## Introduction to Program Analysis

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July 2017
CS 618 Intro to PA: About These Slides

## Copyright

These slides constitute the lecture notes for CS618 Program Analysis course at IIT Bombay and have been made available as teaching material accompanying the book:

- Uday Khedker, Amitabha Sanyal, and Bageshri Karkare.

Data Flow Analysis: Theory and Practice. CRC Press (Taylor and Francis Group). 2009.
(Indian edition published by Ane Books in 2013)
Apart from the above book, some slides are based on the material from the following books

- A. V. Aho, M. Lam, R. Sethi, and J. D. Ullman. Compilers: Principles, Techniques, and Tools. Addison-Wesley. 2006.
- M. S. Hecht. Flow Analysis of Computer Programs. Elsevier North-Holland Inc. 1977

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## Part 1

## About These Slides

## Motivating the Need of Program Analysis

- Some representative examples
- Classical optimizations performed by compilers
- Optimizing heap memory usage
- Course details, schedule, assessment policies etc
- Program Model
- Soundness and Precision

Part 2
Classical Optimizations



| 1. $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{m}-1$ <br> 2. $\mathrm{j}=\mathrm{n}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 12. } \mathrm{t} 5=\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{t} 4] \\ & \text { 13. if } \mathrm{t} 5>\mathrm{v} \text { goto } 10 \end{aligned}$ | 23. $a[t 4]=x$ <br> 24. goto 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3. $\mathrm{t} 1=4 * \mathrm{n}$ | 14. if $\mathrm{i}>=\mathrm{j}$ goto 25 | 25. $\mathrm{t} 2=4 * \mathrm{i}$ |
| 4. $\mathrm{t} 6=\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{t} 1]$ <br> 5. $\mathrm{v}=\mathrm{t} 6$ | 15. $\mathrm{t} 2=4 * \mathrm{i}$ 16. $\mathrm{t} 3=\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{t} 2]$ | 26. $\mathrm{t} 3=\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{t} 2]$ <br> 27. $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{t} 3$ |
| 6. $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{i}+1$ <br> 7. $\mathrm{t} 2=4 * \mathrm{i}$ | 17. $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{t} 3$ | 28. $\mathrm{t} 2=4 * \mathrm{i}$ |
| 7. $\mathrm{t} 2=4 * i$ | 18. $\mathrm{t} 2=4 * \mathrm{i}$ | 29. $\mathrm{t} 1=4 * \mathrm{n}$ |
| 8. $\mathrm{t} 3=\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{t} 2]$ | 19. $\mathrm{t} 4=4 * \mathrm{j}$ | 30. $\mathrm{t} 6=\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{t} 1]$ |
| 9. if $\mathrm{t} 3<\mathrm{v}$ goto 6 | 20. $\mathrm{t} 5=\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{t} 4]$ | 31. $\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{t} 2]=\mathrm{t} 6$ |
| 10. $\mathrm{j}=\mathrm{j}-1$ | 21. $\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{t} 2]=\mathrm{t} 5$ | 32. $\mathrm{t} 1=4 * \mathrm{n}$ |
| 11. $\mathrm{t} 4=4 * \mathrm{j}$ | 22. $\mathrm{t} 4=4 * \mathrm{j}$ | 33. $\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{t} 1]=\mathrm{x}$ |


| Nesting Level | Basic Blocks | No. of Statements |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | B1, B6 | 14 |
| 1 | B4, B5 | 11 |
| 2 | B2, B3 | 8 |



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| Nesting Level | No. of Statements |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Original | Optimized |
| 0 | 14 | 10 |
| 1 | 11 | 4 |
| 2 | 8 | 6 |

If we assume that a loop is executed 10 times, then the number of computations saved at run time

$$
=(14-10)+(11-4) \times 10+(8-6) \times 10^{2}=4+70+200=274
$$

- Optimizations are transformations based on some information.
- Systematic analysis required for deriving the information.
- We have looked at data flow optimizations.

Many control flow optimizations can also be performed.

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|  | Categories of Optimizing Transformations and Analyses |  |  |  |
|  | Code Motion Redundancy Elimination Control flow Optimization | Machine Independent | Flow Analysis (Data + Control) |  |
|  | Loop Transformations | Machine Dependent | Dependence Analysis (Data + Control) |  |
|  | Instruction Scheduling Register Allocation Peephole Optimization | Machine Dependent | Several Independent Techniques |  |
|  | Vectorization Parallelization | Machine Dependent | Dependence Analysis (Data + Control) |  |
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|  | What is Program Analysis? |  |

Discovering information about a given program

- Representing the dynamic behaviour of the program
- Most often obtained without executing the program
- Static analysis Vs. Dynamic Analysis
- Example of loop tiling for parallelization
- Must represent all execution instances of the program



## Part 3

## Optimizing Heap Memory Usage

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Managing Heap Memory

Decision 1: When to Allocate?

- Explicit. Specified in the programs. (eg. Imperative/OO languages)
- Implicit. Decided by the language processors. (eg. Declarative Languages)

Decision 2: When to Deallocate?

- Explicit. Manual Memory Management (eg. $\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C}++$ )
- Implicit. Automatic Memory Management aka Garbage Collection (eg. Java/Declarative languages)






Make the unused memory unreachable by setting references to NULL. (GC
FAQ: http://www.iecc.com/gclist/GC-harder.html)


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Distinguishing Between Reachable and Live

The state of art

- Eliminating objects reachable from root variables which are not live.
- Implemented in current Sun JVMs.
- Uses liveness data flow analysis of root variables (stack data).
- What about liveness of heap data?

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The Moral of the Story

- Mappings between access expressions and I-values keep changing
- This is a rule for heap data

For stack and static data, it is an exception!

- Static analysis of programs has made significant progress for stack and static data.

What about heap data?

- Given two access expressions at a program point, do they have the same l-value?
- Given the same access expression at two program points, does it have the same I-value?


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## Our Solution

$y=z=$ null
$1 \mathrm{w}=\mathrm{x}$
$\mathrm{w}=$ null
2 while (x.data < max)
\{ $\quad$.lptr $=$ null
3

$$
x=\text { x.rptr }
$$

$\mathrm{x} . \mathrm{rptr}=\mathrm{x}$. lptr.rptr $=$ null x.lptr.lptr.lptr $=$ null x.lptr.lptr.rptr $=$ null
$4 y=x . l p t r$

$$
\text { x.lptr }=\text { y.rptr }=\text { null }
$$

y.lptr.lptr $=$ y.lptr.rptr $=$ null

5 z = New class_of_z z.lptr $=$ z.rptr $=$ null
$6 \mathrm{y}=\mathrm{y} . \mathrm{lptr}$
y.lptr $=\mathrm{y} \cdot \mathrm{rptr}=$ null

7 z.sum $=x$.data $+y$.data $x=y=z=$ null

While loop is executed twice


```
y=z=null
```

```
y=z=null
```

$1 \mathrm{w}=\mathrm{x}$
$\mathrm{w}=$ null
2 while (x.data < max)
\{ $\quad x . l p t r=$ null
$3 \quad \mathrm{x}=\mathrm{x} . \mathrm{rptr}$ $\mathrm{x} \cdot \mathrm{rptr}=\mathrm{x} . \mathrm{Iptr} . \mathrm{rptr}=$ null x.lptr.lptr.lptr = null x.lptr.|ptr.rptr $=$ null

4 y = x.lptr
$\mathrm{x} \cdot \mathrm{lptr}=\mathrm{y} \cdot \mathrm{rptr}=\mathrm{null}$ y.lptr.lptr $=$ y.lptr.rptr $=$ null

5 z = New class_of_z z.lptr $=$ z.rptr $=$ null
$6 \mathrm{y}=\mathrm{y} \cdot \mathrm{Iptr}$
y.lptr $=\mathrm{y} \cdot \mathrm{rptr}=$ null

7 z.sum $=x$.data $+y$.data
$x=y=z=$ null

## Some Observations

$y=z=$ null
$1 \mathrm{w}=\mathrm{x}$
$\mathrm{w}=$ null
2 while (x.data < max)
\{ $\quad$ x.lptr $=$ null
3

$$
x=x . r p t r
$$

$\mathrm{x} . \mathrm{rptr}=\mathrm{x} . \mathrm{lptr} . \mathrm{rptr}=$ null
x.lptr.lptr.|ptr = null x.lptr.lptr.rptr $=$ null
$4 y=x . l p t r$
$\mathrm{x} \cdot \mathrm{lptr}=\mathrm{y} \cdot \mathrm{rptr}=$ null
y.lptr.lptr $=\mathrm{y} . \mathrm{lptr} . \mathrm{rptr}=$ null

5 z = New class_of_z
z.lptr $=$ z.rptr $=$ null
$6 \mathrm{y}=\mathrm{y} . \mathrm{lptr}$
y.lptr $=\mathrm{y} \cdot \mathrm{rptr}=$ null

7 z.sum $=x$.data + y.data $x=y=z=$ null

- The memory address that $x$ holds when the execution reaches a given program point is not an invariant of program execution
- Whether we dereference lptr out of $x$ or rptr out of $x$ at a given program point is an invariant of program execution
- A static analysis can discover only some invariants

$y=z=$ null
$1 \mathrm{w}=\mathrm{x}$
$\mathrm{w}=$ null
2 while (x.data < max)
\{ $\quad \mathrm{x} . \mathrm{lptr}=$ null
x $=\mathrm{x}$. rptr $\mathrm{x} . \mathrm{rptr}=\mathrm{x} . \mathrm{lptr} . \mathrm{rptr}=$ null x.lptr.lptr.lptr $=$ null x.lptr.lptr.rptr $=$ null

4 y = x.lptr x.lptr $=\mathrm{y} . \mathrm{rptr}=$ null y.lptr.lptr $=$ y.lptr.rptr $=$ null

5 z = New class_of_z z.lptr $=$ z.rptr $=$ null
$6 \mathrm{y}=\mathrm{y} \cdot \mathrm{lptr}$
y.lptr $=y . r p t r=$ null

7 z.sum $=x$. data $+y$.data $x=y=z=$ null

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## Some Observations

```
y=z=null
```



## Some Observations

$1 \mathrm{w}=$

## $w=$ null

2 while (x.data < max)
\{ $\quad$.lptr $=$ null
3

$$
x=x \cdot r p t r
$$

$\mathrm{x} . \mathrm{rptr}=\mathrm{x} . \mathrm{lptr} . \mathrm{rptr}=$ null x.lptr.lptr.lptr = null x.lptr.lptr.rptr $=$ null
$4 \mathrm{y}=\mathrm{x}$. Iptr
x.lptr $=\mathrm{y}$. rptr $=$ null y.lptr.lptr $=$ y.lptr.rptr $=$ null

5 z = New class_of_z z.lptr $=$ z.rptr $=$ null
$6 y=y \cdot l p t r$
y.lptr $=\mathrm{y} . \mathrm{rptr}=$ null

7 z.sum $=x$. data $+y$.data $x=y=z=$ null


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## The Main Theme of the Course

Constructing | suitable abstractions for |
| :--- |
| sound \& precise modelling of |
|  |
| runtime behaviour of programs |
| efficiently |






Intro to PA: Course Details

## Assessment Scheme

- Tentative plan

| Mid Semester Examination | $30 \%$ |
| :--- | ---: |
| End Semester Examination | $40 \%$ |
| Two Quizzes | $10 \%$ |
| Project | $20 \%$ |
| Total | $100 \%$ |

- Can be fine tuned based on the class feedback
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## Program Representation

- Three address code statements
- Result, operator, operand1, operand2
- Assignments, expressions, conditional jumps
- Initially only scalars

Pointers, structures, arrays modelled later

- Control flow graph representation
- Nodes represent maximal groups of statements devoid of any control transfer except fall through
- Edges represent control transfers across basic blocks
- A unique Start node and a unique End node

Every node reachable from Start, and End reachable from every node

- Initially only intraprocedural programs

Function calls brought in later

Intro to PA: Program Model

## An Example Program

## Program Model

## int main()

$$
\{\text { int } a, b, c, n
$$

$\mathrm{a}=4$;
$\mathrm{b}=2$;
c $=3$;
$\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{c} * 2$;
while ( $\mathrm{a}<=\mathrm{n}$ )
\{
$\mathrm{a}=\mathrm{a}+1 ;$
\}
if (a < 12)
$a=a+b+c ;$
return $a$;
\}

1. $\mathrm{a}=4$
2. $b=2$
3. $c=3$
4. $\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{c} * 2$
5. if $(!(a \leq n))$ goto 8
6. $a=a+1$
7. goto 5
8. if $(!(a<12))$ goto 11
9. $\mathrm{t} 1=\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{b}$
10. $\mathrm{a}=\mathrm{t} 1+\mathrm{c}$
11. return a


| Part 6 |
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| Soundness and Precision |
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Execution Traces for Concrete Semantics (2)



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## Intro to PA: Soundness and Precision

## Computing Static Abstraction for Liveness of Variables




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Computing Static Abstraction for Liveness of Variables


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Computing Static Abstraction for Liveness of Variables


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## Intro to PA: Soundness and Precision

## Computing Static Abstraction for Liveness of Variables



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|  | Soundness of Abstractions (1) |


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## Soundness of Abstractions (2)

An unsound abstraction
A sound abstraction using intervals



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Precision of Sound Abstractions(1)


Sound and more precise


Sound and even more precise


Sound and even more precise


$$
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\hline
\end{array}
$$

## Limitations of Static Analysis

- In general, the computation of exact static abstraction is undecidable
- Possible reasons
- Values of variables not known
- Branch outcomes not known
- Infinitely many paths in the presence of loops or recursion
- Infinitely many values
- We have to settle for some imprecision
- How are data states compared to distinguish between a sound and unsound (or a precise or an imprecise result)?
- We have introduced the concepts intuitively
- Will define them formally in a later module
- Goodness of a static analysis lies in minimizing imprecision without compromising on soundness
Additional expectations: Efficiency and scalability


