
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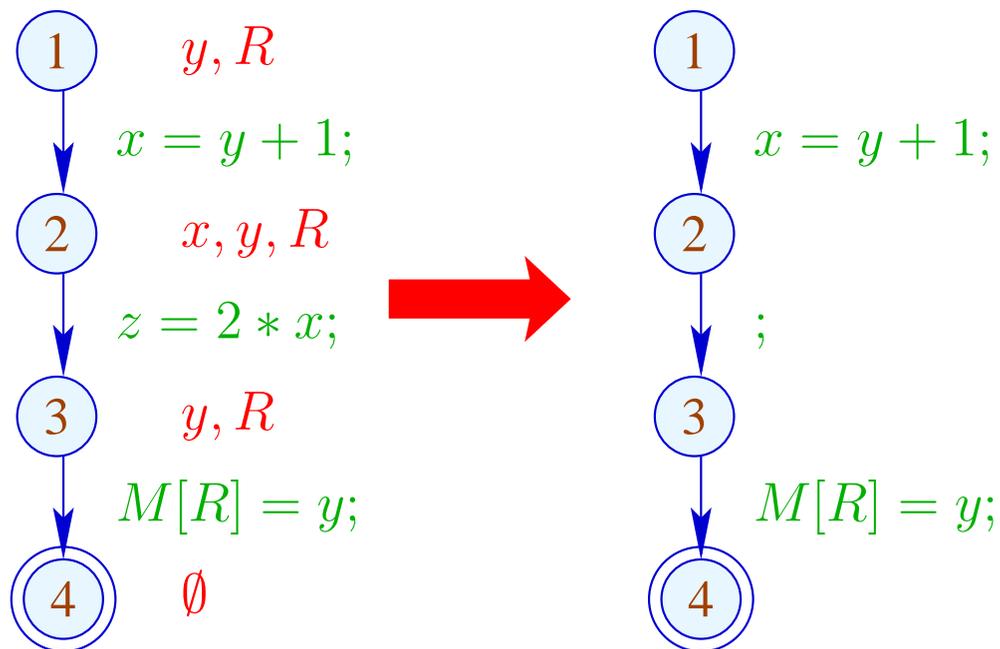
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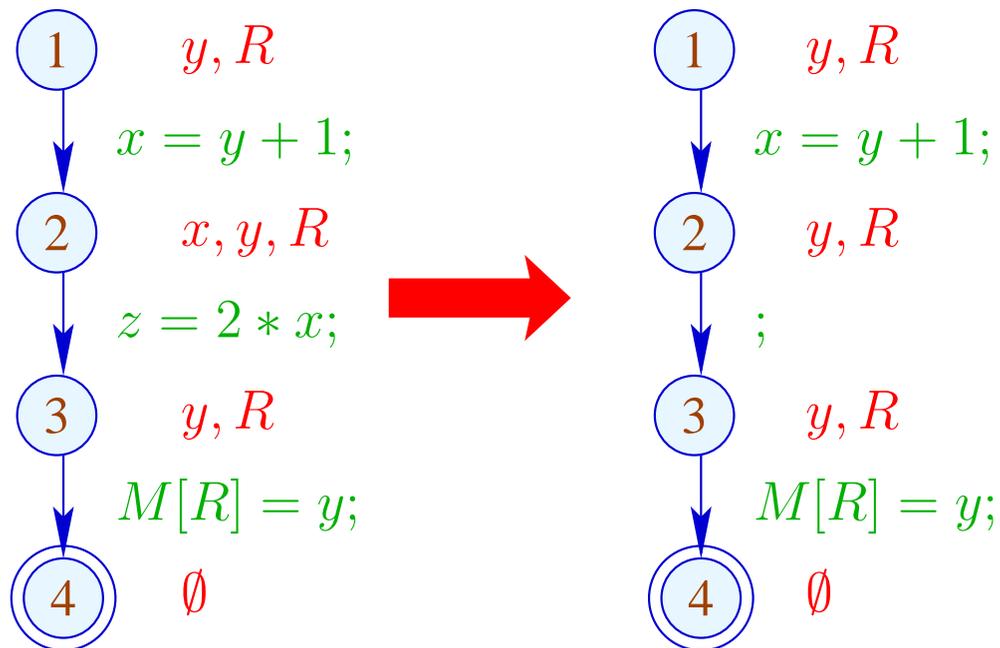
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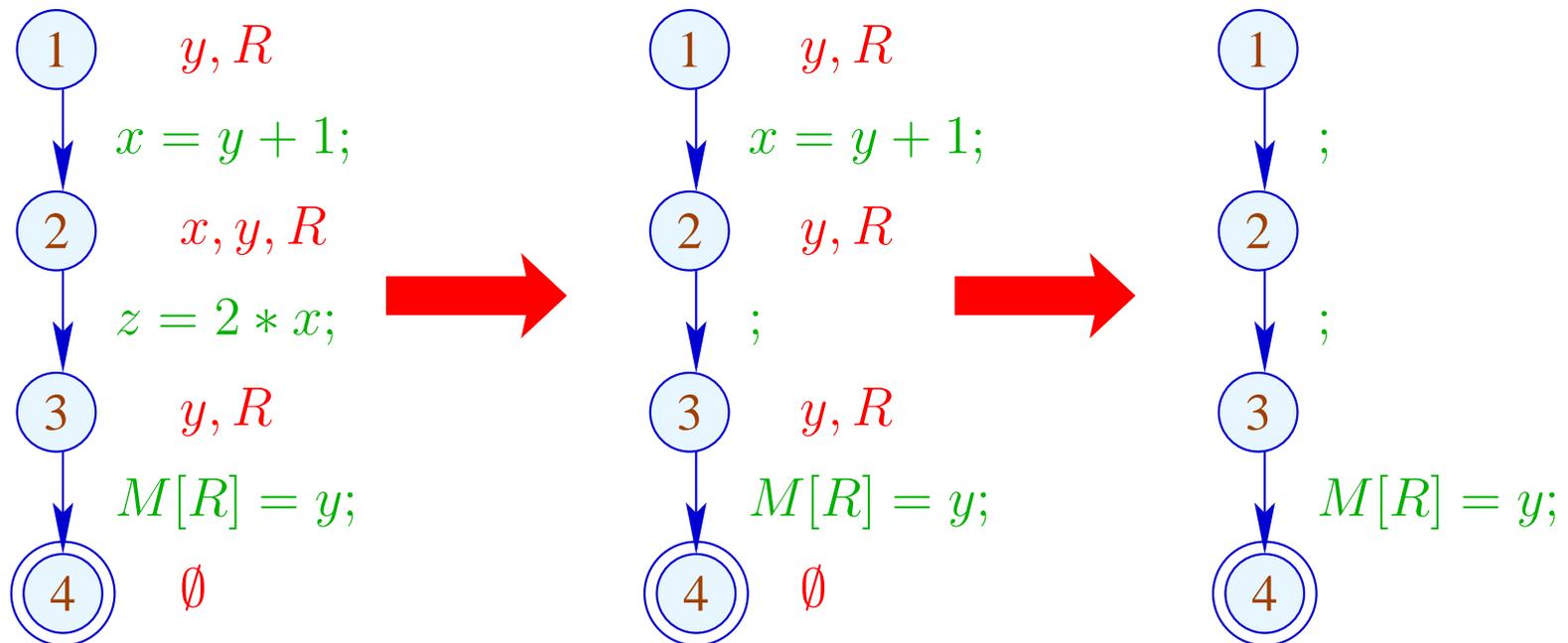
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Removal of assignments to dead variables may kill further variables:



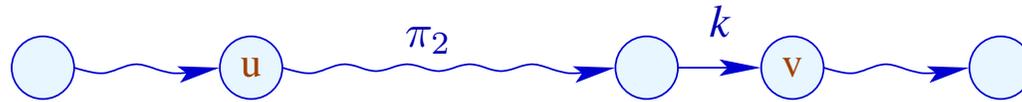
Re-analyzing the program is inconvenient

Idea: Analyze **true** liveness!

x is called **truly live** at u along a path π , either

if π can be decomposed into $\pi = \pi_1 k \pi_2$ such that:

- k is a **true** use of x ;
- π_1 does not contain any **definition** of x .

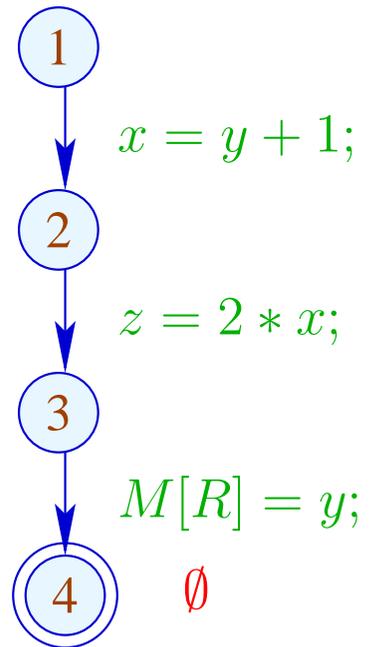


The set of truly used variables at an edge $k = (_, lab, v)$ is defined as:

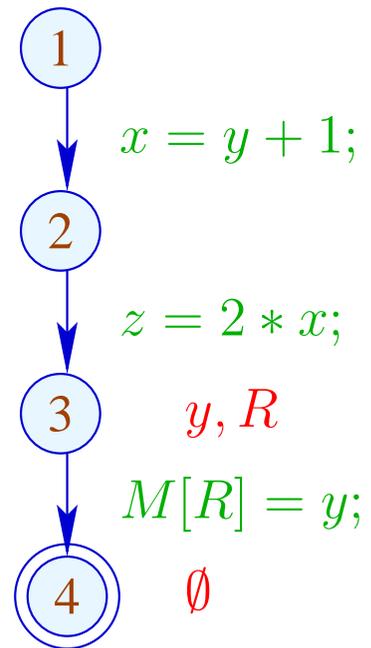
<i>lab</i>	truly used
;	\emptyset
true (<i>e</i>)	$Vars(e)$
false (<i>e</i>)	$Vars(e)$
$x = e;$	$Vars(e)$ (*)
$x = M[e];$	$Vars(e)$ (*)
$M[e_1] = e_2;$	$Vars(e_1) \cup Vars(e_2)$

(*) – given that x is truly live at v

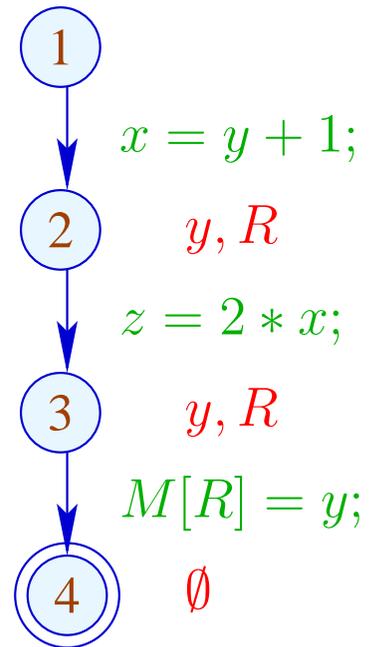
Example:



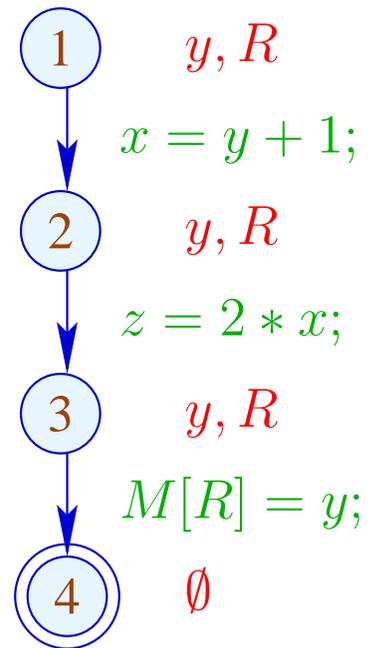
Example:



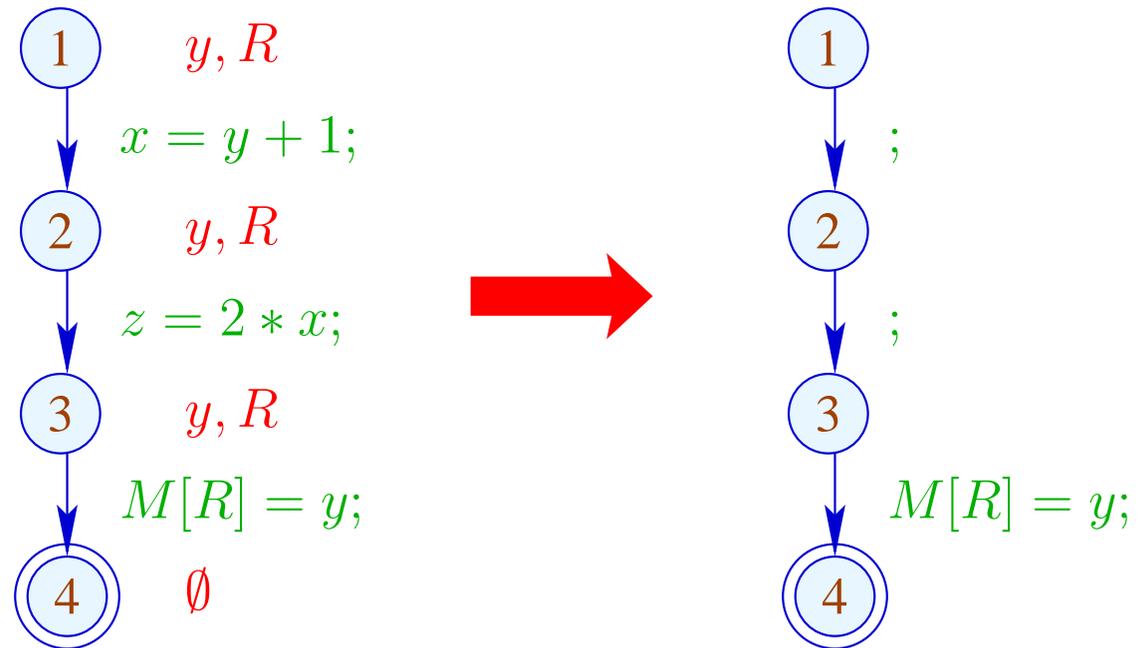
Example:



Example:



Example:



The Effects of Edges:

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket ; \rrbracket^\# L &= L \\ \llbracket \text{true}(e) \rrbracket^\# L &= \llbracket \text{false}(e) \rrbracket^\# L = L \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\ \llbracket x = e; \rrbracket^\# L &= (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\ \llbracket x = M[e]; \rrbracket^\# L &= (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\ \llbracket M[e_1] = e_2; \rrbracket^\# L &= L \cup \text{Vars}(e_1) \cup \text{Vars}(e_2) \end{aligned}$$

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Note:

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

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To see this, consider for $\mathbb{D} = 2^U$, $f y = (u \in y) ? b : \emptyset$ We verify:

$$\begin{aligned} f (y_1 \cup y_2) &= (u \in y_1 \cup y_2) ? b : \emptyset \\ &= (u \in y_1 \vee u \in y_2) ? b : \emptyset \\ &= (u \in y_1) ? b : \emptyset \cup (u \in y_2) ? b : \emptyset \\ &= f y_1 \cup f y_2 \end{aligned}$$

Note:

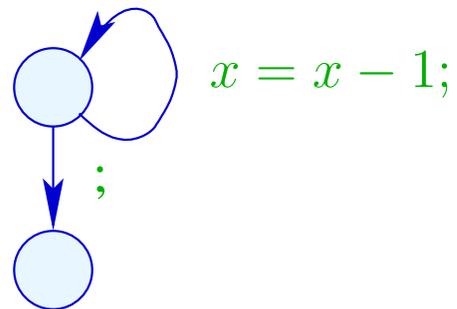
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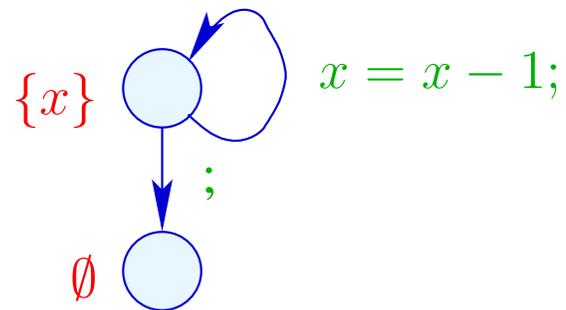
\implies the constraint system yields the **MOP**

- True liveness detects **more** superfluous assignments than repeated liveness !!!



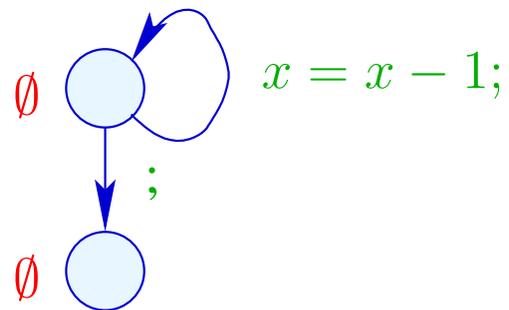
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Liveness:



- True liveness detects **more** superfluous assignments than repeated liveness !!!

True Liveness:



7 Interval Analysis

Constant propagation attempts to determine values of variables.

However, variables may take on several values during program execution.

So, *the value* of a variable will often be unknown.

Next attempt: determine an **interval** enclosing all possible values that a variable may take on during program execution at a program point.

Example:

```
for ( $i = 0; i < 42; i++$ )  
    if ( $0 \leq i \wedge i < 42$ ) {  
         $A_1 = A + i;$   
         $M[A_1] = i;$   
    }  
//  $A$  start address of an array  
// if-statement does array-bounds check
```

Obviously, the inner check is superfluous.

Idea 1:

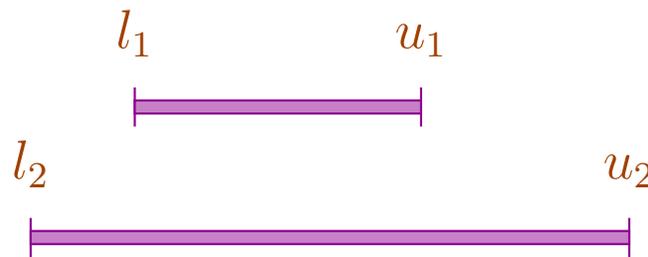
Determine for every variable x the tightest possible interval of potential values.

Abstract domain:

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

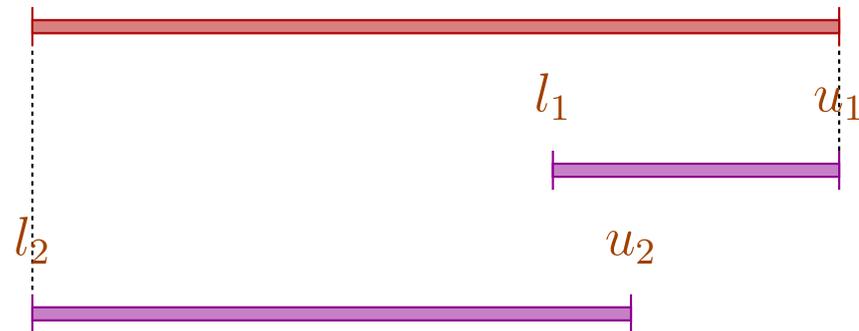
Partial order:

$$[l_1, u_1] \sqsubseteq [l_2, u_2] \quad \text{iff} \quad l_2 \leq l_1 \wedge u_1 \leq u_2$$



Thus:

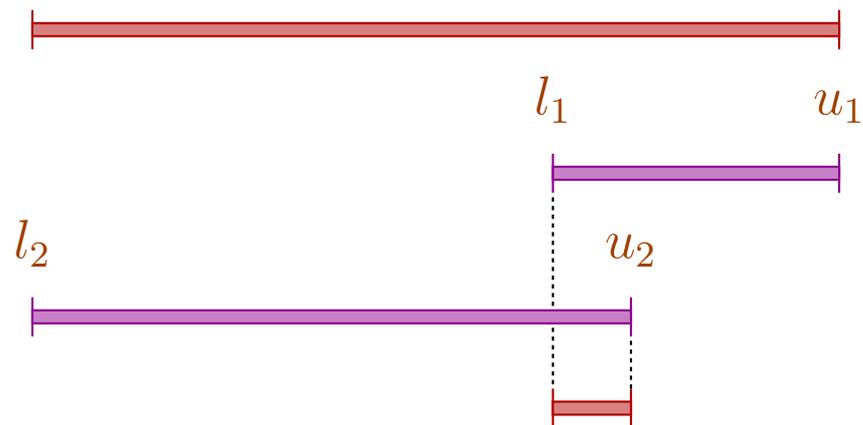
$$[l_1, u_1] \sqcup [l_2, u_2] = [l_1 \sqcap l_2, u_1 \sqcup u_2]$$



Thus:

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

$$[l_1, u_1] \sqcap [l_2, u_2] = [l_1 \sqcup l_2, u_1 \sqcap u_2] \quad \text{whenever } (l_1 \sqcup l_2) \leq (u_1 \sqcap u_2)$$



Caveat:

- \mathbb{R} is not a complete lattice,
- \mathbb{R} has **infinite ascending chains**, e.g.,

$$[0, 0] \subset [0, 1] \subset [-1, 1] \subset [-1, 2] \subset \dots$$

Caveat:

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

Description Relation:

$$z \Delta [l, u] \quad \text{iff} \quad l \leq z \leq u$$

Concretization:

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

Example:

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma[0, 7] &= \{0, \dots, 7\} \\ \gamma[0, \infty] &= \{0, 1, 2, \dots, \}\end{aligned}$$

Computing with intervals:

Interval Arithmetic.

Addition:

$$[l_1, u_1] +^\# [l_2, u_2] = [l_1 + l_2, u_1 + u_2] \quad \text{where}$$

$$-\infty + _ = -\infty$$

$$+\infty + _ = +\infty$$

// $-\infty + \infty$ cannot occur

Negation:

$$-\# [l, u] = [-u, -l]$$

Multiplication:

$$\begin{aligned} [l_1, u_1] *^\# [l_2, u_2] &= [a, b] \quad \text{where} \\ a &= l_1 l_2 \sqcap l_1 u_2 \sqcap u_1 l_2 \sqcap u_1 u_2 \\ b &= l_1 l_2 \sqcup l_1 u_2 \sqcup u_1 l_2 \sqcup u_1 u_2 \end{aligned}$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} [0, 2] *^\# [3, 4] &= [0, 8] \\ [-1, 2] *^\# [3, 4] &= [-4, 8] \\ [-1, 2] *^\# [-3, 4] &= [-6, 8] \\ [-1, 2] *^\# [-4, -3] &= [-8, 4] \end{aligned}$$

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

- 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:

$$[l_1, u_1] ==^\# [l_2, u_2] = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } l_1 = u_1 = l_2 = u_2 \\ \text{false} & \text{if } u_1 < l_2 \vee u_2 < l_1 \\ \top & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Equality:

$$[l_1, u_1] ==^\# [l_2, u_2] = \begin{cases} true & \text{if } l_1 = u_1 = l_2 = u_2 \\ false & \text{if } u_1 < l_2 \vee u_2 < l_1 \\ \top & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example:

$$[42, 42] ==^\# [42, 42] = true$$

$$[0, 7] ==^\# [0, 7] = \top$$

$$[1, 2] ==^\# [3, 4] = false$$

Less:

$$[l_1, u_1] <^\# [l_2, u_2] = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } u_1 < l_2 \\ \text{false} & \text{if } u_2 \leq l_1 \\ \top & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Less:

$$[l_1, u_1] <^{\#} [l_2, u_2] = \begin{cases} true & \text{if } u_1 < l_2 \\ false & \text{if } u_2 \leq l_1 \\ \top & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example:

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

$$[0, 7] <^{\#} [0, 7] = \top$$

$$[3, 4] <^{\#} [1, 2] = false$$

By means of \mathbb{I} we construct the complete lattice:

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

Description Relation:

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

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

$$(\llbracket e \rrbracket \rho) \Delta (\llbracket e \rrbracket^{\#} D) \quad \text{whenever} \quad \rho \Delta D$$

The Effects of Edges:

$$\begin{aligned}
 [;]^\# D &= D \\
 [x = e;]^\# D &= D \oplus \{x \mapsto [e]^\# D\} \\
 [x = M[e];]^\# D &= D \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\} \\
 [M[e_1] = e_2;]^\# D &= D \\
 [\text{true}(e)]^\# D &= \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if} & \text{definitely false} \\ D & \text{otherwise} & \text{possibly true} \end{cases} \\
 [\text{false}(e)]^\# D &= \begin{cases} D & \text{if} & \text{possibly false} \\ \perp & \text{otherwise} & \text{definitely true} \end{cases}
 \end{aligned}$$

... given that $D \neq \perp$

Better Exploitation of Conditions:

$$\llbracket \text{Pos}(e) \rrbracket^\# D = \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } \text{false} = \llbracket e \rrbracket^\# D \\ D_1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where :

$$D_1 = \begin{cases} D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap (\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# D)\} & \text{if } e \equiv x == e_1 \\ D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap [-\infty, u]\} & \text{if } e \equiv x \leq e_1, \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# D = [-, u] \\ D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap [l, \infty]\} & \text{if } e \equiv x \geq e_1, \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# D = [l, -] \end{cases}$$

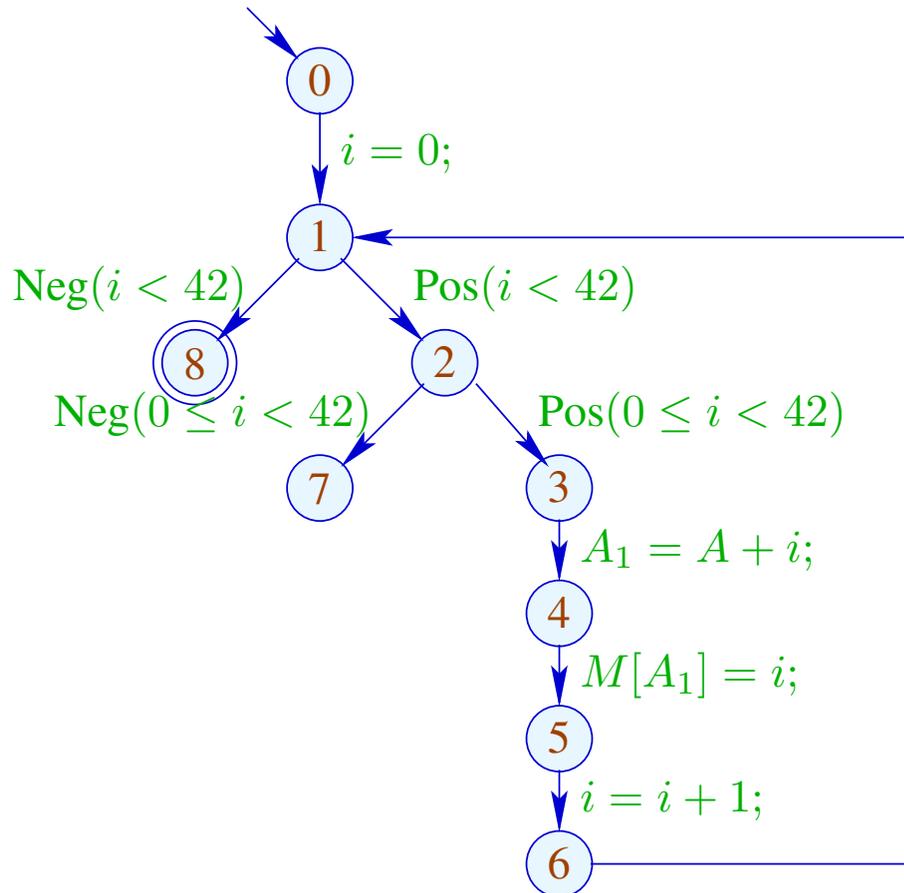
Better Exploitation of Conditions (cont.):

$$\llbracket \text{Neg}(e) \rrbracket^\# D = \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } \text{false} \not\sqsubseteq \llbracket e \rrbracket^\# D \\ D_1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where :

$$D_1 = \begin{cases} D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap (\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# D)\} & \text{if } e \equiv x \neq e_1 \\ D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap [-\infty, u]\} & \text{if } e \equiv x > e_1, \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# D = [-, u] \\ D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \sqcap [l, \infty]\} & \text{if } e \equiv x < e_1, \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# D = [l, -] \end{cases}$$

Example:



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

Problem:

- The solution can be computed with RR-iteration — after about 42 rounds.
- On some programs, iteration may **never** terminate.

Idea: Widening

Accelerate the iteration — at the **cost of precision**

Formalization of the Approach:

$$\text{Let } x_i \sqsupseteq f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (1)$$

denote a system of constraints over \mathbb{D}

Define an **accumulating** iteration:

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

We obviously have:

(a) \underline{x} is a solution of (1) iff \underline{x} is a solution of (2).

(b) The function $G : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ 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 $G^k \underline{\perp}$, $k \geq 0$, is an ascending chain:

$$\underline{\perp} \sqsubseteq G \underline{\perp} \sqsubseteq \dots \sqsubseteq G^k \underline{\perp} \sqsubseteq \dots$$

(d) If $G^k \underline{\perp} = G^{k+1} \underline{\perp} = \underline{y}$, then \underline{y} is a solution of (1).

(e) If \mathbb{D} has infinite strictly ascending chains, then (d) is not yet sufficient ...

but: we could consider the modified system of equations:

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

for a binary operation **widening**:

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

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

... for Interval Analysis:

- The complete lattice is: $\mathbb{D}_\perp = (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{I})_\perp$
- the widening \sqcup is defined by:

$$\perp \sqcup D = D \sqcup \perp = D \quad \text{and for } D_1 \neq \perp \neq D_2:$$

$$(D_1 \sqcup D_2) x = (D_1 x) \sqcup (D_2 x) \quad \text{where}$$

$$[l_1, u_1] \sqcup [l_2, u_2] = [l, u] \quad \text{with}$$

$$l = \begin{cases} l_1 & \text{if } l_1 \leq l_2 \\ -\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$u = \begin{cases} u_1 & \text{if } u_1 \geq u_2 \\ +\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$\implies \sqcup$ is not commutative !!!

Example:

$$[0, 2] \sqcup [1, 2] = [0, 2]$$

$$[1, 2] \sqcup [0, 2] = [-\infty, 2]$$

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

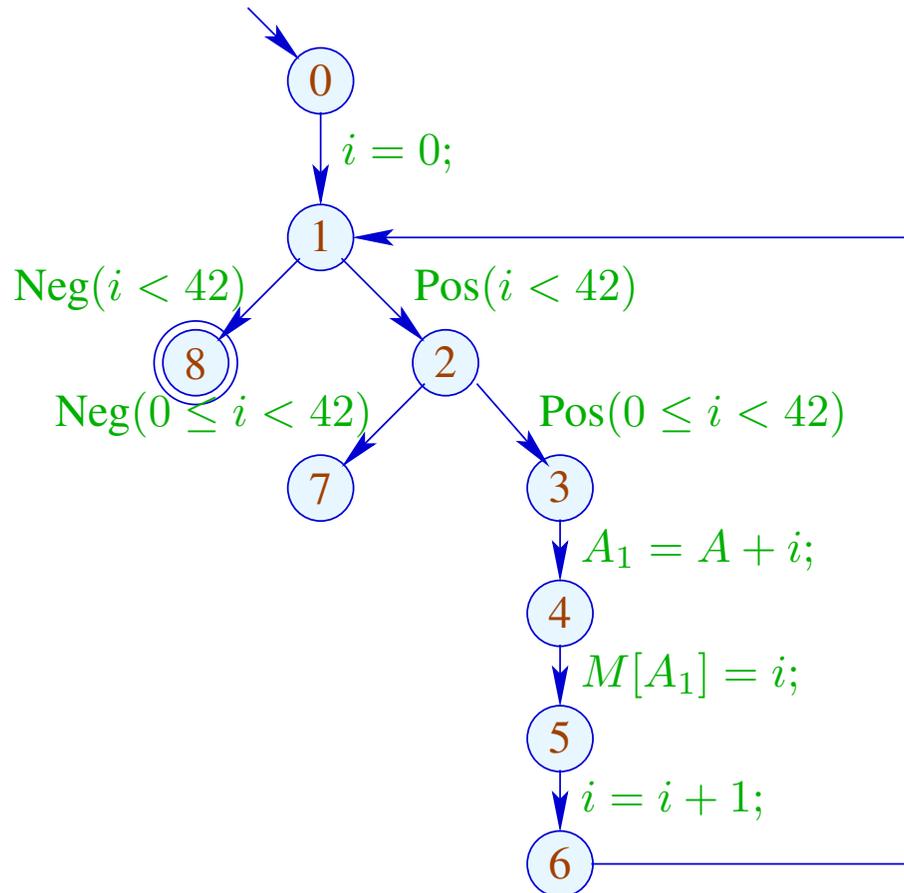
- Widening returns larger values **more quickly**.
- It should be constructed in such a way that termination of iteration is guaranteed.
- For interval analysis, widening bounds the number of iterations by:

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

Conclusion:

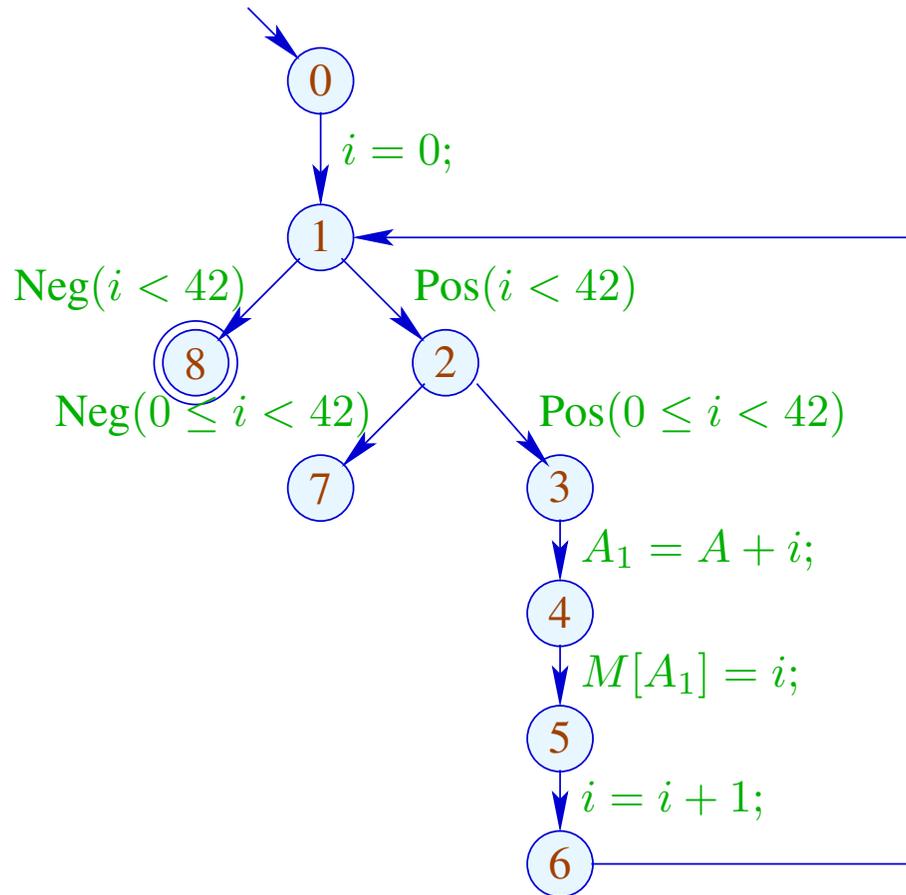
- In order to determine a solution of (1) over a complete lattice with infinite ascending chains, we define a suitable widening and then solve (3)
- **Caveat:** The construction of suitable widenings is a **dark art !!!**
Often \sqcup is chosen **dynamically** during iteration such that
 - the abstract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

Our Example:



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

... obviously, the result is disappointing.

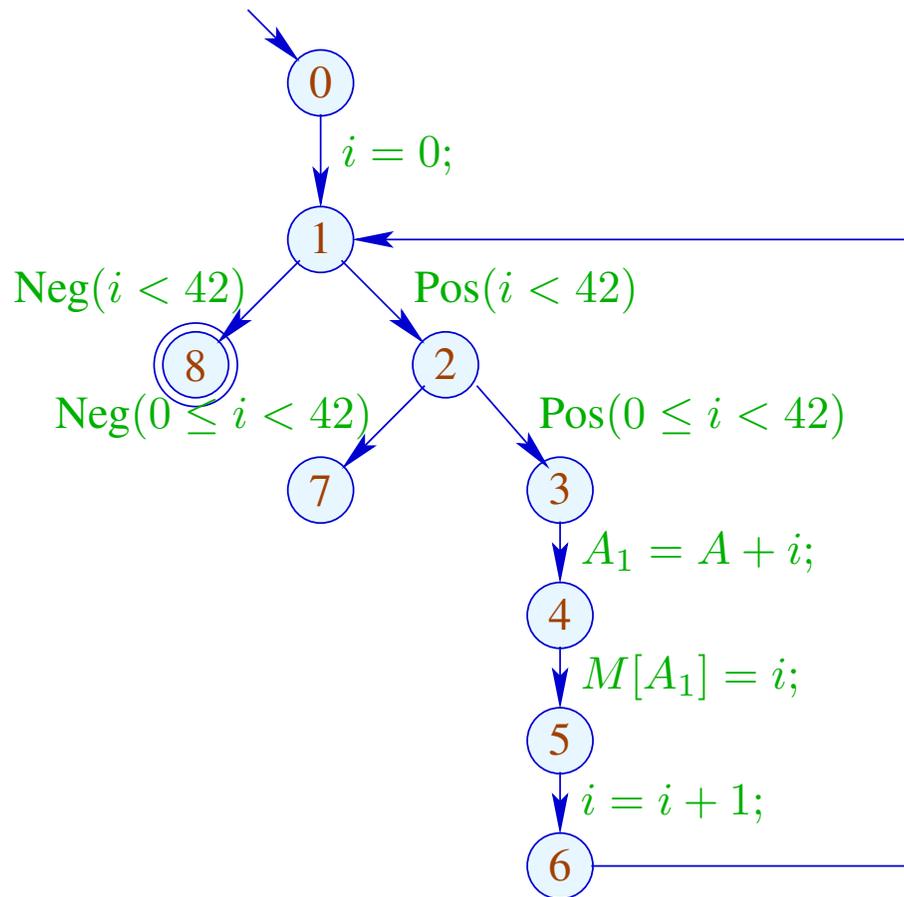
Idea 2:

In fact, acceleration with \sqsubseteq 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:

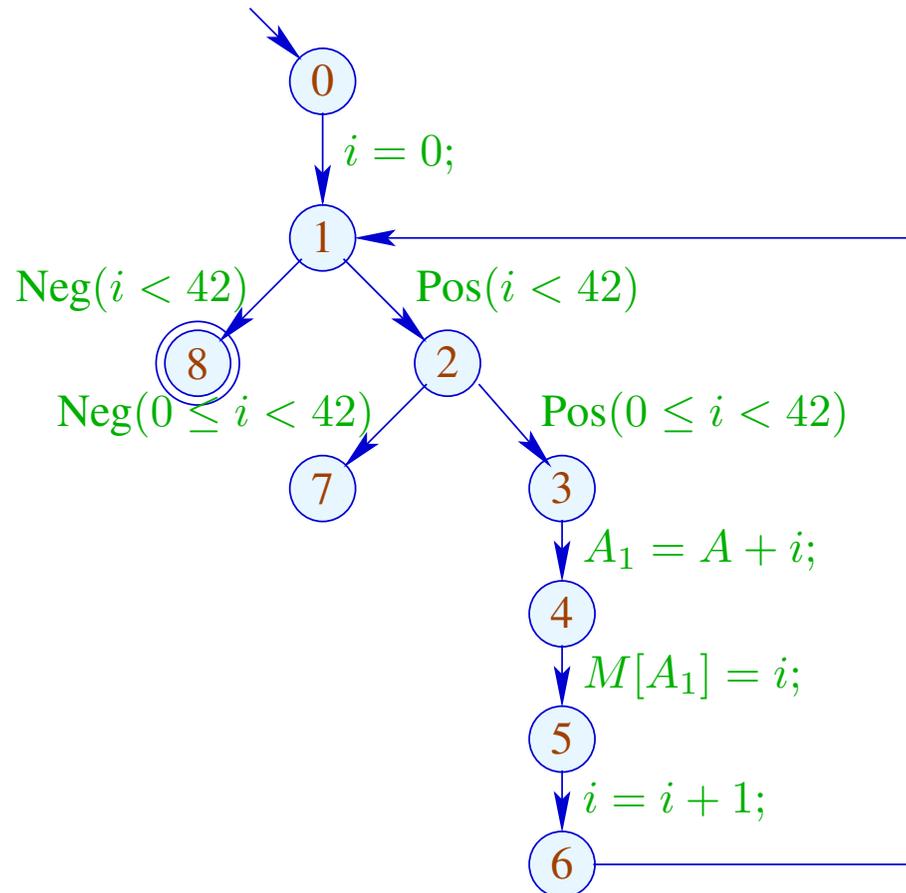


$$I_1 = \{1\} \quad \text{or:}$$

$$I_2 = \{2\} \quad \text{or:}$$

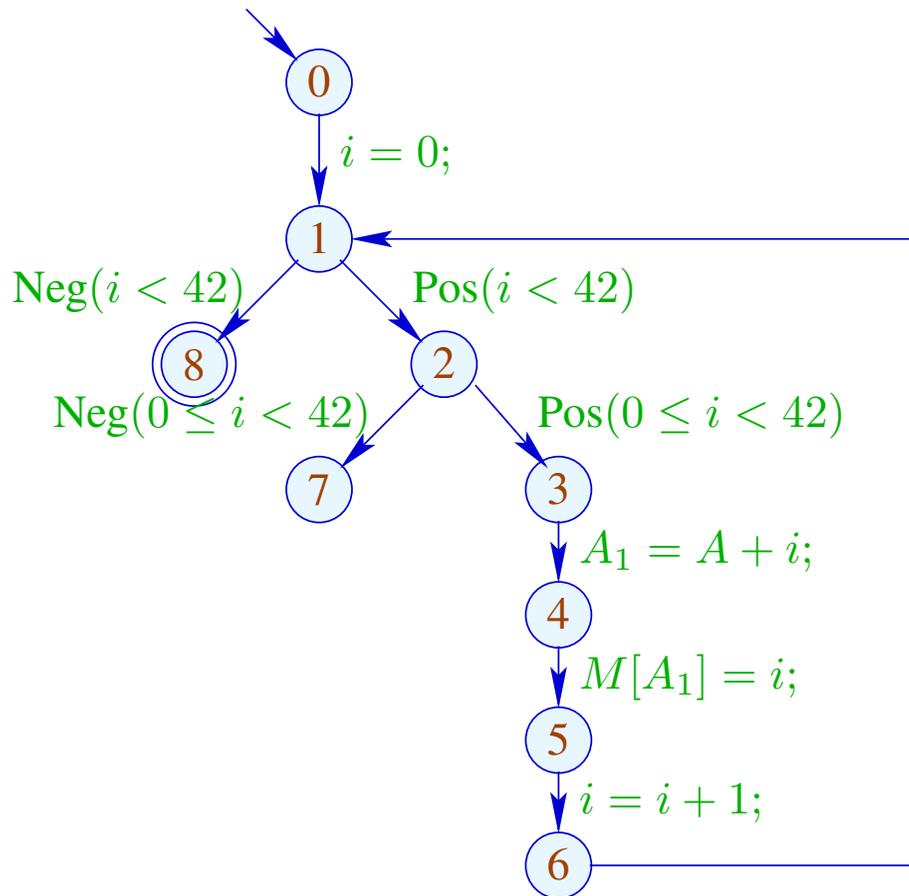
$$I_3 = \{3\}$$

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



	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	dito	
5	0	0	0	41		
6	1	1	1	42		
7	\perp		\perp			
8	\perp		42	$+\infty$		

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



	1		2		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	dito	
5	0	0	0	41	0	41		
6	1	1	1	42	1	42		
7	\perp		42	$+\infty$	42	$+\infty$		
8	\perp			\perp	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.,

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

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

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// Narrowing Iteration

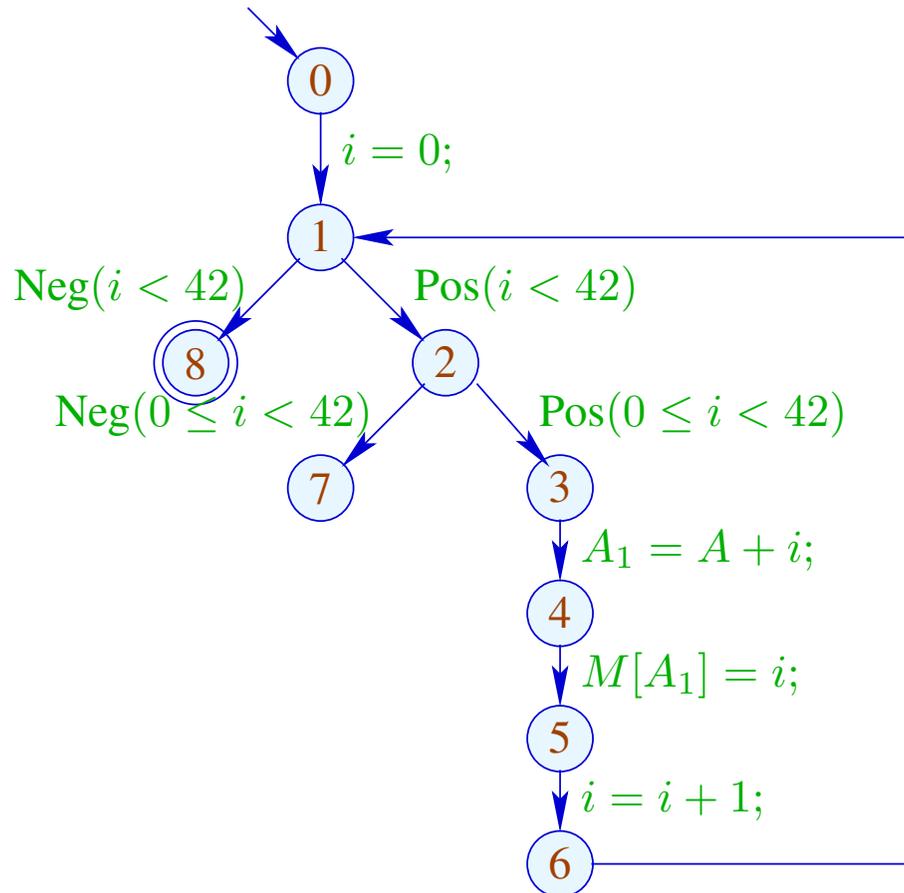
Every tuple $F^k \underline{x}$ is a solution of (1)



Termination is no problem anymore:
we stop whenever we want

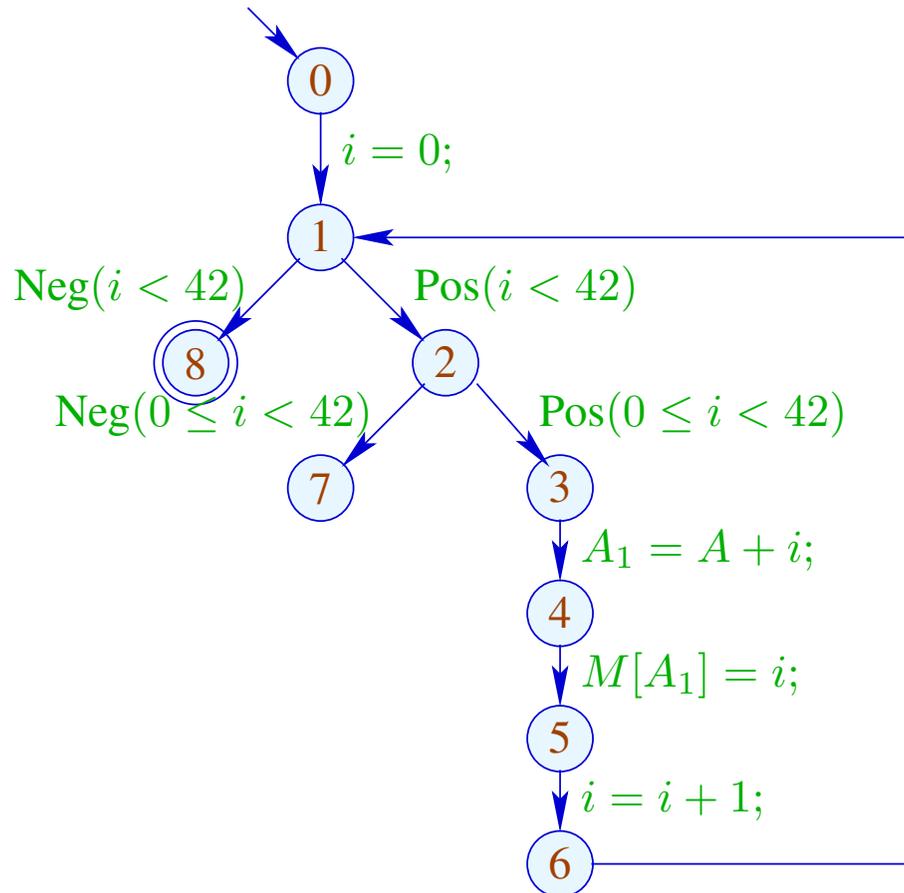
// The same also holds for RR-iteration.

Narrowing Iteration in the Example:



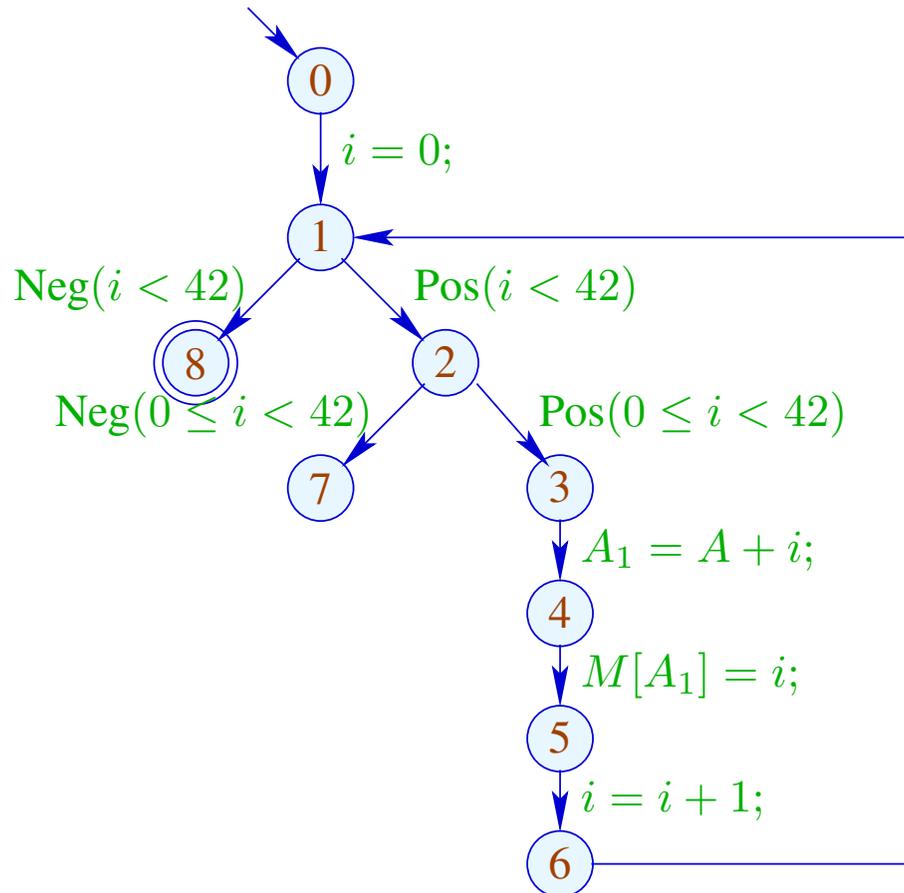
	0	
	l	u
0	$-\infty$	$+\infty$
1	0	$+\infty$
2	0	$+\infty$
3	0	$+\infty$
4	0	$+\infty$
5	0	$+\infty$
6	1	$+\infty$
7	42	$+\infty$
8	42	$+\infty$

Narrowing Iteration in the Example:



	0		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	$+\infty$		\perp
8	42	$+\infty$	42	$+\infty$

Narrowing Iteration 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	$+\infty$		\perp		\perp
8	42	$+\infty$	42	$+\infty$	42	42

Discussion:

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

Last Question: