

Program Analysis (70020)

Overview

Herbert Wiklicky

Department of Computing
Imperial College London

`herbert@doc.ic.ac.uk`
`h.wiklicky@imperial.ac.uk`

Autumn 2023

Lectures: 10 October until 23 November 2023

Lecture Theatre 145 on Tuesday (2pm-4pm)
and Thursday (9am-11am).

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Coursework Tests on 26 October and 21 November

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Material and Notes on

<https://www.doc.ic.ac.uk/~herbert/teaching.html>

Scientia, Panopto, etc.

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Examination: Week 11, **11-16 December 2023**

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Unfortunately, the achieving the aims of (static) program analysis tend to be computationally extremely hard.

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The approach is to find terminating algorithms for program analysis while not always finding a “meaningful” solution.

Fermat's Program – Terminates?

```
1: try ← true;
2: x ← 1;
3: while try do
4:   y ← 1;
5:   while  $y \leq x$  && try do
6:     z ← 1;
7:     while  $z \leq y$  && try do
8:       try ←  $x^3 + y^3 \neq z^3$ 
9:       z ← z + 1;
10:    end while
11:    y ← y + 1;
12:  end while
13:  x ← x + 1;
14: end while
```

Collatz Problem – Unknown

Take an integer x and compute a sequence of updates:

```
1: while  $x \neq 1$  do  
2:   if  $x \bmod 2 = 0$  then  
3:      $x \leftarrow x/2$ ;  
4:   else  
5:      $x \leftarrow 3 \times x + 1$   
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Currently it is unknown whether this terminates for **all** x .

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A First Example

Consider the following fragment in *some* procedural language.

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
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```

```
 $[m \leftarrow 2]^1$ ;  
while  $[n > 1]^2$  do  
    $[m \leftarrow m \times n]^3$ ;  
    $[n \leftarrow n - 1]^4$   
end while  
 $[\text{stop}]^5$ 
```

A First Example

Consider the following fragment in *some* procedural language.

1: $m \leftarrow 2$;	$[m \leftarrow 2]^1$;
2: while $n > 1$ do	while $[n > 1]^2$ do
3: $m \leftarrow m \times n$;	$[m \leftarrow m \times n]^3$;
4: $n \leftarrow n - 1$	$[n \leftarrow n - 1]^4$
5: end while	end while
6: stop	$[\mathbf{stop}]^5$

We annotate a program such that it becomes clear about what **program point** we are talking about.

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Claim: This program fragment always returns an **even** m , independently of the initial values of m and n .

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A **program analysis**, so-called parity analysis, can determine this by propagating the even/odd or *parity* information *forwards* from the start of the program.

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- ▶ **odd** — the value is known to be odd
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For both variables **m** and **n** we record its parity at each stage of the computation (beginning of each statement).

A First Example

Executing the program with *abstract* values, parity, for m and n .

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6: **stop**

▷ $\text{unknown}(m) - \text{unknown}(n)$

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▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)

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| 6: stop | ▷ even(m) – unknown(n) |

Important: We can restart the loop!

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The first program computes 2 times the factorial for any positive value of n . Replacing '2' by '1' in the first statement gives:

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i.e. the factorial – but then the program analysis is unable to tell us anything about the parity of m at the end of the execution.

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- ▶ m could be **odd** — if the input $n \leq 1$.

However, even if we fix/require the input to be positive and **even** — e.g. by some suitable conditional assignment — the program analysis still might not be able to accurately predict that m will be **even** at statement **5**.

Safe Approximations

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- ▶ **yes** means *definitely* yes,
- ▶ **no** means *maybe* no.

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The data flow analysis is usually specified as a set of **equations** which associate analysis information with program points which correspond to the nodes in the control flow graph. This information may be propagated *forwards* through the program (e.g. parity analysis) or *backwards*.

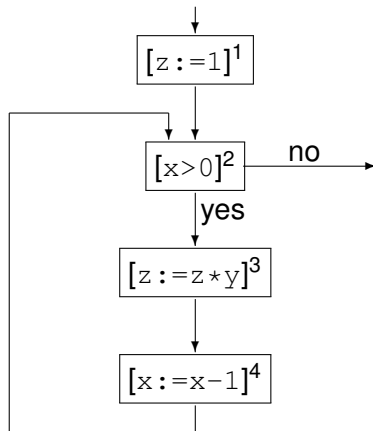
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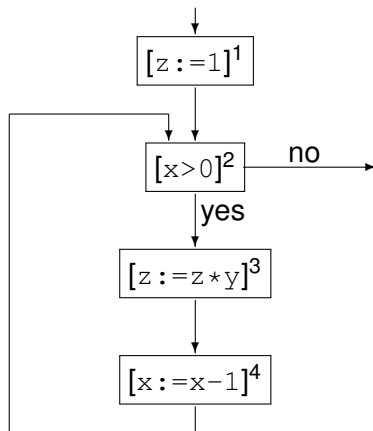
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When the control flow graph is not explicitly given, we need a preliminary **control flow analysis**

Control Flow Information



Control Flow Information



This allows us to determine the predecessors *pred* and successors *succ* of each statement, e.g. $pred(2) = \{1, 4\}$.

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Reaching Definition (*RD*) analysis determines which set of definitions (i.e. assignments) are current when control reaches a certain **program point** p .

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$$RD_{exit}(p) = (RD_{entry}(p) \setminus kill_{RD}(p)) \cup gen_{RD}(p)$$

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At each program point some definitions get “killed” (those which define the same variable as at the program point) while others are “generated”.

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A suitable representation for properties are sets of pairs, where each pair contains a variable x and a program point p : the meaning of the pair (x, p) is that the assignment to x at point p is the current one.

Analysis Information

At each program point some definitions get “killed” (those which define the same variable as at the program point) while others are “generated”.

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Reaching Definitions is a forward analysis and we require the least (most precise) solutions to the set of equations.

Equations & Solutions

For our initial program fragment

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[ $m \leftarrow 2$ ]1;  
while [ $n > 1$ ]2 do  
  [ $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ]3;  
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some of the *RD* equations we get are:

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	RD_{entry}	RD_{exit}
1	$\{(m, ?), (n, ?)\}$	$\{(m, 1), (n, ?)\}$
2	$\{(m, 1), (m, 3), (n, ?), (n, 4)\}$	$\{(m, 1), (m, 3), (n, ?), (n, 4)\}$
3	$\{(m, 1), (m, 3), (n, ?), (n, 4)\}$	$\{(m, 3), (n, ?), (n, 4)\}$
4	$\{(m, 3), (n, ?), (n, 4)\}$	$\{(m, 3), (n, 4)\}$
5	$\{(m, 1), (m, 3), (n, ?), (n, 4)\}$	$\{(m, 1), (m, 3), (n, ?), (n, 4)\}$

Solving Equations

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METHOD: Step 1: Initialisation
Step 2: Iteration

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- ▶ *Shape Analysis — Pointer Analysis — etc.*

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Code Optimisation

To illustrate the ideas we shall show how Reaching Definitions can be used to perform Constant Folding.

There are two ingredients to this:

- ▶ Replace the use of a variable in some expression by a constant if it is known that the value of that variable will always be a constant.
- ▶ Simplify an expression by partially evaluating it: subexpressions that contain no variables can be evaluated.

Constant Folding I

$$RD \vdash [x := a]^\ell \triangleright [x := a[y \mapsto n]]^\ell$$
$$\text{if } \begin{cases} y \in FV(a) \wedge (y, ?) \notin RD_{\text{entry}}(\ell) \wedge \\ \forall (y', \ell') \in RD_{\text{entry}}(\ell) : \\ y' = y \Rightarrow [\dots]^{\ell'} = [y := n]^{\ell'} \end{cases}$$

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$$RD \vdash [x := a]^\ell \triangleright [x := n]^\ell$$
$$\text{if } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} FV(a) = \emptyset \wedge a \text{ is not constant} \wedge \\ a \text{ evaluates to } n \end{array} \right.$$

Constant Folding II

$$\frac{RD \vdash S_1 \triangleright S'_1}{RD \vdash S_1; S_2 \triangleright S'_1; S_2}$$

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An Example

To illustrate the use of the transformation consider:

$$[x := 10]^1; [y := x + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3$$

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The (least) solution to the Reaching Definition analysis is:

$$RD_{entry}(1) = \{(x, ?), (y, ?), (z, ?)\}$$

$$RD_{exit}(1) = \{(x, 1), (y, ?), (z, ?)\}$$

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and therefore the rules for sequential composition allow us to do the following transformation:

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after which no more steps are possible.

Additional Issues

The above example shows that optimisation is in general the result of a number of successive transformations.

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It could also be the case that different sequences of transformations either lead to different end results or are of very different length.

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It requires formal (mathematical) proof whether an **analysis** (or **program transformation**) is **correct** with respect to some model of execution or semantics.

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This course will mostly be concerned with intuitive or light-weight semantics when it comes to the “meaning” of a program and the correctness of a program analysis.

Modelling and Specification

Architecture and Structural Engineering

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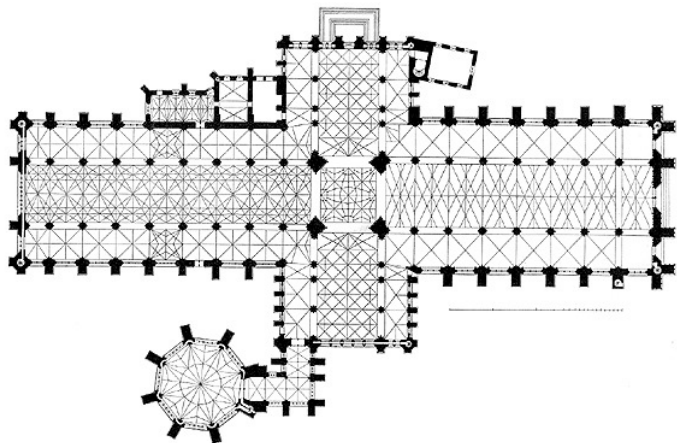


Figure: York Minster

Topics Covered – Executive Summary

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis

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- ▶ Monotone Frameworks

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