

Program Analysis (70020)

Overview

Herbert Wiklicky

Department of Computing
Imperial College London

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

Autumn 2024

Lectures: 8 October until 21 November 2024

Lecture Theatre 144 on Tuesday (11am-1pm)
and Thursday (9am-11am).

Lectures: 8 October until 21 November 2024

Lecture Theatre 144 on Tuesday (11am-1pm)
and Thursday (9am-11am).

Tutorials typically Tuesdays, second hour.

Lectures: 8 October until 21 November 2024

Lecture Theatre 144 on Tuesday (11am-1pm)
and Thursday (9am-11am).

Tutorials typically Tuesdays, second hour.

Coursework Tests likely 29 October and 19 November

Lectures: 8 October until 21 November 2024

Lecture Theatre 144 on Tuesday (11am-1pm)
and Thursday (9am-11am).

Tutorials typically Tuesdays, second hour.

Coursework Tests likely 29 October and 19 November

Material and Notes on

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

Scientia, Panopto, etc.

Lectures: 8 October until 21 November 2024

Lecture Theatre 144 on Tuesday (11am-1pm)
and Thursday (9am-11am).

Tutorials typically Tuesdays, second hour.

Coursework Tests likely 29 October and 19 November

Material and Notes on

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

Scientia, Panopto, etc.

Assessment

Lectures: 8 October until 21 November 2024

Lecture Theatre 144 on Tuesday (11am-1pm)
and Thursday (9am-11am).

Tutorials typically Tuesdays, second hour.

Coursework Tests likely 29 October and 19 November

Material and Notes on

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

Scientia, Panopto, etc.

Assessment

Coursework Test I: Tue 29 October, 11:00 [?]

Lectures: 8 October until 21 November 2024

Lecture Theatre 144 on Tuesday (11am-1pm)
and Thursday (9am-11am).

Tutorials typically Tuesdays, second hour.

Coursework Tests likely 29 October and 19 November

Material and Notes on

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

Scientia, Panopto, etc.

Assessment

Coursework Test I: Tue 29 October, 11:00 [?]

Coursework Test II: Tue 19 November, 11:00 [?]

Lectures: 8 October until 21 November 2024

Lecture Theatre 144 on Tuesday (11am-1pm)
and Thursday (9am-11am).

Tutorials typically Tuesdays, second hour.

Coursework Tests likely 29 October and 19 November

Material and Notes on

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

Scientia, Panopto, etc.

Assessment

Coursework Test I: Tue 29 October, 11:00 [?]

Coursework Test II: Tue 19 November, 11:00 [?]

Examination: Week 11, 9–13 December 2024

Program Analysis

Program analysis is an **automated** technique for finding out properties of programs **without** having to execute them.

Program Analysis

Program analysis is an **automated** technique for finding out properties of programs **without** having to execute them.

Static Analysis vs **Dynamic Testing**

Program Analysis

Program analysis is an **automated** technique for finding out properties of programs **without** having to execute them.

Static Analysis vs **Dynamic Testing**

- ▶ Compiler Optimisation

Program Analysis

Program analysis is an **automated** technique for finding out properties of programs **without** having to execute them.

Static Analysis vs **Dynamic Testing**

- ▶ Compiler Optimisation
- ▶ Program Verification

Program Analysis

Program analysis is an **automated** technique for finding out properties of programs **without** having to execute them.

Static Analysis vs **Dynamic Testing**

- ▶ Compiler Optimisation
- ▶ Program Verification
- ▶ Security Analysis

Program Analysis

Program analysis is an **automated** technique for finding out properties of programs **without** having to execute them.

Static Analysis vs **Dynamic Testing**

- ▶ Compiler Optimisation
- ▶ Program Verification
- ▶ Security Analysis

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

Program Properties

In some sense Program Analysis is an impossible task.

Program Properties

In some sense Program Analysis is an impossible task.

Decidable Problems There exists an algorithm or computational process which computes a solution (in finite time) for **all** instances of the problem.

Program Properties

In some sense Program Analysis is an impossible task.

Decidable Problems There exists an algorithm or computational process which computes a solution (in finite time) for **all** instances of the problem.

Halting Problem There is no general computational process or machine which can decide whether or not any given program **terminates**.

Program Properties

In some sense Program Analysis is an impossible task.

Decidable Problems There exists an algorithm or computational process which computes a solution (in finite time) for **all** instances of the problem.

Halting Problem There is no general computational process or machine which can decide whether or not any given program **terminates**.

Rice Theorem Any **non-trivial** program property is undecidable.

Program Properties

In some sense Program Analysis is an impossible task.

Decidable Problems There exists an algorithm or computational process which computes a solution (in finite time) for **all** instances of the problem.

Halting Problem There is no general computational process or machine which can decide whether or not any given program **terminates**.

Rice Theorem Any **non-trivial** program property is undecidable.

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:  $x \leftarrow 1$ ;  
3: while try do  
4:    $y \leftarrow 1$ ;  
5:   while  $y \leq x \ \&\& \ i do  
6:      $z \leftarrow 1$ ;  
7:     while  $z \leq y \ \&\& \ i do  
8:        $i \leftarrow x^3 + y^3 \neq z^3$   
9:        $z \leftarrow z + 1$ ;  
10:    end while  
11:     $y \leftarrow y + 1$ ;  
12:  end while  
13:   $x \leftarrow x + 1$ ;  
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:      $x \leftarrow 3 \times x + 1$   
6:   end if  
7: 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:      $x \leftarrow 3 \times x + 1$   
6:   end if  
7: end while
```

Currently it is unknown whether this terminates for **all** x .

Techniques

Some techniques used in program analysis include:

Techniques

Some techniques used in program analysis include:

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis

Techniques

Some techniques used in program analysis include:

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Control Flow Analysis

Techniques

Some techniques used in program analysis include:

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Control Flow Analysis
- ▶ Types and Effects Systems

Techniques

Some techniques used in program analysis include:

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Control Flow Analysis
- ▶ Types and Effects Systems
- ▶ Abstract Interpretation

Techniques

Some techniques used in program analysis include:

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Control Flow Analysis
- ▶ Types and Effects Systems
- ▶ Abstract Interpretation

Flemming Nielson, Hanne Riis Nielson and Chris Hankin:
Principles of Program Analysis. Springer Verlag, 1999/2005.

Techniques

Some techniques used in program analysis include:

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Control Flow Analysis
- ▶ Types and Effects Systems
- ▶ Abstract Interpretation

Flemming Nielson, Hanne Riis Nielson and Chris Hankin:
Principles of Program Analysis. Springer Verlag, 1999/2005.

Xavier Rival and Kwangkeun Yi: *Introduction to Static Analysis
– An Abstract Interpretation Perspective*. MIT Press, 2020.

Techniques

Some techniques used in program analysis include:

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Control Flow Analysis
- ▶ Types and Effects Systems
- ▶ Abstract Interpretation

Flemming Nielson, Hanne Riis Nielson and Chris Hankin:
Principles of Program Analysis. Springer Verlag, 1999/2005.

Xavier Rival and Kwangkeun Yi: *Introduction to Static Analysis
– An Abstract Interpretation Perspective*. MIT Press, 2020.

Patrick Cousot: *Principles of Abstract Interpretation*. 2021.

A First Example

Consider the following fragment in *some* procedural language.

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```


A First Example

Consider the following fragment in *some* procedural language.

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

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

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

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

A Parity Analysis

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

A Parity Analysis

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

We can **statically** determine that in any circumstances the value of m at the last statement will be **even** for any input n .

A Parity Analysis

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

We can **statically** determine that in any circumstances the value of m at the last statement will be **even** for any input n .

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.

Properties

We will assign to each variable one of three properties:

Properties

We will assign to each variable one of three properties:

- ▶ **even** — the value is known to be even

Properties

We will assign to each variable one of three properties:

- ▶ **even** — the value is known to be even
- ▶ **odd** — the value is known to be odd

Properties

We will assign to each variable one of three properties:

- ▶ **even** — the value is known to be even
- ▶ **odd** — the value is known to be odd
- ▶ **unknown** — the parity of the value is unknown

Properties

We will assign to each variable one of three properties:

- ▶ **even** — the value is known to be even
- ▶ **odd** — the value is known to be odd
- ▶ **unknown** — the parity of the value is unknown

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**.

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

A First Example

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

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

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

A First Example

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

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

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

A First Example

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

1: $m \leftarrow 2;$	▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)
2: while $n > 1$ do	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
3: $m \leftarrow m \times n;$	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
4: $n \leftarrow n - 1$	
5: end while	
6: stop	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)

A First Example

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

1: $m \leftarrow 2;$	▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)
2: while $n > 1$ do	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
3: $m \leftarrow m \times n;$	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
4: $n \leftarrow n - 1$	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
5: end while	
6: stop	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)

A First Example

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

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

```
▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
```


A First Example

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

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

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

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

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

A First Example

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

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1: $m \leftarrow 2;$ | ▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n) |
| 2: while $n > 1$ do | ▷ even(m) – unknown(n) |
| 3: $m \leftarrow m \times n;$ | ▷ even(m) – unknown(n) |
| 4: $n \leftarrow n - 1$ | |
| 5: end while | |
| 6: stop | ▷ even(m) – unknown(n) |

A First Example

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

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

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

A First Example

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

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

```
▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
```

A First Example

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

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

```
▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)  
  ▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
```

A First Example

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

1: $m \leftarrow 2;$	▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)
2: while $n > 1$ do	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
3: $m \leftarrow m \times n;$	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
4: $n \leftarrow n - 1$	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
5: end while	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)
6: stop	▷ even(m) – unknown(n)

Important: We can restart the loop!

A First Example

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

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 1$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

A First Example

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

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 1$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

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

A First Example

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

```
1:  $m \leftarrow 1$ ;  
2: while  $n > 1$  do  
3:    $m \leftarrow m \times n$ ;  
4:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$   
5: end while  
6: stop
```

▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)
▷ odd(m) – unknown(n)

A First Example

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

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1: $m \leftarrow 1$; | ▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n) |
| 2: while $n > 1$ do | ▷ odd(m) – unknown(n) |
| 3: $m \leftarrow m \times n$; | ▷ odd(m) – unknown(n) |
| 4: $n \leftarrow n - 1$ | |
| 5: end while | |
| 6: stop | ▷ odd(m) – unknown(n) |

A First Example

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

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1: $m \leftarrow 1$; | ▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n) |
| 2: while $n > 1$ do | ▷ odd(m) – unknown(n) |
| 3: $m \leftarrow m \times n$; | ▷ odd(m) – unknown(n) |
| 4: $n \leftarrow n - 1$ | ▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n) |
| 5: end while | |
| 6: stop | ▷ odd(m) – unknown(n) |

A First Example

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

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1: $m \leftarrow 1$; | ▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n) |
| 2: while $n > 1$ do | ▷ odd(m) – unknown(n) |
| 3: $m \leftarrow m \times n$; | ▷ odd(m) – unknown(n) |
| 4: $n \leftarrow n - 1$ | ▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n) |
| 5: end while | ▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n) |
| 6: stop | ▷ odd(m) – unknown(n) |

A First Example

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

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| 1: $m \leftarrow 1$; | ▷ $\text{unknown}(m) - \text{unknown}(n)$ |
| 2: while $n > 1$ do | ▷ $\text{unknown}(m) - \text{unknown}(n)$ |
| 3: $m \leftarrow m \times n$; | |
| 4: $n \leftarrow n - 1$ | |
| 5: end while | |
| 6: stop | ▷ $\text{odd}(m) - \text{unknown}(n)$ |

A First Example

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

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| 1: $m \leftarrow 1$; | ▷ $\text{unknown}(m) - \text{unknown}(n)$ |
| 2: while $n > 1$ do | ▷ $\text{unknown}(m) - \text{unknown}(n)$ |
| 3: $m \leftarrow m \times n$; | ▷ $\text{unknown}(m) - \text{unknown}(n)$ |
| 4: $n \leftarrow n - 1$ | |
| 5: end while | |
| 6: stop | ▷ $\text{unknown}(m) - \text{unknown}(n)$ |

A First Example

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

1: $m \leftarrow 1$;	▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)
2: while $n > 1$ do	▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)
3: $m \leftarrow m \times n$;	▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)
4: $n \leftarrow n - 1$	
5: end while	
6: stop	▷ unknown(m) – unknown(n)

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.

Loss of Precision

The analysis of the new program does not give a satisfying result because:

Loss of Precision

The analysis of the new program does not give a satisfying result because:

- ▶ m could be **even** — if the input $n > 1$, or

Loss of Precision

The analysis of the new program does not give a satisfying result because:

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

Loss of Precision

The analysis of the new program does not give a satisfying result because:

- ▶ m could be **even** — if the input $n > 1$, or
- ▶ 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

Such a loss of precision is a common feature of program analysis: many properties that we are interested in are essentially **undecidable** and therefore we cannot hope to detect (all of) them accurately.

Safe Approximations

Such a loss of precision is a common feature of program analysis: many properties that we are interested in are essentially **undecidable** and therefore we cannot hope to detect (all of) them accurately.

We only aim to ensure that the answers/results we obtain by program analysis are at least **safe**, i.e.

Safe Approximations

Such a loss of precision is a common feature of program analysis: many properties that we are interested in are essentially **undecidable** and therefore we cannot hope to detect (all of) them accurately.

We only aim to ensure that the answers/results we obtain by program analysis are at least **safe**, i.e.

► **yes** means *definitely* yes,

Safe Approximations

Such a loss of precession is a common feature of program analysis: many properties that we are interested in are essentially **undecidable** and therefore we cannot hope to detect (all of) them accurately.

We only aim to ensure that the answers/results we obtain by program analysis are at least **safe**, i.e.

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

Data Flow Analysis

The starting point for **data flow analysis** is a representation of the control flow graph of the program: the nodes of such a graph may represent individual statements – as in a flowchart – or sequences of statements; arcs specify how control may be passed during program execution.

Data Flow Analysis

The starting point for **data flow analysis** is a representation of the control flow graph of the program: the nodes of such a graph may represent individual statements – as in a flowchart – or sequences of statements; arcs specify how control may be passed during program execution.

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*.

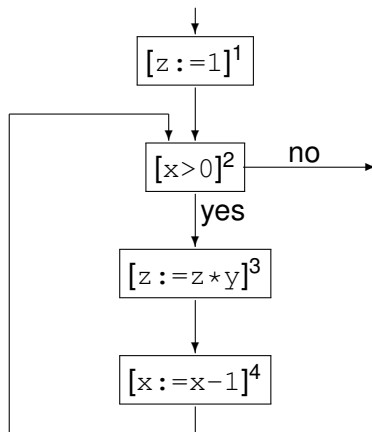
Data Flow Analysis

The starting point for **data flow analysis** is a representation of the control flow graph of the program: the nodes of such a graph may represent individual statements – as in a flowchart – or sequences of statements; arcs specify how control may be passed during program execution.

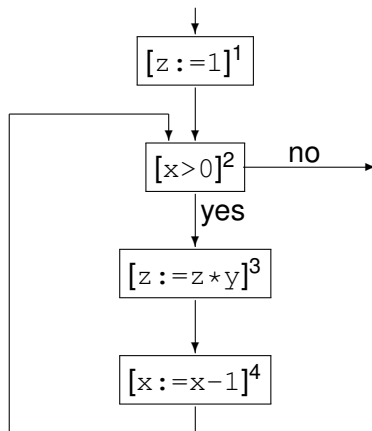
The data flow analysis is usually specified as a set of **equations** which associate analysis information with program points which correspond to the nodes in the control flow graph. This information may be propagated *forwards* through the program (e.g. parity analysis) or *backwards*.

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. $pred(2) = \{1, 4\}$.

Reaching Definition

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

Reaching Definition

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

The analysis can be specified by equations of the form:

Reaching Definition

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

The analysis can be specified by equations of the form:

$$RD_{entry}(p) = \begin{cases} RD_{init} & \text{if } p \text{ is initial} \\ \bigcup_{p' \in pred(p)} RD_{exit}(p') & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Reaching Definition

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

The analysis can be specified by equations of the form:

$$RD_{entry}(p) = \begin{cases} RD_{init} & \text{if } p \text{ is initial} \\ \bigcup_{p' \in pred(p)} RD_{exit}(p') & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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

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”.

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”.

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”.

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. The initial value in this case is:

$$RD_{init} = \{(x, ?) \mid x \text{ is a variable in the program}\}$$

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”.

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. The initial value in this case is:

$$RD_{init} = \{(x, ?) \mid x \text{ is a variable in the program}\}$$

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

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

Equations & Solutions

For our initial program fragment

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

some of the RD equations we get are:

$$\begin{aligned}RD_{entry}(1) &= \{(m, ?), (n, ?)\} \\RD_{entry}(2) &= RD_{exit}(1) \cup RD_{exit}(4)\end{aligned}$$

Equations & Solutions

$$\text{RD}_{\text{entry}}(1) = \{(m, ?), (n, ?)\}$$

$$\text{RD}_{\text{entry}}(2) = \text{RD}_{\text{exit}}(1) \cup \text{RD}_{\text{exit}}(4)$$

Equations & Solutions

$$RD_{entry}(1) = \{(m, ?), (n, ?)\}$$

$$RD_{entry}(2) = RD_{exit}(1) \cup RD_{exit}(4)$$

	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

How can we construct solution to the data flow equations?
Answer: Iteratively, by improving approximations/guesses.

Solving Equations

How can we construct solution to the data flow equations?
Answer: Iteratively, by improving approximations/guesses.

INPUT: Control Flow Graph
i.e. $\text{initial}(p)$, $\text{pred}(p)$.

Solving Equations

How can we construct solution to the data flow equations?
Answer: Iteratively, by improving approximations/guesses.

INPUT: Control Flow Graph
i.e. $\text{initial}(p)$, $\text{pred}(p)$.

OUTPUT: Reaching Definitions RD .

Solving Equations

How can we construct solution to the data flow equations?
Answer: Iteratively, by improving approximations/guesses.

INPUT: Control Flow Graph
i.e. $\text{initial}(p)$, $\text{pred}(p)$.

OUTPUT: Reaching Definitions RD .

METHOD: Step 1: Initialisation
Step 2: Iteration

Some Examples

Some examples of data flow analyses — and the possible applications and optimisations they allow for — are:

Some Examples

Some examples of data flow analyses — and the possible applications and optimisations they allow for — are:

- ▶ Reaching Definitions — Constant Folding

Some Examples

Some examples of data flow analyses — and the possible applications and optimisations they allow for — are:

- ▶ Reaching Definitions — Constant Folding
- ▶ Available Expressions — Avoid Re-computations

Some Examples

Some examples of data flow analyses — and the possible applications and optimisations they allow for — are:

- ▶ Reaching Definitions — Constant Folding
- ▶ Available Expressions — Avoid Re-computations
- ▶ Very Busy Expressions — Hoisting

Some Examples

Some examples of data flow analyses — and the possible applications and optimisations they allow for — are:

- ▶ Reaching Definitions — Constant Folding
- ▶ Available Expressions — Avoid Re-computations
- ▶ Very Busy Expressions — Hoisting
- ▶ Live Variables — Dead Code Elimination

Some Examples

Some examples of data flow analyses — and the possible applications and optimisations they allow for — are:

- ▶ Reaching Definitions — Constant Folding
- ▶ Available Expressions — Avoid Re-computations
- ▶ Very Busy Expressions — Hoisting
- ▶ Live Variables — Dead Code Elimination
- ▶ *Information Flow — Computer Security*

Some Examples

Some examples of data flow analyses — and the possible applications and optimisations they allow for — are:

- ▶ Reaching Definitions — Constant Folding
- ▶ Available Expressions — Avoid Re-computations
- ▶ Very Busy Expressions — Hoisting
- ▶ Live Variables — Dead Code Elimination
- ▶ *Information Flow — Computer Security*
- ▶ *(Probabilistic) Program Slicing*

Some Examples

Some examples of data flow analyses — and the possible applications and optimisations they allow for — are:

- ▶ Reaching Definitions — Constant Folding
- ▶ Available Expressions — Avoid Re-computations
- ▶ Very Busy Expressions — Hoisting
- ▶ Live Variables — Dead Code Elimination

- ▶ *Information Flow — Computer Security*
- ▶ *(Probabilistic) Program Slicing*
- ▶ *Shape Analysis — Pointer Analysis — etc.*

Code Optimisation

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

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:

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.

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

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

Constant Folding I

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

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

Constant Folding II

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

Constant Folding II

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

$$\frac{RD \vdash S_2 \triangleright S'_2}{RD \vdash S_1; S_2 \triangleright S_1; S'_2}$$

Constant Folding II

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

$$\frac{RD \vdash S_2 \triangleright S'_2}{RD \vdash S_1; S_2 \triangleright S_1; S'_2}$$

$$\frac{RD \vdash S_1 \triangleright S'_1}{RD \vdash \text{if } [b]^\ell \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \triangleright \text{if } [b]^\ell \text{ then } S'_1 \text{ else } S_2}$$

Constant Folding II

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

$$\frac{RD \vdash S_2 \triangleright S'_2}{RD \vdash S_1; S_2 \triangleright S_1; S'_2}$$

$$\frac{RD \vdash S_1 \triangleright S'_1}{RD \vdash \text{if } [b]^\ell \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \triangleright \text{if } [b]^\ell \text{ then } S'_1 \text{ else } S_2}$$

$$\frac{RD \vdash S_2 \triangleright S'_2}{RD \vdash \text{if } [b]^\ell \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \triangleright \text{if } [b]^\ell \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S'_2}$$

Constant Folding II

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

$$\frac{RD \vdash S_2 \triangleright S'_2}{RD \vdash S_1; S_2 \triangleright S_1; S'_2}$$

$$\frac{RD \vdash S_1 \triangleright S'_1}{RD \vdash \text{if } [b]^\ell \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \triangleright \text{if } [b]^\ell \text{ then } S'_1 \text{ else } S_2}$$

$$\frac{RD \vdash S_2 \triangleright S'_2}{RD \vdash \text{if } [b]^\ell \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \triangleright \text{if } [b]^\ell \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S'_2}$$

$$\frac{RD \vdash S \triangleright S'}{RD \vdash \text{while } [b]^\ell \text{ do } S \triangleright \text{while } [b]^\ell \text{ do } S'}$$

An Example

To illustrate the use of the transformation consider:

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

An Example

To illustrate the use of the transformation consider:

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

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

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

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

$$RD_{entry}(2) = \{(x, 1), (y, ?), (z, ?)\}$$

$$RD_{exit}(2) = \{(x, 1), (y, 2), (z, ?)\}$$

$$RD_{entry}(3) = \{(x, 1), (y, 2), (z, ?)\}$$

$$RD_{exit}(3) = \{(x, 1), (y, 2), (z, 3)\}$$

Constant Folding

We have for example the following:

$$RD \vdash [y := x + 10]^2 \triangleright [y := 10 + 10]^2$$

Constant Folding

We have for example the following:

$$RD \vdash [y := x + 10]^2 \triangleright [y := 10 + 10]^2$$

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

$$RD \vdash [x := 10]^1; [y := x + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \triangleright [x := 10]^1; [y := 10 + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3$$

Transformation

We can continue this kind of transformation and obtain:

Transformation

We can continue this kind of transformation and obtain:

$$RD \quad \vdash \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := x + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3$$

Transformation

We can continue this kind of transformation and obtain:

$$\begin{array}{l} RD \quad \vdash \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := x + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ \quad \triangleright \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := 10 + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \end{array}$$

Transformation

We can continue this kind of transformation and obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} RD \quad &\vdash \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := x + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := 10 + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := 20]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \end{aligned}$$

Transformation

We can continue this kind of transformation and obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} RD \quad &\vdash \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := x + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := 10 + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := 20]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := 20]^2; [z := 20 + 10]^3 \end{aligned}$$

Transformation

We can continue this kind of transformation and obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} RD \quad &\vdash \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := x + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := 10 + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := 20]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := 20]^2; [z := 20 + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright \quad [x := 10]^1; [y := 20]^2; [z := 30]^3 \end{aligned}$$

Transformation

We can continue this kind of transformation and obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} RD \quad &\vdash [x := 10]^1; [y := x + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright [x := 10]^1; [y := 10 + 10]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright [x := 10]^1; [y := 20]^2; [z := y + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright [x := 10]^1; [y := 20]^2; [z := 20 + 10]^3 \\ &\triangleright [x := 10]^1; [y := 20]^2; [z := 30]^3 \end{aligned}$$

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.

$$RD \vdash S_1 \triangleright S_2 \triangleright \dots \triangleright S_n.$$

Additional Issues

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

$$RD \vdash S_1 \triangleright S_2 \triangleright \dots \triangleright S_n.$$

This could be costly because once S_1 has been transformed into S_2 we might have to *re-compute* the Reaching Definition analysis before the next transformation step can be done.

Additional Issues

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

$$RD \vdash S_1 \triangleright S_2 \triangleright \dots \triangleright S_n.$$

This could be costly because once S_1 has been transformed into S_2 we might have to *re-compute* the Reaching Definition analysis before the next transformation step can be done.

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

Correctness

Any Program Analysis should be:

Correctness

Any Program Analysis should be:

- ▶ unambiguously **specified**,

Correctness

Any Program Analysis should be:

- ▶ unambiguously **specified**,
- ▶ efficiently **computable**,

Correctness

Any Program Analysis should be:

- ▶ unambiguously **specified**,
- ▶ efficiently **computable**,
- ▶ most importantly: **correct**.

Correctness

Any Program Analysis should be:

- ▶ unambiguously **specified**,
- ▶ efficiently **computable**,
- ▶ most importantly: **correct**.

For example, why not consider in RD before:

$$RD_{entry}(2) = RD_{exit}(1) \cap RD_{exit}(4)$$

instead of $RD_{entry}(2) = RD_{exit}(1) \cup RD_{exit}(4)$.

Correctness

Any Program Analysis should be:

- ▶ unambiguously **specified**,
- ▶ efficiently **computable**,
- ▶ most importantly: **correct**.

For example, why not consider in RD before:

$$RD_{entry}(2) = RD_{exit}(1) \cap RD_{exit}(4)$$

instead of $RD_{entry}(2) = RD_{exit}(1) \cup RD_{exit}(4)$.

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

Formal Semantics

A **program** is foremost a text but it has intended **meaning** or **semantics** describing its execution.

Formal Semantics

A **program** is foremost a text but it has intended **meaning** or **semantics** describing its execution.

A simple example: Why is $0.\dot{9} = 0.99999 \dots = 1$?

Formal Semantics

A **program** is foremost a text but it has intended **meaning** or **semantics** describing its execution.

A simple example: Why is $0.\dot{9} = 0.99999\dots = 1$?

Obviously, these are different strings! However, they have a meaning or semantics as specification of a real number in \mathbb{R} .

Formal Semantics

A **program** is foremost a text but it has intended **meaning** or **semantics** describing its execution.

A simple example: Why is $0.\dot{9} = 0.99999 \dots = 1$?

Obviously, these are different strings! However, they have a meaning or semantics as specification of a real number in \mathbb{R} . More concretely, infinite strings refer to the limit of their expansion, so $\llbracket 0.\dot{9} \rrbracket = \lim(0.9, 0.99, 0.999, \dots) = 1 = \llbracket 1 \rrbracket$.

Formal Semantics

A **program** is foremost a text but it has intended **meaning** or **semantics** describing its execution.

A simple example: Why is $0.\dot{9} = 0.99999 \dots = 1$?

Obviously, these are different strings! However, they have a meaning or semantics as specification of a real number in \mathbb{R} . More concretely, infinite strings refer to the limit of their expansion, so $\llbracket 0.\dot{9} \rrbracket = \lim(0.9, 0.99, 0.999, \dots) = 1 = \llbracket 1 \rrbracket$.

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

Modelling and Specification

Architecture and Structural Engineering

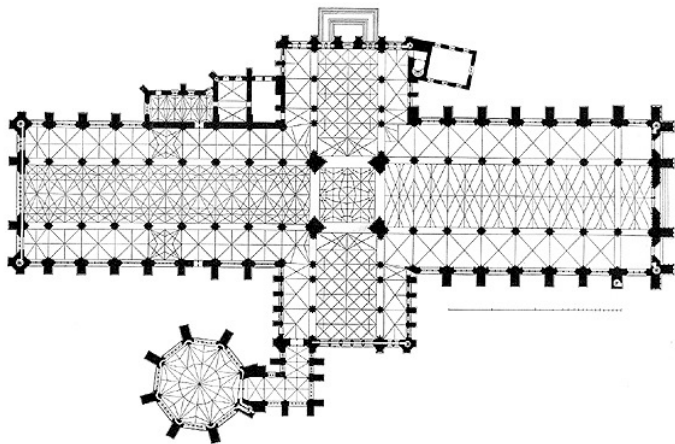


Figure: York Minster

Topics Covered – Executive Summary

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis

Topics Covered – Executive Summary

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Monotone Frameworks

Topics Covered – Executive Summary

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Monotone Frameworks
- ▶ Control Flow Analysis

Topics Covered – Executive Summary

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Monotone Frameworks
- ▶ Control Flow Analysis
- ▶ Abstract Interpretation

Topics Covered – Executive Summary

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Monotone Frameworks
- ▶ Control Flow Analysis
- ▶ Abstract Interpretation
- ▶ Probabilistic Programs

Topics Covered – Executive Summary

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Monotone Frameworks
- ▶ Control Flow Analysis
- ▶ Abstract Interpretation
- ▶ Probabilistic Programs
- ▶ Probabilistic Abstract Interpretation

Topics Covered – Executive Summary

- ▶ Data Flow Analysis
- ▶ Monotone Frameworks
- ▶ Control Flow Analysis
- ▶ Abstract Interpretation
- ▶ Probabilistic Programs
- ▶ Probabilistic Abstract Interpretation
- ▶ *Further Topics*