Organization

**Dates:**
- **Lecture:** Monday, 12:15-13:45
  Wednesday, 10:00-11:30
- **Tutorial:** Thursday, 10:00-12:00

**Material:**
- slides
  - Moodle
  - Program Analysis and Transformation
  - Springer, 2012

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

Observation 1    Intuitive programs often are inefficient.

Example

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

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

Improvement

- Use a pointer to traverse the array $a$;
- store the values of $a[i], a[j]$!
void swap (int *p, int *q) {
    int t, ai, aj;
    ai = *p; aj = *q;
    if (ai > aj) {
        t = aj;
        *q = ai;
        *p = t; // t can also be // eliminated!
    }
}
Observation 2

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

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

Examples

... Filling of delay slots;
... Utilization of special instructions;
... Re-organization of memory accesses for better cache behavior;
... Removal of (useless) overflow/range checks.
Observation 3

Programm-Improvements need not always be correct!

Example

\[ y = f() + f(); \implies y = 2 \times f(); \]

Idea: Save second evaluation of \( f() \) ...
Observation 3

Programm-Improvements need not always be correct!

Example

\[ y = f() + f(); \quad \implies \quad y = 2 \times f(); \]

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

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

⇒ Optimizations have assumptions.
⇒ The assumption must be:
  • formalized,
  • checked!
⇒ It must be proven that the optimization is correct, i.e., preserves the semantics !!!
Observation 4

Optimization techniques depend on the programming language:

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

Example Java
Unavoidable Inefficiencies

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

Analyzezability

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

+ more or less well-defined semantics;
− features, features, features;
− libraries with changing behavior ...
... in this course:

a simple imperative programming language with

- variables // 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
Remark

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

Example \( \text{swap}() \)
0: \[ A_1 = A_0 + 1 \times i; \quad // \quad A_0 == &a \]
1: \[ R_1 = M[A_1]; \quad // \quad R_1 == a[i] \]
2: \[ A_2 = A_0 + 1 \times j; \]
3: \[ R_2 = M[A_2]; \quad // \quad R_2 == a[j] \]
4: \[ \text{if } (R_1 > R_2) \{ \]
5: \[ A_3 = A_0 + 1 \times j; \]
6: \[ t = M[A_3]; \]
7: \[ A_4 = A_0 + 1 \times j; \]
8: \[ A_5 = A_0 + 1 \times i; \]
9: \[ R_3 = M[A_5]; \]
10: \[ M[A_4] = R_3; \]
11: \[ A_6 = A_0 + 1 \times i; \]
12: \[ M[A_6] = t; \]
\}
Optimization 1: \[ 1 \times R \quad \Longrightarrow \quad R \]

Optimization 2: Reuse of subexpressions

\[ A_1 == A_5 == A_6 \]
\[ A_2 == A_3 == A_4 \]

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

\[ R_1 == R_3 \]
By this, we obtain:

\[ A_1 = A_0 + i; \]
\[ R_1 = M[A_1]; \]
\[ A_2 = A_0 + j; \]
\[ R_2 = M[A_2]; \]

if \((R_1 > R_2)\) {
\[ t = R_2; \]
\[ M[A_2] = R_1; \]
\[ M[A_1] = t; \]
}

17
**Optimization 3:** Contraction of chains of assignments

**Gain**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>before</th>
<th>after</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>load</td>
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<td>store</td>
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<td>&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>6</td>
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1 Removing superfluous computations

1.1 Repeated computations

Idea

If the same value is computed repeatedly, then

→ store it after the first computation;

→ replace every further computation through a look-up!

⇒ Availability of expressions

⇒⇒ Memoization
Problem: Identify repeated computations!

Example

\[
\begin{align*}
  z &= 1; \\
  y &= M[17]; \\
  A: \quad x_1 &= y + z; \\
  \quad \cdots \\
  B: \quad x_2 &= y + z;
\end{align*}
\]
Remark

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

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

\[\rightarrow\] We need:

\[\rightarrow\] an operational semantics;

\[\rightarrow\] a method which identifies at least some repeated computations ...
Background 1: An Operational Semantics

we choose a small-step operational approach.

Programs are represented as control-flow graphs.

In the example:
Thereby, represent:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>vertex</th>
<th>program point</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>start</td>
<td>programm start</td>
</tr>
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**Edge Labelings:**

Test : \( Pos (e) \) or \( Neg (e) \)

Assignment : \( R = e; \)

Load : \( R = M[e]; \)

Store : \( M[e_1] = e_2; \)

Nop : ;
Computations follow paths.

Computations transform the current state

\[ s = (\rho, \mu) \]

where:

| \( \rho \) | \( \text{Vars} \rightarrow \text{int} \) | contents of registers |
| \( \mu \) | \( \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \text{int} \) | contents of storage |

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

\[ [k] = [lab] \]

of the state:
\[\left[;\right]\left(\rho, \mu\right) = \left(\rho, \mu\right)\]

\[\left[\text{Pos } (e)\right]\left(\rho, \mu\right) = \left(\rho, \mu\right) \quad \text{if } [e] \rho \neq 0\]

\[\left[\text{Neg } (e)\right]\left(\rho, \mu\right) = \left(\rho, \mu\right) \quad \text{if } [e] \rho = 0\]
\[[;]\] (\(\rho, \mu\)) = (\(\rho, \mu\))

\[[\text{Pos } (e)]\] (\(\rho, \mu\)) = (\(\rho, \mu\)) \quad \text{if } [e] \rho \neq 0

\[[\text{Neg } (e)]\] (\(\rho, \mu\)) = (\(\rho, \mu\)) \quad \text{if } [e] \rho = 0

// [e] : evaluation of the expression e, e.g.

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

// [!(x == 4)] \{x \mapsto 5\} = 1
\[ [;] (\rho, \mu) = (\rho, \mu) \]

\[ [\text{Pos} (e)] (\rho, \mu) = (\rho, \mu) \quad \text{if } [e] \rho \neq 0 \]
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// \[ [e] : \text{ evaluation of the expression } e, \text{ e.g.} \]

// \[ [x + y] \{x \mapsto 7, y \mapsto -1\} = 6 \]
// \[ ![x == 4)] \{x \mapsto 5\} = 1 \]

\[ [R = e;] (\rho, \mu) = \left( \rho \oplus \{R \mapsto [e] \rho\}, \mu \right) \]

// \text{ where “⊕” modifies a mapping at a given argument}
\[
[R = M[e];] (\rho, \mu) = (\rho \oplus \{ R \mapsto \mu([e] \rho) \}), \mu
\]

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

Example

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

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

\[
= \{ x \mapsto 5 \} \oplus \{ x \mapsto 6 \}
\]

\[
= \{ x \mapsto 6 \}
\]
A path \( \pi = k_1 k_2 \ldots k_m \) is a computation for the state \( s \) if:

\[
s \in \text{def} (\left[k_m\right] \circ \ldots \circ \left[k_1\right])
\]

The result of the computation is:

\[
\sigma [\pi] s = (\left[k_m\right] \circ \ldots \circ \left[k_1\right]) s
\]

Application

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

\[
\xymatrix{
   & u \ar[rr]^\pi & & v \\
x+y
}
\]

We perform a computation along path \( \pi \) and reach \( v \) where we evaluate again \( x + y \) ...
Idea

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

We can check this property at every edge in $\pi$ ...
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If $x$ and $y$ have not been modified in $\pi$, then evaluation of $x + y$ at $v$ must return the same value as evaluation at $u$!

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More generally:

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

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

We can check this property at every edge in $\pi$ ...

More generally:

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

Every edge $k$ transforms this set into a set $[k]^\pi A$ of expressions whose values are available after execution of $k$ ...
... which transformations can be composed to the effect of a path $\pi = k_1 \ldots k_r$:

$$[\pi]^\# = [k_r]^\# \circ \ldots \circ [k_1]^\#$$
... which transformations can be composed to the effect of a path $\pi = k_1 \ldots k_r$:

$$[\pi]\# = [k_r]\# \circ \ldots \circ [k_1]\#$$

The effect $[k]\#$ of an edge $k = (u, \text{lab}, v)$ only depends on the label $\text{lab}$, i.e.,

$$[k]\# = [\text{lab}]\#$$
... which transformations can be composed to the effect of a path
\( \pi = k_1 \ldots k_r \):

\[
[\pi]^\# = [k_r]^\# \circ \ldots \circ [k_1]^\#
\]

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

\[
\begin{align*}
[;]^\# A & = A \\
[\text{Pos}(e)]^\# A & = [\text{Neg}(e)]^\# A = A \cup \{e\} \\
[x = e;]^\# A & = (A \cup \{e\}) \backslash \text{Expr}_x \\
\end{align*}
\]

where \(\text{Expr}_x\) all expressions which contain \(x\)
\[ [x = M[e];]^\# A = (A \cup \{e\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_x \]
\[ [M[e_1] = e_2;]^\# A = A \cup \{e_1, e_2\} \]
$$\text{let } x = M[e] \text{ then } A = (A \cup \{e\}) \setminus Expr_x$$
$$\text{let } M[e_1] = e_2 \text{ then } A = A \cup \{e_1, e_2\}$$

By that, every path can be analyzed.

A given program may admit several paths.

For any given input, another path may be chosen ...
\[ [x = M[e];]\# A = (A \cup \{e\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_x \]
\[ [M[e_1] = e_2;]\# A = A \cup \{e_1, e_2\} \]

By that, every path can be analyzed.
A given program may admit several paths.
For any given input, another path may be chosen ...

\[ \implies \text{We require the set:} \]
\[ \mathcal{A}[v] = \bigcap \{ [[\pi]]\#(\emptyset) \mid \pi : \text{start} \rightarrow^* v \} \]
Concretely:

→ We consider all paths $\pi$ which reach $v$.
→ For every path $\pi$, we determine the set of expressions which are available along $\pi$.
→ Initially at program start, nothing is available
→ We compute the intersection $\Rightarrow$ safe information
Concretely:

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

How do we exploit this information???
Transformation 1.1

We provide novel registers $T_e$ as storage for the $e$:

$x = e; \quad \quad T_e = e; \\

x = T_e;$
Transformation 1.1

We provide novel registers $T_e$ as storage for the $e$:

$u$
\[ x = e; \]
$u$
\[ T_e = e; \]

$u$
\[ x = T_e; \]
$u$
\[ T_e = e; \]

Neg $(e)$  Pos $(e)$  Neg $(T_e)$  Pos $(T_e)$
... analogously for \( R = M[e]; \) and \( M[e_1] = e_2; \).

**Transformation 1.2**

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

\[
\begin{align*}
&T_e = e; \\
&\Rightarrow e \in \mathcal{A}[u] \\
&u \\
\end{align*}
\]

We replace the assignment with \( Nop \).
Example:

\[ x = y + 3; \]
\[ x = 7; \]
\[ z = y + 3; \]
Example:

\[
x = y + 3;
\]

\[
x = 7;
\]

\[
z = y + 3;
\]
Example:

\[ x = y + 3; \]
\[ x = 7; \]
\[ z = y + 3; \]
Example:

\[ x = y + 3; \]
\[ x = 7; \]
\[ z = y + 3; \]

\[ T = y + 3; \]
\[ \{ y + 3 \} \]
\[ x = T; \]
\[ \{ y + 3 \} \]
\[ x = 7; \]
\[ \{ y + 3 \} \]
\[ ; \]
\[ \{ y + 3 \} \]
\[ z = T; \]
\[ \{ y + 3 \} \]
Correctness: (Idea)

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

Assume $\pi : start \rightarrow^* u$ is the path taken by a computation.
If $e \in A[u]$, then also $e \in [\pi] \# \emptyset$.

Therefore, $\pi$ can be decomposed into:

with the following properties:
• The expression $e$ is evaluated at the edge $k$;
• The expression $e$ is not removed from the set of available expressions at any edge in $\pi_2$, i.e., no variable of $e$ receives a new value.
• The expression $e$ is evaluated at the edge $k$;
• The expression $e$ is not removed from the set of available expressions at any edge in $\pi_2$, i.e., no variable of $e$ receives a new value.

\[\implies\]

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

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

\[ \rightarrow x \notin Vars(e); \]
\[ \rightarrow e \notin Vars; \]
\[ \rightarrow \text{the evaluation of } e \text{ is non-trivial.} \]
Question

How can we compute $A[u]$ for every program point $u$?
Question

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

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

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{A}[start] & \subseteq \emptyset \\
\mathcal{A}[v] & \subseteq \left[ [k] \right]^\# (\mathcal{A}[u]) \\
k & = (u, _, v) \text{ edge}
\end{align*}
\]
Wanted

- a maximally large solution
- an algorithm which computes this ...

Example

\[
\begin{align*}
y &= 1; \\
x &= x - 1; \\
y &= x \times y; \\
x &= x - 1;
\end{align*}
\]
Wanted

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

Example

\[
y = 1;
x = x - 1;
y = x \times y;
x = x - 1;
\]

\[\mathcal{A}[0] \subseteq \emptyset\]
Wanted

- a maximally large solution
- an algorithm which computes this ...

Example

\[
\begin{align*}
A[0] & \subseteq \emptyset \\
A[1] & \subseteq (A[0] \cup \{1\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_y \\
\end{align*}
\]

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\begin{align*}
y &= 1; \\
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x &= x - 1;
\end{align*}
\]
Wanted

- a maximally large solution
- an algorithm which computes this ...

Example

\begin{align*}
y & = 1; \\
x & = x - 1; \\
y & = x \times y; \\
x & = x > 1;
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\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\}
\end{align*}
Wanted

- a maximally large solution
- an algorithm which computes this ...

Example

\[ x = x - 1; \]
\[ y = x \times y; \]
\[ A[0] \subseteq \emptyset \]
\[ A[1] \subseteq (A[0] \cup \{1\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_y \]
\[ A[2] \subseteq A[1] \cup \{x \times 1\} \]
\[ A[3] \subseteq (A[2] \cup \{x \times y\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_y \]
Wanted

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Example

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

- a maximally large solution  
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Example

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\begin{align*}
\mathcal{A}[0] & \subseteq \emptyset \\
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\mathcal{A}[2] & \subseteq \mathcal{A}[1] \cup \{x > 1\} \\
\mathcal{A}[3] & \subseteq (\mathcal{A}[2] \cup \{x \cdot y\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_y \\
\mathcal{A}[4] & \subseteq (\mathcal{A}[3] \cup \{x - 1\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_x \\
\mathcal{A}[5] & \subseteq \mathcal{A}[1] \cup \{x > 1\}
\end{align*}
\]
Wanted

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

Example

Solution:

\[
\begin{align*}
A[0] &= \emptyset \\
A[1] &= \{1\} \\
A[2] &= \{1, x > 1\} \\
A[3] &= \{1, x > 1\} \\
A[4] &= \{1\} \\
A[5] &= \{1, x > 1\}
\end{align*}
\]
Observation

- The possible values for $A[u]$ form a **complete lattice**:

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

- The possible values for $A[u]$ form a complete lattice:

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

- The functions $\lbrack k \rbrack^\sharp : \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}$ are monotonic, i.e.,

  $$\lbrack k \rbrack^\sharp(B_1) \sqsubseteq \lbrack k \rbrack^\sharp(B_2) \quad \text{whenever} \quad B_1 \sqsubseteq B_2$$
Background 2: Complete Lattices

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

- reflexivity: \( a \subseteq a \)
- anti-symmetry: \( a \subseteq b \wedge b \subseteq a \implies a = b \)
- transitivity: \( a \subseteq b \wedge b \subseteq c \implies a \subseteq c \)

Examples

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

\[ \ldots \ldots -2 \quad -1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad \ldots \]

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

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

\[ \ldots \ldots -2 \quad -1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad \ldots \]
$d \in \mathbb{D}$ is called upper bound for $X \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ if

$$x \sqsubseteq d \quad \text{for all } x \in X$$
\( d \in \mathbb{D} \) is called upper bound for \( X \subseteq \mathbb{D} \) if

\[
x \sqsubseteq d \quad \text{for all } x \in X
\]

\( d \) is called least upper bound (lub) if

1. \( d \) is an upper bound and
2. \( d \sqsubseteq y \) for every upper bound \( y \) of \( X \).
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\[
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\]

\( d \) is called least upper bound (lub) if

1. \( d \) is an upper bound and
2. \( d \subseteq y \) for every upper bound \( y \) of \( X \).

**Caveat**

- \( \{0, 2, 4, \ldots\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \) has no upper bound!
- \( \{0, 2, 4\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \) has the upper bounds \( 4, 5, 6, \ldots \)
A **complete lattice** (cl) $\mathcal{D}$ is a partial ordering where every subset $X \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ has a least upper bound $\bigcup X \in \mathcal{D}$.

**Remark**

Every complete lattice has

$\rightarrow$ a **least** element $\bot = \bigcup \emptyset \in \mathcal{D}$;

$\rightarrow$ a **greatest** element $\top = \bigcup \mathcal{D} \in \mathcal{D}$. 
Examples

1. $\mathcal{D} = 2 \{a, b, c\}$ is a cl.

2. $\mathcal{D} = \mathbb{Z}$ with “=” is not.

3. $\mathcal{D} = \mathbb{Z}$ with “$\leq$” is neither.

4. $\mathcal{D} = \mathbb{Z}_{\perp}$ is also not.

5. With an extra element $\top$, we obtain the flat lattice $\mathbb{Z}_{\top} = \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\bot, \top\}$:

```
    \top
   / \  \
-2 < -1 < 0 < 1 < 2 < \cdots  \\
    \bot
```
We have:

**Theorem**

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

We have:

**Theorem**

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

**Proof**

Construct $U = \{ u \in \mathbb{D} \mid \forall x \in X : u \sqsubseteq x \}$. 

// the set of all lower bounds of $X$
We have:

**Theorem**

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**Proof**

Construct $U = \{ u \in \mathbb{D} \mid \forall x \in X : u \sqsubseteq x \}$. 

// the set of all lower bounds of $X$

Set: $g := \bigcup U$

Claim: $g = \bigcap X$
(1) \( g \) is a lower bound of \( X \):

Assume \( x \in X \). Then:
- \( u \sqsubseteq x \) for all \( u \in U \)

\[ \implies x \text{ is an upper bound of } U \]
\[ \implies g \sqsubseteq x \]
(1) \( g \) is a lower bound of \( X \):

Assume \( x \in X \). Then:

\[ u \subseteq x \text{ for all } u \in U \]

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\[ \implies g \subseteq x \]

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

Assume \( u \) is a lower bound of \( X \). Then:

\[ u \in U \]

\[ \implies u \subseteq g \]
We are looking for solutions for systems of constraints of the form:

\[ x_i \sqsupseteq f_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \quad (\ast) \]

\[ \text{collinearity} \]
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\[ x_i \supseteq f_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \quad (\star) \]

where:

\begin{align*}
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
x_i & \text{unknown} \\
\mathbb{D} & \text{values} \\
\subseteq \subseteq \mathbb{D} \times \mathbb{D} & \text{ordering relation} \\
f_i : \mathbb{D}^n \to \mathbb{D} & \text{constraint} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\end{align*}

here: \( A[u] \)

here: \( 2^{Expr} \)

here: \( \supseteq \)

here: \( \ldots \)
We are looking for solutions for systems of constraints of the form:

\[ x_i \supseteq f_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \quad (\ast) \]

where:

| \( x_i \) | unknown here: \( A[u] \) |
| \( \mathbb{D} \) | values here: \( 2^{Expr} \) |
| \( \subseteq \subseteq \mathbb{D} \times \mathbb{D} \) | ordering relation here: \( \supseteq \) |
| \( f_i: \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D} \) | constraint here: \( \ldots \) |

Constraint for \( A[v] \) \( (v \neq \text{start}) \):

\[ A[v] \subseteq \bigcap \{ [[k]]^\# (A[u]) \mid k = (u, _, v) \text{ edge} \} \]
We are looking for solutions for systems of constraints of the form:

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<tbody>
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<td>( D )</td>
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Constraint for \( A[v] \) (\( v \neq \text{start} \)):

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

Because:

\[ x \supseteq d_1 \land \ldots \land x \supseteq d_k \text{ iff } x \supseteq \bigcup \{d_1, \ldots, d_k\} \]
A mapping \( f : \mathcal{D}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{D}_2 \) is called monotonic, if \( f(a) \sqsubseteq f(b) \) for all \( a \sqsubseteq b \).
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\textbf{Examples}

(1) \( \mathcal{D}_1 = \mathcal{D}_2 = 2^U \) for a set \( U \) and \( f x = (x \cap a) \cup b \).

Obviously, every such \( f \) is monotonic.
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(2)  \( \mathbb{D}_1 = \mathbb{D}_2 = \mathbb{Z} \) (with the ordering “\( \leq \)”). Then:

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- \( \text{inv } x = -x \) 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 \( f_2 \circ f_1 : \mathbb{D}_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}_3 \).
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Theorem

If \( D_2 \) is a complete lattice, then the set \([D_1 \to D_2]\) of monotonic functions \( f : D_1 \to D_2 \) is also a complete lattice where

\[ f \sqsubseteq g \text{  iff  } f x \sqsubseteq g x \text{  for all  } x \in D_1 \]
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In particular for \( F \subseteq [D_1 \rightarrow D_2] \),

\[ \bigsqcup F = f \quad \text{mit} \quad f x = \bigsqcup \{g x \mid g \in F\} \]
For functions \( f_i x = a_i \cap x \cup b_i \), the operations “◦”, “⊔” and “⊓” can be explicitly defined by:

\[
(f_2 \circ f_1) x = a_1 \cap a_2 \cap x \cup a_2 \cap b_1 \cup b_2 \\
(f_1 \sqcup f_2) x = (a_1 \cup a_2) \cap x \cup b_1 \cup b_2 \\
(f_1 \sqcap f_2) x = (a_1 \cup b_1) \cap (a_2 \cup b_2) \cap x \cup b_1 \cap b_2
\]
Wanted: minimally small solution for:

\[ x_i \supseteq f_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \ldots, n \]  

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

\[
F(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \quad \text{with} \quad y_i = f_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n).
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  F(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \quad \text{with} \quad y_i = f_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n).
  \]
- If all \( f_i \) are monotonic, then also \( F \).
- We successively approximate a solution. We construct:
  \[
  \bot, \quad F \bot, \quad F^2 \bot, \quad F^3 \bot, \quad \ldots
  \]

Hope: We eventually reach a solution ... ???
Example: \[ \mathcal{D} = 2^{\{a,b,c\}}, \quad \subseteq = \subseteq \]

\[
\begin{align*}
x_1 & \supseteq \{a\} \cup x_3 \\
x_2 & \supseteq x_3 \cap \{a, b\} \\
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Theorem

• $\bot, F \bot, F^2 \bot, \ldots$ form an ascending chain:
  \[
  \bot \subseteq F \bot \subseteq F^2 \bot \subseteq \ldots
  \]

• If $F^k \bot = F^{k+1} \bot$, a solution is obtained which is the least one.

• If all ascending chains are finite, such a $k$ always exists.
Theorem

- \( \bot, F \perp, F^2 \perp, \ldots \) form an ascending chain:
  \[ \bot \subseteq F \subseteq F^2 \subseteq \ldots \]

- If \( F^k \perp = F^{k+1} \perp \), a solution is obtained which is the least one.

- If all ascending chains are finite, such a \( k \) always exists.

Proof

The first claim follows by complete induction:

**Foundation:** \( F^0 \perp = \bot \subseteq F^1 \perp \).
Step: Assume $F^{i-1} \perp \subseteq F^i \perp$. Then

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

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

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**Conclusion**

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

**Question**

What, if $\mathcal{D}$ is not finite ??
Assume $D$ is a complete lattice. Then every \textit{monotonic} function $f : D \to D$ has a \textit{least fixpoint} $d_0 \in D$.

Let $P = \{d \in D \mid f d \sqsubseteq d\}$.

Then $d_0 = \bigsqcap P$. 

Theorem Knaster – Tarski
Bronislaw Knaster (1893-1980), topology

27/4/72
Theorem  
Knaster – Tarski

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

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Proof

(1) $d_0 \in P$:
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Assume \( \mathbb{D} \) is a complete lattice. Then every monotonic function \( f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D} \) has a least fixpoint \( d_0 \in \mathbb{D} \).

Let \( P = \{d \in \mathbb{D} \mid f \, d \sqsubseteq d\} \).

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Proof

(1) \( d_0 \in P \):

\[
\begin{align*}
  f \, d_0 \sqsubseteq f \, d \sqsubseteq d & \quad \text{for all } d \in P \\
  \implies f \, d_0 & \quad \text{is a lower bound of } P \\
  \implies f \, d_0 \sqsubseteq d_0 & \quad \text{since } d_0 = \bigsqcap P \\
  \implies d_0 & \in P
\end{align*}
\]
(2) \[ f d_0 = d_0 : \]
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\[
  f d_0 \sqsubseteq d_0 \quad \text{by (1)}
\]
\[
  \implies f (f d_0) \sqsubseteq f d_0 \quad \text{by monotonicity of } f
\]
\[
  \implies f d_0 \in P
\]
\[
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(3) \( d_0 \) is least fixpoint:
(2) \( f d_0 = d_0 : \)

\[ f d_0 \sqsubseteq d_0 \quad \text{by (1)} \]

\[ \implies f(f d_0) \sqsubseteq f d_0 \quad \text{by monotonicity of } f \]

\[ \implies f d_0 \in P \]

\[ \implies d_0 \sqsubseteq f d_0 \quad \text{and the claim follows.} \]

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

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

\[ \implies d_1 \in P \]

\[ \implies d_0 \sqsubseteq d_1 \]
Remark

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

$\implies d_0$ is the least value $x$ with $x \sqsupseteq f x$
Remark

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

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Application

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

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

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

$\implies d_0$ is the least value $x$ with $x \sqsupseteq f(x)$.

Application

Assume

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

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

$\implies$ least solution of ($\ast$) $\iff$ least fixpoint of $F$. 
Example 1 \[ \mathcal{D} = 2^U, \quad f(x) = x \cap a \cup b \]
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\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
f & f^k \bot & f^k \top \\
\hline
0 & \emptyset & U \\
\hline
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\]
Example 1

\( \mathcal{D} = 2^U, \quad f(x) = x \cap a \cup b \)

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Example 2 \[ \mathbb{D} = \mathbb{N} \cup \{ \infty \} \]

Assume \( f x = x + 1 \). Then

\[ f^i \perp = f^i 0 = i \quad \square \quad i + 1 = f^{i+1} \perp \]
Example 1  \[ \mathbb{D} = 2^U, \quad f(x) = x \cap a \cup b \]

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Assume  \[ f(x) = x + 1. \] Then

\[ f^i \perp = f^i 0 = i \quad \square \quad i + 1 = f^{i+1} \perp \]

\[ \quad \implies \] Ordinary iteration will never reach a fixpoint!

\[ \implies \quad \text{Sometimes, transfinite iteration is needed.} \]
Conclusion

Systems of inequations can be solved through fixpoint iteration, i.e., by repeated evaluation of right-hand sides.
Conclusion

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Caveat Naive fixpoint iteration is rather inefficient.
Conclusion

Systems of inequations can be solved through fixpoint iteration, i.e., by repeated evaluation of right-hand sides.

Caveat  Naive fixpoint iteration is rather inefficient.

Example

\[ y = 1; \\
\text{Pos}(x > 1) \quad \text{Neg}(x > 1) \]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
1 \\
2 \\
3 \\
4 \\
5 \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
1 \\
2 \\
3 \\
4 \\
5 \\
\end{array}
\]
Conclusion

Systems of inequations can be solved through fixpoint iteration, i.e., by repeated evaluation of right-hand sides.

Caveat  Naive fixpoint iteration is rather inefficient.

Example

```
0  y = 1;
1  Pos(x > 1)
2  y = x * y;
3  x = x - 1;
5  Neg(x > 1)
```

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1, x - 1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Expr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1, x - 1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>{1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Expr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```
Conclusion

Systems of inequations can be solved through fixpoint iteration, i.e., by repeated evaluation of right-hand sides.

Caveat  Naive fixpoint iteration is rather inefficient.

Example

\[\begin{array}{c|c|c}
\text{Pos}(x > 1) & 1 & 2 \\
\text{Neg}(x > 1) & 0 & \\
1 & \{1, x > 1, x - 1\} & \{1\} \\
2 & Expr & \{1, x > 1, x - 1\} \\
3 & \{1, x > 1, x - 1\} & \{1, x > 1, x - 1\} \\
4 & \{1\} & \{1\} \\
5 & Expr & \{1, x > 1, x - 1\} \\
\end{array}\]
Conclusion

Systems of inequations can be solved through fixpoint iteration, i.e., by repeated evaluation of right-hand sides.

Caveat  Naive fixpoint iteration is rather inefficient.

Example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1, x - 1}</td>
<td>{1}</td>
<td>{1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1, x - 1}</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1, x - 1}</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>{1}</td>
<td>{1}</td>
<td>{1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Expr</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1, x - 1}</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1, x - 1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Expr</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1, x - 1}</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

0 \rightarrow y = 1;
1 \rightarrow Pos(x > 1)
2 \rightarrow y = x \cdot y;
3 \rightarrow x = x - 1;
4 \rightarrow Neg(x > 1)
Conclusion

Systems of inequations can be solved through fixpoint iteration, i.e., by repeated evaluation of right-hand sides.

Caveat Naive fixpoint iteration is rather inefficient.

Example

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Pos}(x > 1) & \text{Neg}(x > 1) & y = x \times y; & x = x - 1; \\
\hline
0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\
\hline
\{1, x > 1, x - 1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} \\
\{1\} & \{1, x > 1, x - 1\} & \{1, x > 1\} & \{1\} & \{1, x > 1\} \\
\{1, x > 1, x - 1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} \\
\{1\} & \{1, x > 1, x - 1\} & \{1, x > 1\} & 1, x > 1\} & \{1, x > 1\} \\
\{1, x > 1, x - 1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1, x > 1\} \\
\{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]
Conclusion

Systems of inequations can be solved through fixpoint iteration, i.e., by repeated evaluation of right-hand sides.

Caveat  Naive fixpoint iteration is rather inefficient.

Example
Idea: Round Robin Iteration

Instead of accessing the values of the last iteration, always use the current values of unknowns.
Idea: Round Robin Iteration

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

Example

\[
\begin{align*}
y &= 1; \\
\text{Neg}(x > 1) \quad &\quad \text{Pos}(x > 1) \\
5 &\quad 1 \\
2 &\quad 3 \\
3 &\quad 4 \\
4 &\quad 5
\end{align*}
\]
Idea: Round Robin Iteration

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

Example

\[ y = 1; \]
\[ x = x - 1; \]
\[ y = x \times y; \]
\[ x = x > 1; \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>(\emptyset)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>{1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>{1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>{1, x &gt; 1}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Idea: Round Robin Iteration

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

Example

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\
y = 1; & & & \\
\text{Neg}(x > 1) & \text{Pos}(x > 1) & y = x \times y; & x = x - 1; \\
5 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
 & 1 & 2 \\
\hline
0 & & \\
1 & \{1\} & \\
2 & \{1, x > 1\} & \\
3 & \{1, x > 1\} & \text{ditto} \\
4 & \{1\} & \\
5 & \{1, x > 1\} & \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]
The code for **Round Robin** Iteration in **Java** looks as follows:

```java
for (i = 1; i ≤ n; i++) x_i = ⊥;

do {
    finished = true;
    for (i = 1; i ≤ n; i++) {
      new = f_i(x_1, . . . , x_n);
      if (! (x_i ⊑ new)) {
        finished = false;
        x_i = x_i ⊔ new;
      }
    }
}
while (!finished);
```
Correctness

Assume $y_i^{(d)}$ is the $d$th component of $F^d \perp$.

Assume $x_i^{(d)}$ is the value of $x_i$ after the $d$th RR-iteration.
Correctness

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

One proves:

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

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

One proves:

1. $y^{(d)}_i \subseteq x^{(d)}_i$.
2. $x^{(d)}_i \subseteq z_i$ for every solution $(z_1, \ldots, z_n)$. 
Correctness

Assume \( y_i^{(d)} \) is the \( d \)th component of \( F^d \).

Assume \( x_i^{(d)} \) is the value of \( x_i \) after the \( d \)th RR-iteration.

One proves:

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

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

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

**Good:**

\[ \rightarrow u \text{ before } v, \quad \text{if } u \rightarrow^* v; \]

\[ \rightarrow \text{ entry condition before loop body.} \]
Caveat

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

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

**Bad:**
e.g., post-order DFS of the CFG, starting at start.
Good:

$y = 1$;
$x = x - 1$;
$y = x \times y$;

$\text{Pos}(x > 1)$
$\text{Neg}(x > 1)$

Bad:

$y = 1$;
$x = x - 1$;
$y = x \times y$;

$\text{Pos}(x > 1)$
$\text{Neg}(x > 1)$
Inefficient Round Robin Iteration

\[
x = x - 1; \quad y = 1; \quad y = x \times y; \quad x = x - 1;
\]

Neg(\(x > 1\)) \quad Pos(\(x > 1\))
Inefficient Round Robin Iteration

\[ y = 1; \]

\[ y = x \times y; \]

\[ x = x - 1; \]
Inefficient Round Robin Iteration

\[
x = x - 1;
\]

\[
y = y \times x;
\]

\[
\text{Pos}(x > 1) \quad y = 1;
\]

\[
\text{Neg}(x > 1) \quad x = x - 1;
\]

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
 & 1 & 2 \\
\hline
0 & \text{Expr} & \{1, x > 1\} \\
1 & \{1\} & \{1\} \\
2 & \{1, x - 1, x > 1\} & \{1, x - 1, x > 1\} \\
3 & \text{Expr} & \{1, x > 1\} \\
4 & \{1\} & \{1\} \\
5 & \emptyset & \emptyset \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]
Inefficient Round Robin Iteration

\[ y = 1; \]

\[ x = x - 1; \]

\[ y = x \cdot y; \]

\[ \text{Neg}(x > 1) \]

\[ \text{Pos}(x > 1) \]

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
\text{Expr} & 1 & 2 & 3 \\
\hline
0 & \{1\} & \{1, x > 1\} & \{1, x > 1\} \\
1 & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} \\
2 & \{1, x - 1, x > 1\} & \{1, x - 1, x > 1\} & \{1, x > 1\} \\
3 & \{1, x > 1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} \\
4 & \emptyset & \emptyset & \emptyset \\
5 & \emptyset & \emptyset & \emptyset \\
\end{array}
\]
Inefficient Round Robin Iteration

\[ x = x - 1; \]
\[ y = x \times y; \]
\[ y = 1; \]

\[ \text{Neg}(x > 1) \]
\[ \text{Pos}(x > 1) \]

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
& 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\
\hline
0 & \text{Expr} & \{1, x > 1\} & \{1, x > 1\} & \text{ditto} \\
1 & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} \\
2 & \{1, x - 1, x > 1\} & \{1, x - 1, x > 1\} & \{1, x > 1\} & \{1, x > 1\} \\
3 & \text{Expr} & \{1, x > 1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} \\
4 & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} & \{1\} \\
5 & \emptyset & \emptyset & \emptyset & \emptyset \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

\[ \iff \text{significantly less efficient}! \]
... end of background on: Complete Lattices
Final Question

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

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

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

$I[start] \ni d_0$

$I[v] \ni \llbracket k \rrbracket^\#(I[u]) \quad k = (u, _, v) \quad $ edge

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

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

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

\[ \mathcal{I}[\text{start}] \supseteq d_0 \]
\[ \mathcal{I}[v] \supseteq [k]^{\#}(\mathcal{I}[u]) \quad k = (u, _, v) \quad \text{edge} \]

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

\[ \Rightarrow \quad \text{Monotonic Analysis Framework} \]
Wanted: MOP (Merge Over all Paths)

\[ \mathcal{I}^*[v] = \bigsqcup \{ [\pi]^d d_0 \mid \pi : \text{start} \to^* v \} \]
Wanted: MOP (Merge Over all Paths)

\[ I^* [v] = \bigsqcup \left\{ [\pi]^2 d_0 \mid \pi : start \to^* v \right\} \]

Theorem Kam, Ullman 1975

Assume \( I \) is a solution of the constraint system. Then:

\[ I[v] \supseteq I^*[v] \quad \text{for every} \quad v \]
Wanted: MOP  (Merge Over all Paths)

\[ \mathcal{I}^*[v] = \bigsqcup\{ [[\pi]]^{d_0} \mid \pi : \text{start} \to^* v \} \]

Theorem  Kam, Ullman 1975

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

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

In particular:

\[ \mathcal{I}[v] \supseteq [[\pi]]^{d_0} \quad \text{for every} \quad \pi : \text{start} \to^* v \]
Proof: Induction on the length of $\pi$. 
Proof: Induction on the length of $\pi$.

Foundation: $\pi = \epsilon$ (empty path)
Proof: Induction on the length of $\pi$.

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

Then:

$$[[\pi]]^\# d_0 = [[\epsilon]]^\# d_0 = d_0 \sqsubseteq I[start]$$
Proof: Induction on the length of $\pi$.

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

Then:

$$[[\pi]]^d d_0 = [[\epsilon]]^d d_0 = d_0 \subseteq \mathcal{I}[start]$$

Step: $\pi = \pi'k$ for $k = (u, _, v)$ edge.
Proof: Induction on the length of $\pi$.

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

Then:

$$[[\pi]]^d_0 = [[\epsilon]]^d_0 = d_0 \subseteq I[\text{start}]$$

Step: $\pi = \pi'k$ for $k = (u, _, v)$ edge.

Then:

$$[[\pi']]^d_0 \subseteq I[u] \quad \text{by I.H. for } \pi$$

$$\implies [[\pi]]^d_0 = [[k]]^d ([[[\pi']]^d_0)$$

$$\subseteq [[k]]^d (I[u]) \quad \text{since } [[k]]^d \text{ monotonic}$$

$$\subseteq I[v] \quad \text{since } I \text{ solution}$$
Disappointment

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

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

Answer

In general: yes
Disappointment

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

Answer

In general: yes

With the notable exception when all functions $[k]^\#$ are distributive ...
The function $f : D_1 \to D_2$ is called

- **distributive**, if $f (\bigcup X) = \bigcup \{ f x \mid x \in X \}$ for all $\emptyset \neq X \subseteq D$;
- **strict**, if $f \bot = \bot$.
- **totally distributive**, if $f$ is distributive and strict.
The function $f : \mathbb{D}_1 \to \mathbb{D}_2$ is called

- **distributive**, if $f (\bigsqcup X) = \bigsqcup \{f x \mid x \in X\}$ for all $\emptyset \neq X \subseteq \mathbb{D}$;
- **strict**, if $f \bot = \bot$.
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**Examples**

- $f x = x \cap a \cup b$ for $a, b \subseteq U$. 
The function \( f : \mathbb{D}_1 \to \mathbb{D}_2 \) is called

- **distributive**, if \( f(\bigcup X) = \bigcup \{ f x \mid x \in X \} \) for all \( \emptyset \neq X \subseteq \mathbb{D} \);
- **strict**, if \( f \perp = \perp \).
- **totally distributive**, if \( f \) is distributive and strict.

**Examples**

- \( f x = x \cap a \cup b \) for \( a, b \subseteq U \).

**Strictness:** \( f \emptyset = a \cap \emptyset \cup b = b = \emptyset \) whenever \( b = \emptyset \)
The function \( f : \mathbb{D}_1 \to \mathbb{D}_2 \) is called

- **distributive**, if \( f (\bigcup X) = \bigcup \{ f x \mid x \in X \} \) for all \( \emptyset \neq X \subseteq \mathbb{D} \);
- **strict**, if \( f \bot = \bot \).
- **totally distributive**, if \( f \) is distributive and strict.

**Examples**

- \( f x = x \cap a \cup b \) for \( a, b \subseteq U \).

**Strictness:** \( f \emptyset = a \cap \emptyset \cup b = b = \emptyset \) whenever \( b = \emptyset \)

**Distributivity:**

\[
\begin{align*}
f (x_1 \cup x_2) &= a \cap (x_1 \cup x_2) \cup b \\
&= a \cap x_1 \cup a \cap x_2 \cup b \\
&= f x_1 \cup f x_2
\end{align*}
\]
\( D_1 = D_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}, \quad \text{inc } x = x + 1 \)
• $D_1 = D_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$, \quad \text{inc} \ x = x + 1

**Strictness:** \quad f \ \bot = \ \text{inc} \ 0 = 1 \neq \bot
\( \mathbb{D}_1 = \mathbb{D}_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}, \quad \text{inc} \ x = x + 1 \)

**Strictness:** \( f \bot = \text{inc} \ 0 = 1 \neq \bot \)

**Distributivity:** \( f \ (\bigcup X) = \bigcup \{x + 1 \mid x \in X\} \quad \text{for} \quad \emptyset \neq X \)
• $D_1 = D_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$, \quad inc\, x = x + 1

**Strictness:** \quad f\, \bot = inc\, 0 = 1 \neq \bot

**Distributivity:** \quad f\, (\bigcup X) = \bigcup\{x + 1 \mid x \in X\} \quad \text{for} \quad \emptyset \neq X

• $D_1 = (\mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\})^2$, \quad $D_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$, \quad $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2$
• $\mathbb{D}_1 = \mathbb{D}_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$, \quad $\text{inc} \ x = x + 1$

**Strictness:** $f \bot = \text{inc} \ 0 = 1 \neq \bot$

**Distributivity:** $f \ (\bigcup X) = \bigcup \{x + 1 \mid x \in X\}$ for $\emptyset \neq X$

• $\mathbb{D}_1 = (\mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\})^2$, \quad $\mathbb{D}_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$, \quad $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2$

**Strictness:** $f \bot = 0 + 0 = 0$
• \( \mathcal{D}_1 = \mathcal{D}_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\} \), \( \text{inc} \ x = x + 1 \)

**Strictness:** \( f \perp = \text{inc} \ 0 = 1 \neq \perp \)

**Distributivity:** \( f (\biguplus X) = \biguplus \{x + 1 \mid x \in X\} \) for \( \emptyset \neq X \)

• \( \mathcal{D}_1 = \mathcal{D}_2 = (\mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\})^2 \), \( \mathcal{D}_2 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\} \), \( f(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2 \):

**Strictness:** \( f \perp = 0 + 0 = 0 \)

**Distributivity:**

\[
 f ((1, 4) \biguplus (4, 1)) = f (4, 4) = 8 \\
\neq 5 = f (1, 4) \biguplus f (4, 1)
\]
Remark

If \( f : \mathbb{D}_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}_2 \) is distributive, then also monotonic.
Remark

If \( f : \mathbb{D}_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}_2 \) is distributive, then also monotonic.

Obviously: \( a \sqsubseteq b \) iff \( a \sqcup b = b \).
Remark

If \( f : \mathbb{D}_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}_2 \) is distributive, then also monotonic.

Obviously: \( a \sqsubseteq b \) iff \( a \sqcup b = b \).

From that follows:

\[
fb = f(a \sqcup b) \\
= f a \sqcup fb \\
\implies fa \sqsubseteq fb
\]
Assumption: all $v$ are reachable from $start$. 
Assumption: all $v$ are reachable from $start$.

Then:

**Theorem**

If all effects of edges $[k]^\sharp$ are distributive, then:

$$I^*[v] = I[v]$$

for all $v$. 

Kildall 1972

Has developed the operating system CP/M and GUIs for PCs.
Assumption: all $v$ are reachable from $start$.
Then:

Theorem 

Kildall 1972

If all effects of edges $[k]^\#$ are distributive, then: $\mathcal{I}^*[v] = \mathcal{I}[v]$ for all $v$. 
Assumption: all \( v \) are reachable from \( \text{start} \).

Then:

**Theorem**

Kildall 1972

If all effects of edges \( [k] \) are distributive, then:

\[
\mathcal{I}^*[v] = \mathcal{I}[v]
\]

for all \( v \).

**Proof**

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

For this, we show that \( \mathcal{I}^* \) satisfies all constraints.
(1) We prove for \( \text{start} \):

\[
\mathcal{I}^*[\text{start}] = \bigcup \{ [\pi]^\# d_0 \mid \pi : \text{start} \rightarrow^* \text{start} \}
\]

\[\subseteq [\varepsilon]^\# d_0\]

\[\subseteq d_0\]
(1) We prove for \textbf{start}:

\[
\mathcal{I}^*[\text{start}] = \bigsqcup \left\{ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket d_0 \mid \pi : \text{start} \rightarrow^* \text{start} \right\}
\]

\[
\supseteq \llbracket \epsilon \rrbracket d_0
\]

\[
\supseteq d_0
\]

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

\[
\mathcal{I}^*[v] = \bigsqcup \left\{ \llbracket \pi \rrbracket d_0 \mid \pi : \text{start} \rightarrow^* v \right\}
\]

\[
\supseteq \bigsqcup \left\{ \llbracket \pi'k \rrbracket d_0 \mid \pi' : \text{start} \rightarrow^* u \right\}
\]

\[
= \bigsqcup \left\{ \llbracket k \rrbracket \left( \bigsqcup \left\{ \llbracket \pi' \rrbracket d_0 \mid \pi' : \text{start} \rightarrow^* u \right\} \right) \right\}
\]

\[
= \llbracket k \rrbracket \left( \mathcal{I}^*[u] \right)
\]

since \( \left\{ \pi' \mid \pi' : \text{start} \rightarrow^* u \right\} \) is non-empty.
Caveat

- **Reachability** of all program points cannot be abandoned!
  Consider:

```
where \( \mathbb{D} = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\} \)
```
Caveat

- **Reachability** of all program points cannot be abandoned!

Consider:

\[ \mathbb{I} = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\} \]

Then:

\[ \mathcal{I}[2] = \text{inc} \cdot 0 = 1 \]

\[ \mathcal{I}^*[2] = \bigcup \emptyset = 0 \]
Caveat

- **Reachability** of all program points cannot be abandoned!
  Consider:

  \[ \mathbb{D} = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\} \]

  Then:

  \[
  I[2] = \text{inc} 0 = 1 \\
  I^*[2] = \bigcup \emptyset = 0
  \]

- **Unreachable** program points can always be thrown away.
Summary and Application

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

\[
(a \cup (x_1 \cap x_2))\setminus b = ((a \cup x_1) \cap (a \cup x_2))\setminus b
\]

\[
= ((a \cup x_1)\setminus b) \cap ((a \cup x_2)\setminus b)
\]
Summary and Application

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

\[(a \cup (x_1 \cap x_2)) \setminus b = ((a \cup x_1) \cap (a \cup x_2)) \setminus b = ((a \cup x_1) \setminus b) \cap ((a \cup x_2) \setminus b)\]

If all effects of edges are distributive, then the MOP can be computed by means of the constraint system and RR-iteration.
Summary and Application

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

\[
(a \cup (x_1 \cap x_2)) \setminus b = ((a \cup x_1) \cap (a \cup x_2)) \setminus b \\
= ((a \cup x_1) \setminus b) \cap ((a \cup x_2) \setminus b)
\]

→ If all effects of edges are distributive, then the MOP can be computed by means of the constraint system and RR-iteration.

→ If not all effects of edges are distributive, then RR-iteration for the constraint system at least returns a safe upper bound to the MOP.
1.2 Removing Assignments to Dead Variables

Example

1 : \( x = y + 2; \)
2 : \( y = 5; \)
3 : \( x = y + 3; \)

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

Therefore, we call the variable \( x \) dead at these program points.
Remark

→ Assignments to dead variables can be removed!
→ Such inefficiencies may originate from other transformations.
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Formal Definition

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

if $x \in X$ and $\pi$ does not contain a definition of $x$; or:

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

• $k$ is a use of $x$; and
• $\pi_1$ does not contain a definition of $x$. 
Thereby, the set of all defined or used variables at an edge $k = (\_ , \text{lab} , \_)$ is defined by:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lab</th>
<th>used</th>
<th>defined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>;</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{Pos} (e)$</td>
<td>$\text{Vars} (e)$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{Neg} (e)$</td>
<td>$\text{Vars} (e)$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x = e;$</td>
<td>$\text{Vars} (e)$</td>
<td>${ x }$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x = M[e];$</td>
<td>$\text{Vars} (e)$</td>
<td>${ x }$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M[e_1] = e_2;$</td>
<td>$\text{Vars} (e_1) \cup \text{Vars} (e_2)$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A variable $x$ which is not live at $u$ along $\pi$ (relative to $X$) is called dead at $u$ along $\pi$ (relative to $X$).

Example

\[
x = y + 2; \quad y = 5; \quad x = y + 3;
\]

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>live</th>
<th>dead</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>{y}</td>
<td>{x}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
<td>{x, y}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>{y}</td>
<td>{x}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
<td>{x, y}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The variable $x$ is live at $u$ (relative to $X$) if $x$ is live at $u$ along some path to the exit (relative to $X$). Otherwise, $x$ is called dead at $u$ (relative to $X$).
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Question

How can the sets of all dead/live variables be computed for every $u$???
The variable $x$ is live at $u$ (relative to $X$) if $x$ is live at $u$ along some path to the exit (relative to $X$). Otherwise, $x$ is called dead at $u$ (relative to $X$).

**Question**

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

**Idea**

For every edge $k = (u, _, v)$, define a function $[k] \#$ which transforms the set of variables which are live at $v$ into the set of variables which are live at $u$.
Let \( L = 2^{\text{Vars}} \).

For \( k = (\_, \text{lab}, \_) \), define \( [k]^\# = [\text{lab}]^\# \) by:

\[
\begin{align*}
[;]^\# L &= L \\
[\text{Pos}(e)]^\# L &= [\text{Neg}(e)]^\# L = L \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\
[x = e;]^\# L &= (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\
[x = M[e];]^\# L &= (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\
[M[e_1] = e_2;]^\# L &= L \cup \text{Vars}(e_1) \cup \text{Vars}(e_2)
\end{align*}
\]
Let \( L = 2^{\text{Vars}} \).

For \( k = (_-, \text{lab}, _) \), define \( [k]^\# = [\text{lab}]^\# \) by:

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[x = e;]^\# L = (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\
[x = M[e];]^\# L = (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\
[M[e_1] = e_2;]^\# L = L \cup \text{Vars}(e_1) \cup \text{Vars}(e_2)
\]

\( [k]^\# \) can again be composed to the effects of \( [\pi]^\# \) of paths \( \pi = k_1 \ldots k_r \) by:

\[
[\pi]^\# = [k_1]^\# \circ \ldots \circ [k_r]^\#
\]
We verify that these definitions are meaningful ...

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

1 → 2 → 3 → 4 → 5
We verify that these definitions are meaningful ...

\[ x = y + 2; \quad y = 5; \quad x = y + 2; \quad M[y] = x; \]
We verify that these definitions are meaningful ...
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\[ M[y] = x; \]

\[ \emptyset \{x, y\} \]

\[ \{y\} \]

\[ \emptyset \]
We verify that these definitions are meaningful ...

\[ M[y] = x; \]

\[ x = y + 2; \quad y = 5; \quad x = y + 2; \quad M[y] = x; \]
The set of variables which are live at \( u \) then is given by:

\[
\mathcal{L}^*[u] = \bigcup \{ [[\pi]]^\# X \mid \pi : u \rightarrow^* \text{stop} \}
\]

... literally:

- The paths start in \( u \).
  \[ \implies \text{As partial ordering for } \mathbb{L} \text{ we use } \subseteq = \subseteq. \]
- The set of variables which are live at program exit is given by the set \( X \).
Transformation 2

\[ x = e; \quad x \notin \mathcal{L}^*[v] \]

\[ x = M[e]; \quad x \notin \mathcal{L}^*[v] \]
Correctness Proof

→ Correctness of the effects of edges: If $L$ is the set of variables which are live at the exit of the path $\pi$, then $[\pi]^\# L$ is the set of variables which are live at the beginning of $\pi$.

→ Correctness of the transformation along a path: If the value of a variable is accessed, this variable is necessarily live. The value of dead variables thus is irrelevant.

→ Correctness of the transformation: In any execution of the transformed programs, the live variables always receive the same values.
Computation of the sets $\mathcal{L}^*[u]$:

(1) Collecting constraints:

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

(2) Solving the constraint system by means of RR iteration. Since $\mathbb{L}$ is finite, the iteration will terminate.

(3) If the exit is (formally) reachable from every program point, then the smallest solution $\mathcal{L}$ of the constraint system equals $\mathcal{L}^*$ since all $\left[ k \right]^\sharp$ are distributive.
Computation of the sets $\mathcal{L}^*[u]$:

(1) Collecting constraints:

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

(2) Solving the constraint system by means of RR iteration. Since $\mathcal{L}$ is finite, the iteration will terminate.

(3) If the exit is (formally) reachable from every program point, then the smallest solution $\mathcal{L}$ of the constraint system equals $\mathcal{L}^*$ since all $\llbracket k \rrbracket^\#$ are distributive.

Caveat: The information is propagated backwards !!!
Example

\[ x = M[I]; \]
\[ y = 1; \]
\[ M[R] = y; \]
\[ x = x - 1; \]
\[ y = x \ast y; \]
\[ \text{Pos}(x > 1) \]

\[ L[0] \supseteq (L[1]\{x\}) \cup \{I\} \]
\[ L[1] \supseteq L[2]\{y\} \]
\[ L[2] \supseteq (L[6] \cup \{x\}) \cup (L[3] \cup \{x\}) \]
\[ L[3] \supseteq (L[4]\{y\}) \cup \{x, y\} \]
\[ L[4] \supseteq (L[5]\{x\}) \cup \{x\} \]
\[ L[6] \supseteq L[7] \cup \{y, R\} \]
\[ L[7] \supseteq \emptyset \]
Example

\[
x = M[I];
\]

\[
y = 1;
\]

\[
M[R] = y;
\]

\[
x = x - 1;
\]

\[
y = x \ast y;
\]

\[
\text{Pos}(x > 1)
\]

\[
\text{Neg}(x > 1)
\]

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
1 & 2 \\
\hline
\emptyset & \text{ditto} \\
\{y, R\} & \{x, y, R\} \\
\{x, y, R\} & \{x, y, R\} \\
\{x, y, R\} & \{x, R\} \\
\{x, y, R\} & \{I, R\} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]
The left-hand side of no assignment is dead.

Caveat

Removal of assignments to dead variables may kill further variables:

1. 
   \[ x = y + 1; \]

2. 
   \[ z = 2 \times x; \]

3. 
   \[ M[R] = y; \]

4. \[ \emptyset \]
The left-hand side of no assignment is **dead**.

**Caveat**

Removal of assignments to dead variables may kill further variables:

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   \[ x = y + 1; \]

2.  
   \[ z = 2 \times x; \]

3.  
   \( y, R \)
   \[ M[R] = y; \]

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   \( \emptyset \)
The left-hand side of no assignment is **dead**.

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Removal of assignments to dead variables may kill further variables:

1. \( x = y + 1; \)
2. \( x, y, R \)
3. \( z = 2 \times x; \)
4. \( y, R \)
5. \( M[R] = y; \)
6. \( \emptyset \)
The left-hand side of no assignment is **dead**.

**Caveat**

Removal of assignments to dead variables may kill further variables:

```
1
 y, R
 x = y + 1;
```

```
2
 x, y, R
 z = 2 * x;
```

```
3
 y, R
 M[R] = y;
```

```
4
 \emptyset
```
The left-hand side of no assignment is dead.

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Removal of assignments to dead variables may kill further variables:
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**Caveat**

Removal of assignments to dead variables may kill further variables:

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x = y + 1;
z = 2 * x;
M[R] = y;
```

```
x = y + 1;
```

```
M[R] = y;
```
The left-hand side of no assignment is **dead**.

**Caveat**

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 $\pi$ (relative to $X$), either if $x \in X$, $\pi$ does not contain a definition of $x$; or if $\pi$ can be decomposed into $\pi = \pi_1 k \pi_2$ such that:

- $k$ is a true use of $x$ relative to $\pi_2$;
- $\pi_1$ does not contain any definition of $x$. 
The set of truely used variables at an edge $k = (\_, lab, v)$ is defined as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lab</th>
<th>truely used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$;$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pos$(e)$</td>
<td>$\text{Vars}(e)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neg$(e)$</td>
<td>$\text{Vars}(e)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x = e;$</td>
<td>$\text{Vars}(e)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x = M[e];$</td>
<td>$\text{Vars}(e)$</td>
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<td>$M[e_1] = e_2;$</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$(*)$ – given that $x$ is truely live at $v$ w.r.t. $\pi_2$. 

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Example

1

\[ x = y + 1; \]

2

\[ z = 2 \times x; \]

3

\[ M[R] = y; \]

4

\[ \emptyset \]
Example

\[ x = y + 1; \]

\[ z = 2 \ast x; \]

\[ M[R] = y; \]

\[ \emptyset \]
Example

1

$x = y + 1$;

2

$y, R$

$z = 2 \times x$;

3

$y, R$

$M[R] = y$;

4

$\emptyset$
Example

1. \( y, R \)
2. \( x = y + 1; \)
3. \( y, R \)
4. \( z = 2 \times x; \)
5. \( y, R \)
6. \( M[R] = y; \)
7. \( \emptyset \)
Example

\[
\begin{align*}
1 & \quad y, R \\
2 & \quad x = y + 1; \\
3 & \quad z = 2 \times x; \\
4 & \quad M[R] = y;
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
1 & \quad M[R] = y;
\end{align*}
\]
The Effects of Edges

\[\begin{align*}
\xymatrix{\text{[;]}^# L & = & L \\
[\text{Pos}(e)]^# L & = & [\text{Neg}(e)]^# L & = & L \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\
[x = e;]^# L & = & (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\
[x = M[e];]^# L & = & (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\
[M[e_1] = e_2;]^# L & = & L \cup \text{Vars}(e_1) \cup \text{Vars}(e_2) }
\end{align*}\]
The Effects of Edges

\[
\begin{align*}
[;]^\# L &= L \\
[\text{Pos}(e)]^\# L &= [\text{Neg}(e)]^\# L = L \cup \text{Vars}(e) \\
[x = e;]^\# L &= (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup (x \in L) \ ? \ \text{Vars}(e) : \emptyset \\
[x = M[e];]^\# L &= (L \setminus \{x\}) \cup (x \in L) \ ? \ \text{Vars}(e) : \emptyset \\
[M[e_1] = e_2;]^\# L &= L \cup \text{Vars}(e_1) \cup \text{Vars}(e_2)
\end{align*}
\]
Remark

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


Remark

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

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

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

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

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

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

$\Rightarrow$ the constraint system yields the MOP.
• True liveness detects more superfluous assignments than repeated liveness !!!

\[ x = x - 1; \]
• True liveness detects more superfluous assignments than repeated liveness !!!

Liveness

\[
\{x\} \quad x = x - 1; \\
\emptyset \quad x = x - 1;
\]
• True liveness detects more superfluous assignments than repeated liveness !!!

True Liveness

\[ x = x - 1; \]
1.3 Removing Superfluous Moves

Example

\[ T = x + 1; \]
\[ y = T; \]
\[ M[R] = y; \]

This variable-variable assignment is obviously useless.
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This variable-variable assignment is obviously useless. Instead of \( y \), we could also store \( T \)!
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Advantage: Now, \( y \) has become dead.
1.3 Removing Superfluous Moves

Example

```
T = x + 1;
y = T;
M[R] = y;
```

```
T = x + 1;
y = T;
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```

```
T = x + 1;
M[R] = T;
```

Advantage: Now, $y$ has become dead.
Idea

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

We use:  \( \forall = (Expr \setminus Vars) \rightarrow 2^{Vars} \)  ...
Idea

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

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

\[
\begin{align*}
[;]^{\sharp} V &= V \\
[\text{Pos}(e)]^{\sharp} V e' &= [\text{Neg}(e)]^{\sharp} V e' = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } e' = e \\ V e' & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]

\[\ldots\]
\[
\begin{align*}
[x = c;]^{\#} V e' &= \begin{cases} 
(V c) \cup \{x\} & \text{if } e' = c \\
(V e') \setminus \{x\} & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases} \\
[x = y;]^{\#} V e &= \begin{cases} 
(V e) \cup \{x\} & \text{if } y \in V e \\
(V e) \setminus \{x\} & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases} \\
[x = e;]^{\#} V e' &= \begin{cases} 
\{x\} & \text{if } e' = e \\
(V e') \setminus \{x\} & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases} \\
[x = M[c];]^{\#} V e' &= (V e') \setminus \{x\} \\
[x = M[y];]^{\#} V e' &= (V e') \setminus \{x\} \\
[x = M[e];]^{\#} V e' &= \begin{cases} 
\emptyset & \text{if } e' = e \\
(V e') \setminus \{x\} & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]

// analogously for the diverse stores
In the Example

\[
\begin{align*}
\emptyset & \rightarrow T = x + 1; \\
\{x + 1 \mapsto \{T\}\} & \rightarrow y = T; \\
\{x + 1 \mapsto \{y, T\}\} & \rightarrow M[R] = y; \\
\{x + 1 \mapsto \{y, T\}\} & \rightarrow \{x + 1 \mapsto \{y, T\}\}
\end{align*}
\]
In the Example

Let \( T = x + 1; \)
\[
\begin{align*}
\{ x + 1 \mapsto \{ T \} \} \\
\{ x + 1 \mapsto \{ y, T \} \} \\
\{ x + 1 \mapsto \{ y, T \} \}
\end{align*}
\]

\[ M[R] = y; \]

\[ \emptyset \rightarrow \]

We propagate information in forward direction.

At \textit{start}, \( V_0 \ e = \emptyset \) for all \( e; \)

\[ \sqsubseteq \sqsubseteq V \times V \]
is defined by:

\[ V_1 \sqsubseteq V_2 \iff V_1 \ e \supseteq V_2 \ e \]
for all \( e \)
Observation

The new effects of edges are distributive:

To show this, we consider the functions:

(1) \( f^x_{1} \ V \ e = (V \ e) \setminus \{x\} \)

(2) \( f^{e,a}_{2} \ V = V \oplus \{e \mapsto a\} \)

(3) \( f^{x,y}_{3} \ V \ e = (y \in V \ e) \land (V \ e \cup \{x\}) : ((V \ e) \setminus \{x\}) \)

Obviously, we have:

\[
\begin{align*}
[x = e;]^\# &= f^{e,\{x\}}_{2} \circ f^x_{1} \\
[x = y;]^\# &= f^{x,y}_{3} \\
[x = M[e];]^\# &= f^{e,\emptyset}_{2} \circ f^x_{1}
\end{align*}
\]

By closure under composition, the assertion follows.
(1) For \( f V e = (V e)\backslash\{x\} \), we have:

\[
\begin{align*}
f (V_1 \sqcup V_2) e &= ((V_1 \sqcup V_2) e)\backslash\{x\} \\
&= ((V_1 e) \cap (V_2 e))\backslash\{x\} \\
&= ((V_1 e)\backslash\{x\}) \cap ((V_2 e)\backslash\{x\}) \\
&= (f V_1 e) \cap (f V_2 e) \\
&= (f V_1 \sqcup f V_2) e
\end{align*}
\]
For \( f V = V \oplus \{ e \mapsto a \} \), we have:

\[
\begin{align*}
  f (V_1 \sqcup V_2) e' &= ((V_1 \sqcup V_2) \oplus \{ e \mapsto a \}) e' \\
  &= (V_1 \sqcup V_2) e' \\
  &= (f V_1 \sqcup f V_2) e' \quad \text{given that} \quad e \neq e' \\

  f (V_1 \sqcup V_2) e &= ((V_1 \sqcup V_2) \oplus \{ e \mapsto a \}) e \\
  &= a \\
  &= ((V_1 \oplus \{ e \mapsto a \}) e) \cap ((V_2 \oplus \{ e \mapsto a \}) e) \\
  &= (f V_1 \sqcup f V_2) e
\end{align*}
\]

(2)
(3) For \( f V e = (y \in V e) ? (V e \cup \{x\}) : ((V e) \setminus \{x\}) \), we have:

\[
\begin{align*}
    f (V_1 \sqcup V_2) & = (((V_1 \sqcup V_2) \setminus \{x\}) \cup (y \in (V_1 \sqcup V_2) ? \{x\} : \emptyset) \\
                        & = ((V_1 e \cap V_2 e) \setminus \{x\}) \cup (y \in (V_1 e \cap V_2 e) ? \{x\} : \emptyset) \\
                        & = ((V_1 e \cap V_2 e) \setminus \{x\}) \cup \bigg( (y \in V_1 e) ? \{x\} : \emptyset \bigg) \cap \bigg( (y \in V_2 e) ? \{x\} : \emptyset \bigg) \\
                        & = (((V_1 e) \setminus \{x\}) \cup (y \in V_1 e) ? \{x\} : \emptyset) \cap \bigg( ((V_2 e) \setminus \{x\}) \cup (y \in V_2 e) ? \{x\} : \emptyset \bigg) \\
                        & = (f V_1 \sqcup f V_2) e
\end{align*}
\]
We conclude:

→ Solving the constraint system returns the MOP solution.

→ Let \( \mathcal{V} \) denote this solution.

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

\[ \Rightarrow \]

the access to \( x \) can be replaced by the access to \( T_e \).

For \( \mathcal{V} \in \mathcal{V} \), let \( \mathcal{V}^- \) denote the variable substitution with:

\[
\mathcal{V}^- x = \begin{cases} 
T_e & \text{if } x \in V e \\
x & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

if \( V e \cap V e' = \emptyset \) for \( e \neq e' \). Otherwise: \( \mathcal{V}^- x = x \).
Transformation 3

\[ \sigma = \mathcal{V}[u]^- \]

... analogously for edges with \( \text{Neg}(e) \)

\[ x = e; \]

\[ x = \sigma(e); \]
Transformation 3 (cont.)

\[ \sigma = \mathcal{V}[u]^- \]

\[ x = M[e]; \quad \rightarrow \quad x = M[\sigma(e)]; \]

\[ M[e_1] = e_2; \quad \rightarrow \quad M[\sigma(e_1)] = \sigma(e_2); \]
Procedure as a whole:

(1) Availability of expressions: $T_1$
   - removes arithmetic operations
   - inserts superfluous moves

(2) Values of variables: $T_3$
   - creates dead variables

(3) (true) liveness of variables: $T_2$
   - removes assignments to dead variables
Example: $a[7]--;$

\[\begin{align*}
A_1 &= A + 7; \\
B_1 &= M[A_1]; \\
B_2 &= B_1 - 1; \\
A_2 &= A + 7; \\
M[A_2] &= B_2;
\end{align*}\]

\[\begin{align*}
T_1 &= A + 7; \\
A_1 &= T_1; \\
B_1 &= M[A_1]; \\
T_2 &= B_1 - 1; \\
B_2 &= T_2; \\
T_1 &= A + 7; \\
A_2 &= T_1; \\
M[A_2] &= B_2;
\end{align*}\]
Example: $a[7]--$;

1. $A_1 = A + 7$
2. $B_1 = M[A_1]$
3. $B_2 = B_1 - 1$
4. $A_2 = A + 7$
5. $M[A_2] = B_2$

$T_1 = A + 7$

$A_1 = T_1$

$B_1 = M[A_1]$

$B_2 = B_1 - 1$

$T_2 = T_1$

$M[A_2] = B_2$

$B_2 = T_2$

$T_1 = A + 7$

$A_1 = T_1$

$B_1 = M[A_1]$

$B_2 = B_1 - 1$

$T_2 = T_1$

$M[A_2] = B_2$

$B_2 = T_2$

$A_2 = T_1$

$M[A_2] = B_2$
Example (cont.): \(\texttt{a[7]--;}\)

\[
\begin{align*}
T_1 &= A + 7; \\
A_1 &= T_1; \\
B_1 &= M[A_1]; \\
T_2 &= B_1 - 1; \\
B_2 &= T_2; \\
\vdots \\
A_2 &= T_1; \\
M[A_2] &= B_2;
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
T_1 &= A + 7; \\
A_1 &= T_1; \\
B_1 &= M[T_1]; \\
T_2 &= B_1 - 1; \\
B_2 &= T_2; \\
\vdots \\
A_2 &= T_1; \\
M[T_1] &= T_2;
\end{align*}
\]
Example (cont.): a[7]--;
1.4 Constant Propagation

Idea

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

Example

\[ x = 7; \]
\[ \text{if } (x > 0) \]
\[ M[A] = B; \]
Obviously, \( x \) has always the value 7.
Thus, the memory access is always executed.

**Goal**

\[ M[A] = B; \]
Obviously, $x$ has always the value 7.
Thus, the memory access is always executed.

Goal
Generalization: Partial Evaluation

Neil D. Jones, DIKU, Kopenhagen
Idea

Design an analysis which for every $u$,

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

Design an analysis which for every $u$,

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

The complete lattice is constructed in two steps.

(1) The potential values of variables:

$$
\mathbb{Z}^\top = \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\top\}
$$

with $x \sqsubseteq y$ iff $y = \top$ or $x = y$
Caveat: $\mathbb{Z}^\top$ is not a complete lattice in itself.

\[ (2) \quad \mathbb{D} = (\text{Vars} \to \mathbb{Z}^\top)_\bot = (\text{Vars} \to \mathbb{Z}^\top) \cup \{\bot\} \]

// $\bot$ denotes: “not reachable”.

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

Remark: $\mathbb{D}$ is a complete lattice.
Caveat: \( \mathbb{Z}^\top \) is not a complete lattice in itself.

\begin{equation}
D = (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top)_\perp = (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top) \cup \{\perp\}
\end{equation}

// \( \perp \) denotes: “not reachable”.

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

Remark: \( D \) is a complete lattice.

Consider \( X \subseteq D \). W.l.o.g., \( \perp \notin X \).

Then \( X \subseteq \text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top \).

If \( X = \emptyset \), then \( \bigcup X = \perp \in D \).
If \( X \neq \emptyset \), then \( \biguplus X = D \) with

\[
D x = \biguplus \{ f x \mid f \in X \}
\]

\[
= \begin{cases} 
z & \text{if } f x = z \ (f \in X) \\
\top & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]
If \( X \neq \emptyset \), then \( \bigcup X = D \) with

\[
D x = \bigcup \{ f x \mid f \in X \} = \begin{cases} 
  z & \text{if } f x = z \ (f \in X) \\
  \top & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

For every edge \( k = (_-, \text{lab}, _) \), construct an effect function \([k] \# = [\text{lab}] \# : D \to D\) which simulates the concrete computation.

Obviously, \([\text{lab}] \# \bot = \bot\) for all \( \text{lab} \).

Now let \( \bot \neq D \in \text{Vars} \to \mathbb{Z}^{\top} \).
Idea

- We use $D$ to determine the values of expressions.
Idea

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- For some sub-expressions, we obtain $\top$.
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We must replace the concrete operators $\square$ by abstract operators $\square^\#$ which can handle $\top$:

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

- We use $D$ to determine the values of expressions.
- For some sub-expressions, we obtain $\top$.

We must replace the concrete operators $\square$ by abstract operators $\square\#$ which can handle $\top$:

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

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

$$[[e]]^\# : (Vars \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top$$
Abstract evaluation of expressions is like the concrete evaluation — but with abstract values and operators. Here:

\[
\begin{align*}
[c]^D & = c \\
[e_1 \square e_2]^D & = [e_1]^D \square^D [e_2]^D
\end{align*}
\]

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

\[
\begin{align*}
[c]^D & = c \\
[e_1 \square e_2]^D & = [e_1]^D \square [e_2]^D
\end{align*}
\]

... analogously for unary operators.

Example:

\[
D = \{ x \mapsto 2, y \mapsto \top \}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
& = 2 + 7 \\
& = 9 \\
[x - y]^D & = 2 - \top \\
& = \top
\end{align*}
\]
Thus, we obtain the following effects of edges $[lab]^\#$:

\[
\begin{align*}
\; & \Rightarrow D &= D \\
\; & \Leftrightarrow \text{Pos (e)} \Rightarrow D &= \begin{cases} 
\bot & \text{if } 0 = \Rightarrow \text{e} \\ 
D & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases} \\
\; & \Leftrightarrow \text{Neg (e)} \Rightarrow D &= \begin{cases} 
D & \text{if } 0 \sqsubseteq \Rightarrow \text{e} \\ 
\bot & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases} \\
\; & \Leftrightarrow x = e \Rightarrow D &= D \oplus \{x \mapsto \Rightarrow \text{e} \} \\
\; & \Leftrightarrow x = M[e] \Rightarrow D &= D \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\} \\
\; & \Leftrightarrow M[e_1] = e_2 \Rightarrow D &= D
\end{align*}
\]

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

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At \textit{start}, we have \( D_{\top} = \{ x \mapsto \top \mid x \in \text{Vars} \} \).

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

**Example**

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
1 & \{ x \mapsto \top \} \\
2 & \{ x \mapsto 7 \} \\
3 & \{ x \mapsto 7 \} \\
4 & \{ x \mapsto 7 \} \\
5 & \bot \sqcup \{ x \mapsto 7 \} = \{ x \mapsto 7 \}
\end{array}
\]
The abstract effects of edges \([k]^{\#}\) are again composed to the effects of paths \(\pi = k_1 \ldots k_r\) by:

\[
[\pi]^{\#} = [k_r]^{\#} \circ \ldots \circ [k_1]^{\#} : D \rightarrow D
\]

Idea for Correctness: Abstract Interpretation
Cousot, Cousot 1977
Patrick Cousot, ENS, Paris
The abstract effects of edges \([k]\) are again composed to the effects of paths \(\pi = k_1 \ldots k_r\) by:

\[
[\pi]^\# = [k_r]^\# \circ \ldots \circ [k_1]^\# : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}
\]

**Idea for Correctness:**

*Abstract Interpretation*

Cousot, Cousot 1977

Establish a description relation \(\Delta\) between the *concrete* values and their descriptions with:

\[
x \Delta a_1 \land a_1 \sqsubseteq a_2 \implies x \Delta a_2
\]

**Concretization:**

\[
\gamma a = \{x \mid x \Delta a\}
\]

// returns the set of described values.
(1) \textbf{Values:} \quad \Delta \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^\top

\[
z \Delta a \quad \text{iff} \quad z = a \lor a = T
\]

\textbf{Concretization:}

\[
\gamma a = \begin{cases} 
\{a\} & \text{if} \quad a \sqsubseteq T \\
\mathbb{Z} & \text{if} \quad a = T
\end{cases}
\]
(1) Values: \( \Delta \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^\top \)

\[ z \Delta a \iff z = a \lor a = \top \]

Concretization:

\[ \gamma a = \begin{cases} \{a\} & \text{if } a \sqsubseteq \top \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } a = \top \end{cases} \]

(2) Variable Assignments: \( \Delta \subseteq (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}) \times (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top) \perp \)

\[ \rho \Delta D \iff D \neq \perp \land \rho x \sqsubseteq D x \quad (x \in \text{Vars}) \]

Concretization:

\[ \gamma D = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } D = \perp \\ \{\rho \mid \forall x : (\rho x) \Delta (D x)\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \]
Example: \( \{ x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto -7 \} \triangle \{ x \mapsto \top, y \mapsto -7 \} \)

(3) States:

\[ \Delta \subseteq \left( (\text{Vars} \to \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}) \right) \times (\text{Vars} \to \mathbb{Z}^\top) \downarrow \]

\[ (\rho, \mu) \triangle \Delta \quad \text{iff} \quad \rho \triangle \Delta \]

Concretization:

\[ \gamma D = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } D = \bot \\ \{ (\rho, \mu) \mid \forall x : (\rho x) \triangle (D x) \} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \]
We show:

\[(\ast) \quad \text{If } s \triangle D \quad \text{and} \quad \llbracket \pi \rrbracket s \quad \text{is defined, then:}
\]

\[\left(\llbracket \pi \rrbracket s\right) \triangle \left(\llbracket \pi \rrbracket \# D\right)\]
The abstract semantics simulates the concrete semantics. In particular:

\[
\llbracket \pi \rrbracket s \in \gamma (\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^D D)
\]
The abstract semantics simulates the concrete semantics. In particular:

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

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

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

$$\implies \rho_1 x = -7 \text{ for } (\rho_1,_) = [\pi] s$$
To prove \((*)\), we show for every edge \(k\):

\[(**)
\]

Then \((*)\) follows by induction.
To prove (**) , we show for every expression \( e \) : 

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

$(***)$  $([e] \rho) \Delta ([e]^\# D)$  whenever  $\rho \Delta D$

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

$\Box$  $(x \Box y) \Delta (x^\# \Box^\# y^\#)$  whenever  $x \Delta x^\# \land y \Delta y^\#$
To prove (**) , we show for every expression $e$ :

\[(***) \quad ([e] \rho) \triangle ([e]^{\#} D) \quad \text{whenever} \quad \rho \triangle D\]

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

\[(\square x \, y) \triangle (x^{\#} \, \square^{\#} y^{\#}) \quad \text{whenever} \quad x \triangle x^{\#} \land y \triangle y^{\#}\]

This precisely was how we have defined the operators $\square^{\#}$. 
Now, (**) is proved by case distinction on the edge labels $l_{ab}$.

Let $s = (\rho, \mu) \triangle D$. In particular, $\bot \neq D : Vars \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top$

Case $x = e;:

\begin{align*}
\rho_1 &= \rho \oplus \{x \mapsto \llbracket e \rrbracket \rho\} \\
\mu_1 &= \mu \\
D_1 &= D \oplus \{x \mapsto \llbracket e \rrbracket \# D\}
\end{align*}

\implies (\rho_1, \mu_1) \triangle D_1
Case $x = M[e];$:

\[
\begin{align*}
\rho_1 &= \rho \oplus \{ x \mapsto \mu ([e]^{\#} \rho) \} \\
\mu_1 &= \mu \\
D_1 &= D \oplus \{ x \mapsto \top \}
\end{align*}
\]

$\implies (\rho_1, \mu_1) \Delta D_1$

Case $M[e_1] = e_2;$:

\[
\begin{align*}
\rho_1 &= \rho \\
\mu_1 &= \mu \oplus \{ [e_1]^{\#} \rho \mapsto [e_2]^{\#} \rho \} \\
D_1 &= D
\end{align*}
\]

$\implies (\rho_1, \mu_1) \Delta D_1$
Case $\text{Neg}(e)$: $(\rho_1, \mu_1) = s$ where:

\[
0 \quad = \quad [e] \rho \\
\Delta \quad [e]^\# \ D \\
\implies 0 \quad \sqsubseteq \quad [e]^\# \ D \\
\implies \bot \quad \neq \quad D_1 = D \\
\implies (\rho_1, \mu_1) \Delta D_1
\]
Case $\text{Pos}(e)$: $(\rho_1, \mu_1) = s$ where:

\[
0 \neq [e] \rho \\
\Delta \ [e] \# D \\
\implies 0 \neq [e] \# D \\
\implies \bot \neq D_1 = D \\
\implies (\rho_1, \mu_1) \Delta D_1
\]
We conclude: The assertion $(\ast)$ is true.

The MOP-Solution:

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

where $$D_{\top} x = \top \quad (x \in Vars).$$
We conclude: The assertion \((*)\) is true.

The MOP-Solution:

\[
D^* [v] = \bigsqcup \{ [[\pi]]^\# \mid D_T \mid \pi : start \rightarrow^* v \}
\]

where \(D_T x = \top \quad (x \in Vars)\).

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

\[
([\pi] s) \triangle (D^* [v])
\]
We conclude: The assertion \((*)\) is true.

The MOP-Solution

\[ D^*[v] = \bigsqcup \{ [[\pi]]^\# D_T | \pi: start \to^* v \} \]

where \( D_T x = \top \) \((x \in Vars)\).

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

\[ ([[\pi]] s) \Delta (D^*[v]) \]

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

\[ x = 10; \]
\[ y = 1; \]

Neg(\(x > 1\))

Pos(\(x > 1\))

M[R] = y;

\[ y = x \times y; \]
\[ x = x - 1; \]
Example

\[ x = 10; \]
\[ y = 1; \]
\[ \text{Pos}(x > 1) \]
\[ M[R] = y; \]
\[ y = x \times y; \]
\[ x = x - 1; \]
\[ \text{Neg}(x > 1) \]

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Example

\[ x = 10; \]
\[ y = 1; \]
\[ \text{Neg}(x > 1) \]
\[ \text{Pos}(x > 1) \]
\[ M[R] = y; \]
\[ y = x * y; \]
\[ x = x - 1; \]

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</table>
Example

\[ x = 10; \]
\[ y = 1; \]
\[ \text{Neg}(x > 1) \]
\[ \text{Pos}(x > 1) \]
\[ M[R] = y; \]
\[ y = x \times y; \]
\[ x = x - 1; \]

\[ 0 \]
\[ 1 \]
\[ 2 \]
\[ 6 \]
\[ 3 \]
\[ 4 \]
\[ 7 \]

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
\text{1} & \text{2} & \text{3} \\
\hline
\text{x} & \text{y} & \text{x} & \text{y} & \text{x} & \text{y} \\
\hline
0 & T & T & T & T & \text{ditto} \\
1 & 10 & T & 10 & T & \text{ditto} \\
2 & 10 & 1 & T & T & \text{ditto} \\
3 & 10 & 1 & T & T & \text{ditto} \\
4 & 10 & 10 & T & T & \text{ditto} \\
5 & 9 & 10 & T & T & \text{ditto} \\
6 & \perp & T & T & \text{ditto} \\
7 & \perp & T & T & \text{ditto} \\
\end{array}
\]
Conclusion

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

The fixpoint iteration, at least, is guaranteed to terminate:
For $n$ program points and $m$ variables, we maximally need: $n \cdot (m + 1)$ rounds.

Caveat

The effects of edge are not distributive !!!
Counter Example: \[ f = [x = x + y;]^{*} \]

Let \[ D_1 = \{ x \mapsto 2, y \mapsto 3 \} \]
\[ D_2 = \{ x \mapsto 3, y \mapsto 2 \} \]

Dann \[ f D_1 \sqcup f D_2 = \{ x \mapsto 5, y \mapsto 3 \} \sqcup \{ x \mapsto 5, y \mapsto 2 \} \]
\[ = \{ x \mapsto 5, y \mapsto \top \} \]
\[ \neq \{ x \mapsto \top, y \mapsto \top \} \]
\[ = f \{ x \mapsto \top, y \mapsto \top \} \]
\[ = f (D_1 \sqcup D_2) \]
We conclude:

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

\[
\mathcal{D}^*[v] \subseteq \mathcal{D}[v]
\]
We conclude:

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

$$D^*[v] \subseteq D[v]$$

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

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

whenever $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket (\rho, \mu)$ is defined.
Transformation 4: Removal of Dead Code

\[ D[u] = \bot \]

\( \llbracket \text{lab} \rrbracket \#(D[u]) = \bot \)
Transformation 4 (cont.): Removal of Dead Code

\[ \bot \neq D[u] = D \]
\[ [e]^\# D = 0 \]

\[ \bot \neq D[u] = D \]
\[ [e]^\# D \notin \{0, \top\} \]
Transformation 4 (cont.): Simplified Expressions

\[ \perp \neq D[u] = D \]
\[ [e] \# D = c \]

\[ x = e; \]

\[ x = c; \]
Extensions

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

\[ x + (3 \times y) \rightarrow^{\{x \mapsto \top, y \mapsto 5\}} x + 15 \]

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

\[
\begin{align*}
  x \times 0 & \rightarrow 0 \\
  x \times 1 & \rightarrow x \\
  x + 0 & \rightarrow x \\
  x - 0 & \rightarrow x \\
   \ldots
\end{align*}
\]
So far, the information of conditions has not yet be optimally exploited:

\[
\text{if } (x == 7) \\
\quad y = x + 3;
\]

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

Therefore, we can define:

\[
[P_{x==e}]\# D = \begin{cases} 
D & \text{if } [x == e]\# D = 1 \\
\bot & \text{if } [x == e]\# D = 0 \\
D_1 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

where

\[
D_1 = D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x \setminus [e] \# D)\}
\]
The effect of an edge labeled $\text{Neg}(x \neq e)$ is analogous.

Our Example

$$\text{Neg}(x == 7) \quad \text{Pos}(x == 7)$$

$$y = x + 3;$$

;
The effect of an edge labeled \( \text{Neg}\ (x \neq e) \) is analogous.

Our Example

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Neg}\ (x == 7) & \quad \text{Pos}\ (x == 7) \\
0 \quad x \mapsto T & \quad 1 \quad x \mapsto 7 \\
& \quad 2 \quad y = x + 3; \quad x \mapsto 7 \\
& \quad 3 \quad ; \quad x \mapsto T
\end{align*} \]
The effect of an edge labeled $\text{Neg}(x \neq e)$ is analogous.

Our Example

\begin{align*}
\text{Neg}(x == 7) & \quad \text{Pos}(x == 7) & \quad \text{Neg}(x == 7) \\
0 & \quad 1 & \quad 0 \\
1 & \quad 2 & \quad 1 \\
2 & \quad 3 & \quad 2 \\
3 & & \quad 3 \\
\end{align*}

$y = x + 3$; $y = 10$;
1.5 Interval Analysis

Observation

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

⇒

Constant propagation is useful!

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

for (i = 0; i < 42; i++)
    if (0 ≤ i ∧ i < 42) {
        A₁ = A + i;
        M[A₁] = i;
    }

// A start address of an array
// if the array-bound check

The inner check is superfluous.
Idea 1

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

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

Partial Ordering:

$$
[l_1, u_1] \subseteq [l_2, u_2] \quad \text{iff} \quad l_2 \leq l_1 \land u_1 \leq u_2
$$
Thus:

\[ [l_1, u_1] \sqcup [l_2, u_2] = [l_1 \sqcap l_2, u_1 \sqcup u_2] \]
Thus:

\[ [l_1, u_1] \sqcup [l_2, u_2] = [l_1 \cap l_2, u_1 \sqcup u_2] \]

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

→ \(\mathbb{I}\) is not a complete lattice!

→ \(\mathbb{I}\) has infinite ascending chains, e.g.,

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

$\rightarrow$ $\mathbb{I}$ is not a complete lattice!

$\rightarrow$ $\mathbb{I}$ has infinite ascending chains, e.g.,

\[ [0, 0] \sqsubseteq [0, 1] \sqsubseteq [-1, 1] \sqsubseteq [-1, 2] \sqsubseteq \ldots \]

Description Relation:

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

Concretization:

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

\[
\gamma [0, 7] = \{0, \ldots, 7\} \\
\gamma [0, \infty] = \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}
\]

Computing with intervals: Interval Arithmetic

Addition:

\[
[l_1, u_1] +^\# [l_2, u_2] = [l_1 + l_2, u_1 + u_2] \quad \text{where}
\]
\[
-\infty + _- = -\infty \\
+\infty + _- = +\infty \\
// -\infty + \infty \text{ cannot occur!}
\]
Negation:

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

Multiplication:

\([l_1, u_1] \# [l_2, u_2] = [a, b] \text{ where}\]
\[a = l_1 l_2 \cap l_1 u_2 \cap u_1 l_2 \cap u_1 u_2\]
\[b = l_1 l_2 \cup l_1 u_2 \cup u_1 l_2 \cup u_1 u_2\]

Example

\([0, 2] \# [3, 4] = [0, 8]\]
\([-1, 2] \# [3, 4] = [-4, 8]\]
\([-1, 2] \# [-3, 4] = [-6, 8]\]
\([-1, 2] \# [-4, -3] = [-8, 4]\]
Division: \[ [l_1, u_1] /\# [l_2, u_2] = [a, b] \]

- If 0 is not contained in the interval of the denominator, then:
  \[
  a = \frac{l_1}{l_2} \cap \frac{l_1}{u_2} \cap \frac{u_1}{l_2} \cap \frac{u_1}{u_2} \\
  b = \frac{l_1}{l_2} \cup \frac{l_1}{u_2} \cup \frac{u_1}{l_2} \cup \frac{u_1}{u_2}
  \]

- If: \( l_2 \leq 0 \leq u_2 \), we define:
  \[ [a, b] = [-\infty, +\infty] \]
Equality:

\[[l_1, u_1] = =^\# [l_2, u_2] = \begin{cases} [1, 1] & \text{if } l_1 = u_1 = l_2 = u_2 \\ [0, 0] & \text{if } u_1 < l_2 \lor u_2 < l_1 \\ [0, 1] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}\]
Equality:

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

Example

\[
[42, 42] \equiv [42, 42] = [1, 1] \\
[0, 7] \equiv [0, 7] = [0, 1] \\
[1, 2] \equiv [3, 4] = [0, 0]
\]
Less:

$$[l_1, u_1] \not<^\# [l_2, u_2] = \begin{cases} [1, 1] & \text{if } u_1 < l_2 \\ [0, 0] & \text{if } u_2 \leq l_1 \\ [0, 1] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
Less:

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

Example

\[ [1, 2] <^\# [9, 42] = [1, 1] \]
\[ [0, 7] <^\# [0, 7] = [0, 1] \]
\[ [3, 4] <^\# [1, 2] = [0, 0] \]
By means of $I$, we construct the complete lattice:

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

**Description Relation:**

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

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

$$
([e] \rho) \Delta ([e]D) \quad \text{whenever} \quad \rho \Delta D
$$
The Effects of Edges:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{[;]}^\# D &= D \\
[x = e;]^\# D &= D \oplus \{x \mapsto [e]^\# D\} \\
[x = M[e];]^\# D &= D \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\} \\
[M[e_1] = e_2;]^\# D &= D \\
[\text{Pos } (e)]^\# D &= \begin{cases} 
\bot & \text{if } [0, 0] = [e]^\# D \\
B & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases} \\
[\text{Neg } (e)]^\# D &= \begin{cases} 
D & \text{if } [0, 0] \sqsubseteq [e]^\# D \\
\bot & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]

... given that \( D \neq \bot \).
Better Exploitation of Conditions

\[ [\text{Pos}(e)]^\# D = \begin{cases} 
\bot & \text{if } [0, 0] = [e]^\# D \\
D_1 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases} \]

where:

\[ D_1 = \begin{cases} 
D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \cap ([e_1]^\# D)\} & \text{if } e \equiv x = e_1 \\
D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \cap [-\infty, u]\} & \text{if } e \equiv x \leq e_1, [e_1]^\# D = [\_, u] \\
D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D x) \cap [l, \infty]\} & \text{if } e \equiv x \geq e_1, [e_1]^\# D = [l, \_]
\end{cases} \]
Better Exploitation of Conditions (cont.)

\[
\neg (e) \equiv \begin{cases} 
\bot & \text{if } [0, 0] \not\subseteq [e] \# D \\
D_1 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

where:

\[
D_1 = \begin{cases} 
D \oplus \{ x \mapsto (D x) \cap ([e_1] \# D) \} & \text{if } e \equiv x \neq e_1 \\
D \oplus \{ x \mapsto (D x) \cap [-\infty, u] \} & \text{if } e \equiv x > e_1, [e_1] \# D = [\_, u] \\
D \oplus \{ x \mapsto (D x) \cap [l, \infty] \} & \text{if } e \equiv x < e_1, [e_1] \# D = [l, \_]
\end{cases}
\]
Example

\[ i = 0; \]

\[ \text{Neg}(i < 42) \]

\[ \text{Pos}(i < 42) \]

\[ \text{Neg}(0 \leq i < 42) \]

\[ \text{Pos}(0 \leq i < 42) \]

\[ A_1 = A + i; \]

\[ M[A_1] = i; \]

\[ i = i + 1; \]

\[
\begin{array}{c|cc}
\hline
i & l & u \\
\hline
0 & -\infty & +\infty \\
1 & 0 & 42 \\
2 & 0 & 41 \\
3 & 0 & 41 \\
4 & 0 & 41 \\
5 & 0 & 41 \\
6 & 1 & 42 \\
7 & \bot & \\
8 & 42 & 42 \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]
Problem

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

Idea 1  Widening

• Accelerate the iteration — at the prize of imprecision.
• Allow only a bounded number of modifications of values !!!

... in the Example

• dis-allow updates of interval bounds in \( \mathbb{Z} \) ...

\[ [3, 17] \sqsubset [3, +\infty] \sqsubset [-\infty, +\infty] \]
Formalization of the Approach

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

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

\[
 x_i = x_i \sqcup f_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \ldots, n
\]  

We obviously have:

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

(b) The function \( G : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n \) with
\[
 G(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = (y_1, \ldots, y_n), \quad y_i = x_i \sqcup f_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n)
\]
is increasing, i.e., \( x \sqsubseteq Gx \) for all \( x \in \mathbb{D}^n \).
(c) The sequence \( G^k \bot, \ k \geq 0, \) is an ascending chain:

\[
\bot \subseteq G \subseteq \ldots \subseteq G^k \subseteq \ldots
\]

(d) If \( G^k \bot = G^{k+1} \bot = y \), then \( y \) 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:

\[
x_i = x_i \sqcup f_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \ldots, n
\]

(3) for a binary operation *widening*:

\[
\sqcup : \mathbb{D}^2 \to \mathbb{D} \quad \text{with} \quad v_1 \sqcup v_2 \subseteq v_1 \sqcup v_2
\]

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

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

\[
\bot \sqcup D = D \sqcup \bot = D \\
(D_1 \sqcup D_2) \, x = (D_1 \, x) \sqcup (D_2 \, x) \quad \text{where}
\]

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

\[
\begin{align*}
l &= \begin{cases} 
l_1 & \text{if } l_1 \leq l_2 \\
-\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
u &= \begin{cases} 
u_1 & \text{if } \nu_1 \geq \nu_2 \\
+\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]

\(\implies\) \( \sqcup \) 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 ⊔ is chosen dynamically during iteration such that
→ the abstract values do not get too complicated;
→ the number of updates remains bounded ...
Our Example

\[ i = 0; \]

Neg\((i < 42)\)  Pos\((i < 42)\)

\[ \text{Neg}(0 \leq i < 42) \]

\[ \text{Pos}(0 \leq i < 42) \]

\[ A_1 = A + i; \]

\[ M[A_1] = i; \]

\[ i = i + 1; \]

\[ \begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
l & u \\
\hline
0 & -\infty & +\infty \\
1 & 0 & 0 \\
2 & 0 & 0 \\
3 & 0 & 0 \\
4 & 0 & 0 \\
5 & 0 & 0 \\
6 & 1 & 1 \\
7 & \bot & \\
8 & \bot & \\
\hline
\end{array} \]
Our Example

\[
i = 0; \\
Pos(i < 42) \\
Neg(0 \leq i < 42) \\
Neg(i < 42) \\

\]

\[
\text{Neg}(0 \leq i < 42) \\
\text{Pos}(0 \leq i < 42) \\
\text{Pos}(i < 42) \\
\]

\[
A_1 = A + i; \\
M[A_1] = i; \\
i = i + 1; \\
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{l} & \text{u} & \text{l} & \text{u} \\
0 & -\infty & +\infty & -\infty & +\infty \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & +\infty \\
2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & +\infty \\
3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & +\infty \\
4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & +\infty \\
5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & +\infty \\
6 & 1 & 1 & 1 & +\infty \\
7 & \perp & 42 & +\infty \\
8 & \perp & 42 & +\infty \\
\end{array}
\]
... obviously, the result is disappointing!

Idea 2

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

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

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

\[ i = 0; \]

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Neg}(i < 42) & \Rightarrow 1 \\
\text{Neg}(0 \leq i < 42) & \Rightarrow 8 \\
\text{Pos}(0 \leq i < 42) & \Rightarrow 2
\end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Pos}(i < 42) & \Rightarrow 3 \\
\text{Pos}(0 \leq i < 42) & \Rightarrow 7
\end{align*} \]

1. \[ A_1 = A + i; \]
2. \[ M[A_1] = i; \]
3. \[ i = i + 1; \]

\[ I_1 = \{1\} \quad \text{or:} \]
\[ I_2 = \{2\} \quad \text{or:} \]
\[ I_3 = \{3\} \]
The Analysis with $I = \{1\}$:

$\begin{align*}
0 & \quad i = 0; \\
1 & \quad \text{Neg}(i < 42) \quad \text{Pos}(i < 42) \\
2 & \quad \text{Neg}(0 \leq i < 42) \quad \text{Pos}(0 \leq i < 42) \\
3 & \quad A_1 = A + i; \\
4 & \quad M[A_1] = i; \\
5 & \quad i = i + 1; \\
6 & \\
7 & \\
8 & \quad \bot \;
\end{align*}$

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\
\hline
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 \\
5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 41 \\
6 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 42 \\
7 & $\bot$ & $\bot$ & & \\
8 & $\bot$ & 42 & & $+\infty$ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

ditto
The Analysis with \( I = \{2\} \):

\[
\begin{align*}
i &= 0; \\
\text{Neg}(i < 42) &\quad \text{Pos}(i < 42) \\
\text{Neg}(0 \leq i < 42) &\quad \text{Pos}(0 \leq i < 42)
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
3 &\quad A_1 = A + i; \\
4 &\quad M[A_1] = i; \\
5 &\quad i = i + 1;
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
& 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\
\hline
l & -\infty & +\infty & -\infty & +\infty & -\infty & +\infty \\
\hline
u & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 42 \\
\hline
l & 0 & 0 & 0 & +\infty & 0 & +\infty \\
\hline
u & 0 & 0 & 0 & 41 & 0 & 41 \\
\hline
l & 0 & 0 & 0 & 41 & 0 & 41 \\
\hline
u & 0 & 0 & 0 & 41 & 0 & 41 \\
\hline
l & 1 & 1 & 1 & 42 & 1 & 42 \\
\hline
u & 42 & +\infty & 42 & +\infty & & \\
\hline
l & \bot & \bot & \bot & 42 & 42 \\
\hline
u & & & & & & \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

ditto
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 $x$ denote any solution of (1), i.e.,

$$x_i \supseteq f_i x, \quad i = 1, \ldots, n$$

Then for monotonic $f_i$,

$$x \supseteq F x \supseteq F^2 x \supseteq \ldots \supseteq F^k x \supseteq \ldots$$

// Narrowing Iteration
Idea 3: Narrowing

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

\[
x_i \supseteq f_ix, \quad i = 1, \ldots, n
\]

Then for monotonic \( f_i \),

\[
x \supseteq Fx \supseteq F^2x \supseteq \ldots \supseteq F^kx \supseteq \ldots
\]

// Narrowing Iteration

Every tuple \( F^kx \) is a solution of \((1)\).

\[\Rightarrow\]

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

// The same also holds for RR-iteration.
Narrowing Iteration in the Example

\[ i = 0; \]

\[ \text{Neg}(i < 42) \]
\[ \text{Pos}(i < 42) \]
\[ \text{Neg}(0 \leq i < 42) \]
\[ \text{Pos}(0 \leq i < 42) \]

\[ A_1 = A + i; \]
\[ M[A_1] = i; \]
\[ i = i + 1; \]

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Narrowing Iteration in the Example

\[ i = 0; \]
\[ \text{Pos}(i < 42) \]
\[ \text{Neg}(i < 42) \]
\[ \text{Neg}(0 \leq i < 42) \]
\[ \text{Pos}(0 \leq i < 42) \]
\[ A_1 = A + i; \]
\[ M[A_1] = i; \]
\[ i = i + 1; \]

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<td>42</td>
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Narrowing Iteration in the Example

\[ i = 0; \]

\[ \text{Neg}(i < 42) \]
\[ \text{Neg}(0 \leq i < 42) \]
\[ \text{Pos}(i < 42) \]
\[ \text{Pos}(0 \leq i < 42) \]

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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!

Final Question

Do we have to accept that narrowing may not terminate ???
4. Idea: Accelerated Narrowing

Assume that we have a solution \( x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \) of the system of constraints:

\[
x_i \supseteq f_i (x_1, \ldots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \ldots, n \tag{1}
\]

Then consider the system of equations:

\[
x_i = x_i \cap f_i (x_1, \ldots, x_n), \quad i = 1, \ldots, n \tag{4}
\]

Obviously, we have for monotonic \( f_i : H^k x = F^k x \).

where \( H(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = (y_1, \ldots, y_n), \quad y_i = x_i \cap f_i (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \).

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

\[
a_1 \cap a_2 \subseteq a_1 \cap a_2 \subseteq a_1
\]
... for Interval Analysis

We preserve finite interval bounds.

Therefore, \( \bot \sqcap D = D \sqcap \bot = \bot \) and for \( D_1 \neq \bot \neq D_2 \):

\[
(D_1 \sqcap D_2) x = (D_1 x) \sqcap (D_2 x)
\]

where

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

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

\[
u = \begin{cases} 
    u_2 & \text{if } u_1 = \infty \\
    u_1 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

\[\implies \sqcap \text{ is not commutative} \]
Accelerated Narrowing in the Example

\[ i = 0; \]

\[ \text{Pos}(i < 42) \]

\[ \text{Neg}(i < 42) \]

\[ \text{Neg}(0 \leq i < 42) \]

\[ \text{Pos}(0 \leq i < 42) \]

\[ M[A_1] = i; \]

\[ i = i + 1; \]

\[ A_1 = A + i; \]

\[ 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \]

\[ \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\
\hline
 l & -\infty & +\infty & -\infty & +\infty & -\infty & +\infty \\
 u & +\infty & 0 & +\infty & 0 & 42 \\
\hline
 l & 0 & +\infty & 0 & 41 & 0 & 41 \\
 u & +\infty & 0 & 41 & 0 & 41 \\
\hline
 l & 0 & +\infty & 0 & 41 & 0 & 41 \\
 u & +\infty & 0 & 41 & 0 & 41 \\
\hline
 l & 1 & +\infty & 1 & 42 & 1 & 42 \\
 u & +\infty & 0 & 42 & 0 & 41 \\
\hline
 l & 42 & +\infty & \perp & +\infty & 42 & 42 \\
 u & +\infty & +\infty & 42 & 42 & 42 \\
\hline
\end{array} \]
Discussion

→ Caveat: Widening also returns for non-monotonic $f_i$ a solution. Narrowing is only applicable to monotonic $f_i$ !!

→ In the example, accelerated narrowing already returns the optimal result.

→ If the operator $\sqcap$ only allows for finitely many improvements of values, we may execute narrowing until stabilization.

→ In case of interval analysis these are at most:

$$\#points \cdot (1 + 2 \cdot \#Vars)$$
1.6 Pointer Analysis

Questions

→ Are two addresses possibly equal?
→ Are two addresses definitively equal?
1.6 Pointer Analysis

Questions

→ Are two addresses possibly equal? May Alias
→ Are two addresses definitively equal? Must Alias

⇒ Alias Analysis
The analyses so far without alias information

(1) Available Expressions:

- Extend the set \( \textit{Expr} \) of expressions by occurring loads \( M[e] \).

- Extend the Effects of Edges:

\[
\begin{align*}
[x = e;]_A &= (A \cup \{e\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_x \\
[x = M[e];]_A &= (A \cup \{e, M[e]\}) \setminus \text{Expr}_x \\
[M[e_1] = e_2;]_A &= (A \cup \{e_1, e_2\}) \setminus \text{Loads}
\end{align*}
\]
(2) Values of Variables:

- Extend the set $Expr$ of expressions by occurring loads $M[e]$.

- Extend the Effects of Edges:

$$[x = M[e];] \# V e' = \begin{cases} \{x\} & \text{if } e' = M[e] \\ \emptyset & \text{if } e' = e \\ V e' \setminus \{x\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$[M[e_1] = e_2;] \# V e' = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } e' \in \{e_1, e_2\} \\ V e' & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(3) **Constant Propagation:**

- Extend the abstract state by an abstract store \( M \)
- Execute accesses to known memory locations!

\[
[x = M[e];]\# (D, M) = \begin{cases} 
(D \oplus \{ x \mapsto M a \}, M) & \text{if } [e]\# D = a \sqsubseteq \top \\
(D \oplus \{ x \mapsto \top \}, M) & \text{otherwise} \\
(D, M \oplus \{ a \mapsto [e_2]\# D \}) & \text{if } [e_1]\# D = a \sqsubseteq \top \\
(D, \bot) & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

\[
[M[e_1] = e_2;]\# (D, M) = \begin{cases} 
(D \oplus \{ a \mapsto [e_2]\# D \}) & \text{if } [e_1]\# D = a \sqsubseteq \top \\
(D, \bot) & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

\[
\bot a = \top \quad (a \in \mathbb{N})
\]
Problems

- Addresses are from $\mathbb{N}$. There are no infinite strictly ascending chains, but ...
- Exact addresses at compile-time are rarely known.
- At the same program point, typically different addresses are accessed ...
- Storing at an unknown address destroys all information $\mathcal{M}$.

$\implies$ constant propagation fails

$\implies$ memory accesses/pointers kill precision
Simplification

- We consider pointers to the beginning of blocks $A$ which allow indexed accesses $A[i]$.
- We ignore well-typedness of the blocks.
- New statements:
  
  $x = \text{new}();$  // allocation of a new block
  $x = y[e];$  // indexed read access to a block
  $y[e_1] = e_2;$  // indexed write access to a block

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

\[ x = \text{new}(); \]
\[ y = \text{new}(); \]
\[ x[0] = y; \]
\[ y[1] = 7; \]
The Semantics

\[ x \]
\[ y \]
The Semantics
The Semantics

\[ x, y \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{0} \\
\text{1}
\end{array} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{0} \\
\text{1}
\end{array} \]
The Semantics
The Semantics
More Complex Example

\[ r = \text{Null}; \]

while \((t \neq \text{Null})\) {
\[
\begin{align*}
    &h = t; \\
    &t = t[0]; \\
    &h[0] = r; \\
    &r = h;
\end{align*}
\]
}
Concrete Semantics

A store consists of a finite collection of blocks.
After \( h \) new-operations we obtain:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Addr}_h &= \{\text{ref } a \mid 0 \leq a < h\} \quad // \text{ addresses} \\
\text{Val}_h &= \text{Addr}_h \cup \mathbb{Z} \quad // \text{ values} \\
\text{Store}_h &= (\text{Addr}_h \times \mathbb{N}_0) \rightarrow \text{Val}_h \quad // \text{ store} \\
\text{State}_h &= (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \text{Val}_h) \times \text{Store}_h \quad // \text{ states}
\end{align*}
\]

For simplicity, we set: \( 0 = \text{Null} \)
Let \((\rho, \mu) \in State_h\). Then we obtain for the new edges:

\[
[x = \text{new}();] (\rho, \mu) = (\rho \oplus \{x \mapsto \text{ref } h\}, \\
\mu \oplus \{(\text{ref } h, i) \mapsto 0 \mid i \in \mathbb{N}_0\})
\]

\[
[x = y[e];] (\rho, \mu) = (\rho \oplus \{x \mapsto \mu(\rho y, [e] \rho)\}, \mu)
\]

\[
[y[e_1] = e_2;] (\rho, \mu) = (\rho, \mu \oplus \{(\rho y, [e_1] \rho) \mapsto [e_2] \rho\})
\]
Caveat

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

\[
\begin{align*}
x &= \text{new}() \\
y &= \text{new}() \\
x &= \text{new}() \\
y &= \text{new}()
\end{align*}
\]

are not considered as equivalent !!?

Possible Solution

Define equivalence only up to permutation of addresses!
Alias Analysis

1. Idea

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

\[ \Rightarrow \text{Points-to-Analysis} \]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Addr}^\# & = \text{Edges} & \text{creation edges} \\
\text{Val}^\# & = 2^{\text{Addr}^\#} & \text{abstract values} \\
\text{Store}^\# & = \text{Addr}^\# \rightarrow \text{Val}^\# & \text{abstract store} \\
\text{State}^\# & = (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \text{Val}^\#) \times \text{Store}^\# & \text{abstract states}
\end{align*}
\]

\[ \text{complete lattice } !!! \]
... in the Simple Example

0
\[ x = \text{new}(); \]

1
\[ y = \text{new}(); \]

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

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

4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( x )</th>
<th>( y )</th>
<th>( (0, 1) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>{(0, 1)}</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>{(0, 1)}</td>
<td>{(1, 2)}</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>{(0, 1)}</td>
<td>{(1, 2)}</td>
<td>{(1, 2)}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>{(0, 1)}</td>
<td>{(1, 2)}</td>
<td>{(1, 2)}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Effects of Edges

\[
\begin{align*}
\llbracket (_) ; (_) \rrbracket \# (D, M) &= (D, M) \\
\llbracket (_) , \text{Pos}(e), (_) \rrbracket \# (D, M) &= (D, M) \\
\llbracket (_) , x = y; (_) \rrbracket \# (D, M) &= (D \oplus \{x \mapsto D y\}, M) \\
\llbracket (_) , x = e; (_) \rrbracket \# (D, M) &= (D \oplus \{x \mapsto \emptyset\}, M) , e \notin Vars \\
\llbracket (u, x = \text{new}(); v) \rrbracket \# (D, M) &= (D \oplus \{x \mapsto \{(u, v)\}\}, M) \\
\llbracket (_) , x = y[e]; (_) \rrbracket \# (D, M) &= (D \oplus \{x \mapsto \bigcup\{M(f) \mid f \in D y\}\}, M) \\
\llbracket (_) , y[e_1] = x; (_) \rrbracket \# (D, M) &= (D, M \oplus \{f \mapsto (M f \cup D x) \mid f \in D y\})
\end{align*}
\]
Caveat

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

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

In order to prove correctness, we first *instrument* the concrete semantics with extra information which records where a block has been created.
...  
- We compute possible points-to information.
- From that, we can extract may-alias information.
- The analysis can be rather expensive — without finding very much.
- Separate information for each program point can perhaps be abandoned ??
Alias Analysis 2. Idea

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

... in the Simple Example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>x</th>
<th>y</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>new()</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>new()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[(0, 1)\] \{\((0, 1)\)\}
\[(1, 2)\] \{\((1, 2)\)\}
\[
\]

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lab</th>
<th>Constraint</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(x = y;)</td>
<td>(P[x] \supseteq P[y])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(x = \text{new}();)</td>
<td>(P[x] \supseteq {(u, v)})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(x = y[e];)</td>
<td>(P[x] \supseteq \bigcup{P[f] \mid f \in P[y]})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(y[e_1] = x;)</td>
<td>(P[f] \supseteq (f \in P[y]) ? P[x] : \emptyset) for all (f \in Addr^#)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other edges have no effect.
Discussion

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

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\begin{tabular}{c}
\text{Diagram:}
\end{tabular}}
\end{array}
\]
Alias Analysis

3. Idea

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

... in the Simple Example

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

$\equiv = \{\{x\}, \{y, x[\]\}, \{y[\]\}\}$
Discussion

→ We compute a single information for the whole program.
→ The computation of this information maintains partitions \( \pi = \{ P_1, \ldots, P_m \} \).
→ Individual sets \( P_i \) are identified by means of representatives \( p_i \in P_i \).
→ The operations on a partition \( \pi \) are:

\[
\text{find} (\pi, p) = p_i \quad \text{if } p \in P_i \\
\text{union} (\pi, p_{i_1}, p_{i_2}) = \{ P_1 \cup P_2 \} \cup \{ P_j \mid i_1 \neq j \neq i_2 \} \\
\]

// returns the representative
// unions the represented classes
If \( x_1, x_2 \in Vars \) are equivalent, then also \( x_1[] \) and \( x_2[] \) must be equivalent.

If \( P_i \cap Vars \neq \emptyset \), then we choose \( p_i \in Vars \). Then we can apply \( \text{union recursively} : \)

\[
\text{union}^* (\pi, q_1, q_2) = \begin{cases} 
\text{let } p_{i_1} = \text{find} (\pi, q_1) \\
p_{i_2} = \text{find} (\pi, q_2) \\
in \text{ if } p_{i_1} == p_{i_2} \text{ then } \pi \\
\text{else let } \pi = \text{union} (\pi, p_{i_1}, p_{i_2}) \\
in \text{ if } p_{i_1}, p_{i_2} \in Vars \text{ then } \\
\text{union}^* (\pi, p_{i_1}[{}], p_{i_2}[{}]) \\
\text{else } \pi 
\end{cases}
\]
The analysis iterates over all edges once:

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

forall \( k = (_, \text{lab}, _) \) do \( \pi = [\text{lab}]^\# \pi; \)

where:

\[ [x = y;]^\# \pi = \text{union}^*(\pi, x, y) \]
\[ [x = y[e];]^\# \pi = \text{union}^*(\pi, x, y[\]\]) \]
\[ [y[e] = x;]^\# \pi = \text{union}^*(\pi, x, y[\]\]) \]
\[ [\text{lab}]^\# \pi = \pi \quad \text{otherwise} \]
... in the Simple Example

0
\[ x = \text{new}(); \]

1
\[ y = \text{new}(); \]

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

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

4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(0, 1)</th>
<th>{{x}, {y}, {x[]}, {y[]}}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1, 2)</td>
<td>{{x}, {y}, {x[]}, {y[]}}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2, 3)</td>
<td>{{x}, {y}, {x[]}, {y[]}}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3, 4)</td>
<td>{{x}, {y, x[]}, {y[]}}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
... in the More Complex Example

```
r = Null;

Neg(t ≠ Null)
  0
  r = Null;

Pos(t ≠ Null)
  1
  h = t;
  2
  t = t[0];
  3
  t[0] = r;
  4
  h[0] = r;
  5
  r = h;
  6

| (2, 3) | {{h, r}, {t}, {h[]}, {t[]}} |
| (3, 4) | {{h, t, h[]}, t[]}           |
| (4, 5) | {{h, t, r, h[]}, t[]}       |
| (5, 6) | {{h, t, r, h[]}, t[]}}      |
```
Caveat

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

Complexity

we have:

\[ O(\# \text{ edges} + \# \text{ Vars}) \quad \text{calls of union}^* \]
\[ O(\# \text{ edges} + \# \text{ Vars}) \quad \text{calls of find} \]
\[ O(\# \text{ Vars}) \quad \text{calls of union} \]

\[ \Rightarrow \] We require efficient Union-Find data-structure ...
Idea

Represent partition of $U$ as directed forest:

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

Single trees represent equivalence classes.
Their roots are their representatives ...
→ $\text{find} \ (\pi, u)$ follows the father references.

→ $\text{union} \ (\pi, u_1, u_2)$ re-directs the father reference of one $u_i$ ...
The Costs

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

Strategy to Avoid Deep Trees

- Put the smaller tree below the bigger!
- Use find to compress paths ...
Robert Endre Tarjan, Princeton
Remark

• By this data-structure, \( n \) union- und \( m \) find operations require time \( O(n + m \cdot \alpha(n, n)) \)
  
  // \( \alpha \) the inverse Ackermann-function.

• For our application, we only must modify \( \text{union} \) such that roots are from \( \text{Vars} \) whenever possible.

• This modification does not increase the asymptotic run-time.

Summary

The analysis is extremely fast — but may not find very much.
Background 3: Fixpoint Algorithms

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

Observation

RR-Iteration is inefficient:

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

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

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

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

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

→ the values $D[x_i]$ of the $x_i$ where initially $D[x_i] = \perp$;

→ a list $W$ of all unknowns whose value must be recomputed ...
The Algorithm

\[ W = [x_1, \ldots, x_n]; \]

while \((W \neq \emptyset)\) {
    \[ x_i = \text{extract } W; \]
    \[ t = f_i \text{ eval}; \]
    if \((t \not\subseteq D[x_i])\) {
        \[ D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t; \]
        \[ W = \text{append } I[x_i] W; \]
    }
}

where : \( \text{eval } x_j = D[x_j] \)
### Example

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

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(x_1)</td>
<td>({x_3})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(x_2)</td>
<td>(\emptyset)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(x_3)</td>
<td>({x_1, x_2})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( I )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( x_1 )</td>
<td>( {x_3} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( x_2 )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( x_3 )</td>
<td>( {x_1, x_2} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( D[x_1] )</th>
<th>( D[x_2] )</th>
<th>( D[x_3] )</th>
<th>( W )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( x_1, x_2, x_3 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( {a} )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( x_2, x_3 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( {a} )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( x_3 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( {a} )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( {a, c} )</td>
<td>( x_1, x_2 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( {a, c} )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( {a, c} )</td>
<td>( x_3, x_2 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( {a, c} )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( {a, c} )</td>
<td>( x_2 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( {a, c} )</td>
<td>( {a} )</td>
<td>( {a, c} )</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Theorem

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

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

\[
N = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 + \#(\text{Dep } f_i)) \quad // \quad \text{size of the system}
\]

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

Ad (1):

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

$$
\leq n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h \cdot \#(I[x_i]))
= n + h \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \#(I[x_i])
= n + h \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \#(Dep f_i)
\leq h \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 + \#(Dep f_i))
= h \cdot N
$$
Ad (2):

We only consider the assertion for monotonic \( f_i \).

Let \( D_0 \) denote the least solution. We show:

- \( D_0[x_i] \supseteq D[x_i] \) (all the time)
- \( D[x_i] \not\supseteq f_i \) eval \( \implies x_i \in W \) (at exit of the loop body)
- On termination, the algo returns a solution
Discussion

- In the example, fewer evaluations of right-hand sides are required than for RR-iteration.
- The algo also works for non-monotonic $f_i$.
- For monotonic $f_i$, the algo can be simplified:
  \[
  D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t; \quad \Rightarrow \quad ;
  \]
- In presence of widening, we replace:
  \[
  D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t; \quad \Rightarrow \quad D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t;
  \]
- In presence of Narrowing, we replace:
  \[
  D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcup t; \quad \Rightarrow \quad D[x_i] = D[x_i] \sqcap t;
  \]
  ... and update the test to $t \sqsubseteq D[x_i]$. 

Caveat

- The algorithm relies on explicit dependencies among the unknowns.
  So far in our applications, these were obvious. This need not always be the case!
- We need some strategy for extract which determines the next unknown to be evaluated.
- It would be ingenious if we always evaluated first and then accessed the result ...

⇒ recursive evaluation ...
Idea

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

$$\text{eval } x_i \ x_j = \text{solve } x_j;$$

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

$$D[x_j];$$

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

Initially, $Stable = \emptyset$ ...
The Function solve

\[
\text{solve } x_i = \begin{cases} 
\text{if } (x_i \not\in \text{Stable}) \{ & \\
\text{Stable} = \text{Stable} \cup \{x_i\}; & \\
t = f_i(\text{eval } x_i); & \\
\text{if } (t \not\subseteq D[x_i]) \{ & \\
D[x_i] = D[x_i] \cup t; & \\
W = I[x_i]; \quad I[x_i] = \emptyset; & \\
\text{Stable} = \text{Stable}\setminus W; & \\
\text{app solve } W; & \\
\} & \\
\} & 
\end{cases}
\]
Helmut Seidl, TU München
Example

Consider our standard example:

\[
\begin{align*}
x_1 & \supseteq \{a\} \cup x_3 \\
x_2 & \supseteq x_3 \cap \{a, b\} \\
x_3 & \supseteq x_1 \cup \{c\}
\end{align*}
\]

A trace of the fixpoint algorithm then looks as follows:
\[ I[x_3] = \{x_1\} \]

\[ \Rightarrow \emptyset \]

**D[x_1] = \{a\}**

**D[x_3] = \{a, c\}**

\[ I[x_3] = \emptyset \]

\[ \Rightarrow \{a\} \]

**D[x_2] = \{a\}**

**ok**

\[ I[x_3] = \{x_1, x_2\} \]

\[ \Rightarrow \{a, c\} \]
Evaluation starts with an interesting unknown $x_i$ (e.g., the value at $\text{stop}$).

Then automatically all unknowns are evaluated which influence $x_i$.

The number of evaluations is often smaller than during worklist iteration.

The algorithm is more complex but does not rely on pre-computation of variable dependencies.

It also works if variable dependencies during iteration change !!!

$\Rightarrow$ interprocedural analysis
Caveat II

- The recursive algorithm may not evaluate right-hand sides atomicly.
- Evaluations of right-hand sides may be continued which have been started with out-dated data. In some cases, it may fail to determine the least solution !?!

Idea

- Identify outdated computations ...
- Abort !!
Idea (cont.)

→ Record when evaluation of a variable has started by means of a set \(\text{Called}\).

→ Whenever during evaluation of a rhs \(f_i\), we detect that no longer \(x_i \in \text{Called}\), we abort ...

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

→ Initially, \(\text{Called} = \emptyset\) ...
The new Function \texttt{solve}

\begin{verbatim}
solve \texttt{x}_i = \text{if } (\texttt{x}_i \not\in \texttt{Stable}) \{ \\
\texttt{Stable} = \texttt{Stable} \cup \{\texttt{x}_i\}; \; \texttt{Called} = \texttt{Called} \cup \{\texttt{x}_i\}; \\
\texttt{t} = \text{try } f_i(\text{eval } \texttt{x}_i) \\
\text{with } \texttt{Abort} \rightarrow \texttt{D}[\texttt{x}_i]; \\
\texttt{Called} = \texttt{Called}\{\texttt{x}_i\}; \\
\text{if } (\texttt{t} \not\subseteq \texttt{D}[\texttt{x}_i]) \{ \\
\texttt{D}[\texttt{x}_i] = \texttt{D}[\texttt{x}_i] \cup \texttt{t}; \\
\texttt{W} = \texttt{I}[\texttt{x}_i]; \; \texttt{I}[\texttt{x}_i] = \emptyset; \\
\texttt{Stable} = \texttt{Stable}\{\texttt{W}\}; \\
\text{app solve } \texttt{W}; \\
\} \} \}
\end{verbatim}
Aleks Karbyshev, TU München
1.7 Eliminating Partial Redundancies

Example

\[ x = M[a]; \]
\[ y_1 = x + 1; \]
\[ y_2 = x + 1; \]
\[ M[x] = y_1 + y_2; \]

// \( x + 1 \) is evaluated on every path ...
// on one path, however, even twice.
Goal

\[ x = M[a]; \]
\[ y_1 = x + 1; \]
\[ y_2 = x + 1; \]
\[ M[x] = y_1 + y_2; \]

\[ T = x + 1; \]

\[ x = M[a]; \]
\[ y_1 = T; \]
\[ M[x] = y_1 + T; \]
Idea

(1) Insert assignments $T_e = e$; such that $e$ is available at all points where the value of $e$ is required.

(2) Thereby spare program points where $e$ either is already available or will definitely be computed in future. Expressions with the latter property are called very busy.

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

\\[\rightarrow\] we require a novel analysis ...
An expression $e$ is called busy along a path $\pi$, if the expression $e$ is evaluated before any of the variables $x \in Vars(e)$ is overwritten.

// backward analysis!

e is called very busy at $u$, if $e$ is busy along every path $\pi : u \rightarrow^{*} stop$.
An expression \( e \) is called **busy** along a path \( \pi \), if the expression \( e \) is evaluated before any of the variables \( x \in Vars(e) \) is overwritten.

// backward analysis!

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

Accordingly, we require:

\[
B[u] = \bigcap \{ [[\pi]]^\#(\emptyset) \mid \pi : u \to^* stop \}
\]

where for \( \pi = k_1 \ldots k_m \):

\[
[[\pi]]^\# = [[k_1]]^\# \circ \ldots \circ [[k_m]]^\#
\]
Our complete lattice is given by:

\[ \mathbb{B} = 2^{\text{Expr} \setminus \text{Vars}} \quad \text{with} \quad \sqsubseteq = \supseteq \]

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

\[
\begin{align*}
[;]^{\#} B &= B \\
[\text{Pos}(e)]^{\#} B &= [\text{Neg}(e)]^{\#} B \quad = B \cup \{e\} \\
[x = e;]^{\#} B &= (B \setminus \text{Expr}_x) \cup \{e\} \\
[x = M[e];]^{\#} B &= (B \setminus \text{Expr}_x) \cup \{e\} \\
[M[e_1] = e_2;]^{\#} B &= B \cup \{e_1, e_2\}
\end{align*}
\]
These effects are all distributive. Thus, the least solution of the constraint system yields precisely the MOP — given that \textit{stop} is reachable from every program point.

Example

\begin{center}
\begin{tikzpicture}[node distance=2cm,thick,main node/.style={circle,draw}]
  \node[main node] (1) {$0$};
  \node[main node] (2) [below of=1] {$1$};
  \node[main node] (3) [right of=2] {$3$};
  \node[main node] (4) [below of=3] {$4$};
  \node[main node] (5) [below of=4] {$5$};
  \node[main node] (6) [below of=5] {$6$};
  \node[main node] (7) [below of=6] {$7$};

  \path[->]
  (1) edge (2)
  (2) edge (1)
  (2) edge (3)
  (3) edge (2)
  (3) edge (4)
  (4) edge (3)
  (4) edge (5)
  (5) edge (4)
  (5) edge (6)
  (6) edge (5)
  (6) edge (7)
  (7) edge (6)

  \node at (2.5,0) {$x = M[a]$};
  \node at (3.5,0.5) {$\ y_1 = x + 1;$};
  \node at (4.5,0.5) {$\ y_2 = x + 1;$};
  \node at (5.5,0) {$\ M[x] = y_1 + y_2;$}
\end{tikzpicture}
\end{center}

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline
$\text{Line}$ & \text{Contents} \\
\hline
7 & $\emptyset$ \\
6 & $\{y_1 + y_2\}$ \\
5 & $\{x + 1\}$ \\
4 & $\{x + 1\}$ \\
3 & $\{x + 1\}$ \\
2 & $\{x + 1\}$ \\
1 & $\emptyset$ \\
0 & $\emptyset$ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
A point \( u \) is called **safe** for \( e \), if \( e \in \mathcal{A}[u] \cup \mathcal{B}[u] \), i.e., \( e \) is either available or very busy.

**Idea**

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

\[
e \in \mathcal{B}[v]\setminus[lab]^\sharp_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{A}[u] \cup \mathcal{B}[u])
\]
Transformation 5.1

\[ T_e = e; \quad (e \in B[v]) \]

\[ T_e = e; \quad (e \in B[v] \setminus \llbracket \text{lab} \rrbracket \#_{A} (A[u] \cup B[u])) \]
Transformation 5.2

\[ u \xrightarrow{x = e;} u \xrightarrow{x = T_e;} \]

// analogously for the other uses of \( e \)
// at old edges of the program.
Bernhard Steffen, Dortmund

Jens Knoop, Wien
In the Example

\[ x = M[a]; \]
\[ y_1 = x + 1; \]
\[ y_2 = x + 1; \]
\[ M[x] = y_1 + y_2; \]

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<thead>
<tr>
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<td>( {x + 1} )</td>
<td>( {y_1 + y_2} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>( {x + 1, y_1 + y_2} )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
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In the Example

\[ x = M[a]; \]
\[ y_1 = x + 1; \]
\[ y_2 = x + 1; \]
\[ M[x] = y_1 + y_2; \]

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>( { x + 1 } )</td>
<td>( { y_1 + y_2 } )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>( { x + 1, y_1 + y_2 } )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Im Example

\[ x = M[a]; \]

\[ T = x + 1; \]

\[ y_1 = T; \]

\[ y_2 = T; \]

\[ M[x] = y_1 + y_2; \]

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( {x + 1} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>( \emptyset )</td>
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</tr>
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<tr>
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<td>( {y_1 + y_2} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>( {x + 1, y_1 + y_2} )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Correctness

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

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

$$e \in [lab]_A^\#(A[u] \cup B[u])$$
Correctness

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

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

$$e \in [lab]_A^\#(A[u] \cup B[u])$$

In particular, no variable in $e$ receives a new value.

Then $T_e = e;$ is inserted before the suffix.
We conclude

- Whenever the value of $e$ is required, $e$ is available.  
  $\implies$ correctness of the transformation

- Every $T = e$; which is inserted into a path corresponds to an $e$ which is replaced with $T$.  
  $\implies$ non-degradation of the efficiency
1.8 Application: Loop-invariant Code

Example

```c
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
    a[i] = b + 3;
```

// The expression  $b + 3$  is recomputed in every iteration.
// This should be avoided!
The Control-flow Graph

0
\[ i = 0; \]
\]

1
\[ i < n \]
\]
\[ y = b + 3; \]
\]
\[ A_1 = A + i; \]
\]
\[ M[A_1] = y; \]
\]
\[ i = i + 1; \]
\]

7

Neg\(i < n\)

2

Pos\(i < n\)

3

4

5

6
Caveat \( T = b + 3; \) may not be placed before the loop:

There is no decent place for \( T = b + 3; \).
Idea

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

```plaintext
\( i = 0; \)

\( 0 \)

\( 1 \)

\( Pos (i < n) \)

\( Neg (i < n) \)

\( 2 \)

\( 3 \)

\( 4 \)

\( 5 \)

\( 6 \)

\( 7 \)

\( y = b + 3; \)

\( A_1 = A + i; \)

\( M[A_1] = y; \)

\( i = i + 1; \)

\( Pos (i < n) \)

\( Neg (i < n) \)
```
... now there is a place for $T = e$;
Application of \( \text{T5} \) (PRE):

\[
i = 0; \\
\text{Pos}(i < n) \quad y = b + 3; \\
\quad A_1 = A + i; \\
\quad M[A_1] = y; \\
\quad i = i + 1; \\
\text{Pos}(i < n) \\
\text{Neg}(i < n) \quad \text{Neg}(i < n)
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \mathcal{A} )</th>
<th>( \mathcal{B} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( {b + 3} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>( {b + 3} )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>( {b + 3} )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>( {b + 3} )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>( {b + 3} )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Application of T5 (PRE):

\[ i = 0; \]

\[ A_1 = A + i; \]

\[ M[A_1] = y; \]

\[ i = i + 1; \]

\begin{array}{c|c|c}
\text{ } & \mathcal{A} & \mathcal{B} \\
\hline
0 & \emptyset & \emptyset \\
1 & \emptyset & \emptyset \\
2 & \emptyset & \{b+3\} \\
3 & \{b+3\} & \emptyset \\
4 & \{b+3\} & \emptyset \\
5 & \{b+3\} & \emptyset \\
6 & \{b+3\} & \emptyset \\
7 & \emptyset & \emptyset \\
\end{array}
Conclusion

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

\[
\text{while} \ (b) \ \text{stmt} \quad \implies \quad \text{if} \ (b) \\
\quad \text{do} \ \text{stmt} \\
\quad \text{while} \ (b); \\
\implies \quad \text{Loop Rotation}
\]
Problem

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

\[ \Rightarrow \quad \text{Pre-dominators} \]

\( u \) pre-dominates \( v \), if every path \( \pi : \text{start} \rightarrow^* v \) contains \( u \).
We write: \( u \Rightarrow v \).

“\( \Rightarrow \)” is reflexive, transitive and anti-symmetric.
Computation

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

\[ \mathcal{P} = 2^{Nodes} , \quad \subseteq = \supseteq \]

\[ \lfloor (\_, \_, v) \rfloor^\# P = P \cup \{v\} \]

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

\[ \mathcal{P}[v] = \bigcap \{ \lfloor \pi \rfloor^\# \{ \text{start} \} \mid \pi : \text{start} \rightarrow^* v \} \]
Since $\#k$ are distributive, the $P[v]$ can be computed by means of fixpoint iteration ...
The partial ordering “⇒” in the example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\mathcal{P}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>${0}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>${0, 1}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>${0, 1, 2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>${0, 1, 2, 3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>${0, 1, 2, 3, 4}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>${0, 1, 5}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Diagram:

```
0
  /   \
1   5  2
  \   /
    3
    / \
   4
```
Apparently, the result is a tree.

In fact, we have:

**Theorem**

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

**Proof**

Assume:

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

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

Consequently, $u_1, u_2$ are incomparable.
Now for every \( \pi : \text{start} \rightarrow^* v \):

\[
\pi = \pi_1 \pi_2 \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_1 : \text{start} \rightarrow^* u_1 \\
\pi_2 : u_1 \rightarrow^* v
\]

If, however, \( u_1, u_2 \) are incomparable, then there is path: \( \text{start} \rightarrow^* v \) avoiding \( u_2 \):

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{start} \\
\downarrow \\
u_2 \\
\downarrow \\
u_1 \\
\downarrow \\
u_2 \\
\downarrow \\
v
\end{array}
\]
Now for every $\pi : start \rightarrow^* v$:

$$\pi = \pi_1 \pi_2 \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_1 : start \rightarrow^* u_1$$
$$\pi_2 : u_1 \rightarrow^* v$$

If, however, $u_1, u_2$ are incomparable, then there is path:

$\text{start} \rightarrow^* v$ avoiding $u_2$:
Observation

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

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

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

Accordingly, we define:
Transformation 6

We duplicate the entry check to all back edges.
... in the Example

0

\[ i = 0; \]

1

Neg(\(i < n\)) Pos(\(i < n\))

7

\[ y = b + 3; \]

2

\[ A_1 = A + i; \]

3

\[ M[A_1] = y; \]

4

5

\[ i = i + 1; \]

6

455
... in the Example

\[ i = 0; \]

\[ \text{Neg}(i < n) \]

\[ A_1 = A + i; \]

\[ M[A_1] = y; \]

\[ i = i + 1; \]
... in the Example

0

\( i = 0; \)

1

\( \text{Neg}(i < n) \)
\( \text{Pos}(i < n) \)

0, 1, 7

2

\( y = b + 3; \)

0, 1, 2

3

\( A_1 = A + i; \)

0, 1, 2, 3

4

\( M[A_1] = y; \)

0, 1, 2, 3, 4

5

\( i = i + 1; \)

0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

6

0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
... in the Example

i = 0;

Neg(i < n) → Pos(i < n)

y = b + 3;

A_1 = A + i;

M[A_1] = y;

i = i + 1;

Neg(i < n) → Pos(i < n)
Caveat

There are unusual loops which cannot be rotated:

Pre-dominators:
... but also common ones which cannot be rotated:

Here, the complete block between back edge and conditional jump should be duplicated.
... but also common ones which cannot be rotated:

Here, the complete block between back edge and conditional jump should be duplicated.
... but also common ones which cannot be rotated:

Here, the complete block between back edge and conditional jump should be duplicated.
1.9 Eliminating Partially Dead Code

Example

\[ T = x + 1; \]
\[ M[x] = T; \]

\( x + 1 \) need only be computed along one path.
Idea

\[ T = x + 1; \]

\[ M[x] = T; \]
Problem

- The definition \( x = e; \ (x \not\in Vars_e) \) may only be moved to an edge where \( e \) is safe.
- The definition must still be available for uses of \( x \).

We define an analysis which maximally delays computations:

\[
\begin{align*}
[;]^\#D & = D \\
[x = e;]^\#D & = \begin{cases} 
D \setminus (Use_e \cup Def_x) \cup \{x = e;\} & \text{if } x \not\in Vars_e \\
D \setminus (Use_e \cup Def_x) & \text{if } x \in Vars_e
\end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]
... where:

\[ Use_e = \{ y = e'; \mid y \in Vars_e \} \]

\[ Def_x = \{ y = e'; \mid y \equiv x \lor x \in Vars_e' \} \]
... where:

\[ \text{Use}_e = \{ y = e'; \mid y \in \text{Vars}_e \} \]

\[ \text{Def}_x = \{ y = e'; \mid y \equiv x \vee x \in \text{Vars}_{e'} \} \]

For the remaining edges, we define:

\[ [x = M[e];]^\# D = D \setminus (\text{Use}_e \cup \text{Def}_x) \]
\[ [M[e_1] = e_2;]^\# D = D \setminus (\text{Use}_{e_1} \cup \text{Use}_{e_2}) \]
\[ [\text{Pos}(e)]^\# D = [\text{Neg}(e)]^\# D = D \setminus \text{Use}_e \]
Caveat

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

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

- The partial ordering of the lattice for delayability is given by “⊇”.
- At program start: $D_0 = \emptyset$.

Therefore, the sets $D[u]$ of at $u$ delayable assignments can be computed by solving a system of constraints.

- We delay only assignments $a$ where $aa$ has the same effect as $a$ alone.
- The extra insertions render the original assignments as assignments to dead variables ...
Transformation 7

\[ u \xrightarrow{lab} v \quad \text{and} \quad u \xrightarrow{lab} v \]

\[ a \in D[u] \setminus [lab]^\sharp(D[u]) \]

\[ a \in [lab]^\sharp(D[u]) \setminus D[v] \]
Remark

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

In the example, the partially dead code is eliminated:
\[ T = x + 1; \]

\[ M[x] = T; \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \mathcal{D} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 { ( T = x + 1; ) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 { ( T = x + 1; ) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
0 & \emptyset \\
1 & \{T = x + 1;\} \\
2 & \{T = x + 1;\} \\
3 & \emptyset \\
4 & \emptyset \\
\hline
\end{array}

\[ M[x] = T; \]

\[ T = x + 1; \]

\[ T = x + 1; \]
\[ M[x] = T; \]
\[ T = x + 1; \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( L )</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>2'</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( 0 )</td>
<td>( { x } )</td>
<td>( { x } )</td>
<td>( { x } )</td>
<td>( { x, T } )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
<td>( \emptyset )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Remarks

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T4</th>
<th>Constant Propagation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interval Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alias Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T6</td>
<td>Loop Rotation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T1, T3, T2</td>
<td>Available Expressions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>Dead Variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T7, T2</td>
<td>Partially Dead Code</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5, T3, T2</td>
<td>Partially Redundant Code</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2 Replacing Expensive Operations by Cheaper Ones

2.1 Reduction of Strength

(1) Evaluation of Polynomials

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Multiplications</th>
<th>Additions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>naive</td>
<td>( \frac{1}{2} n(n + 1) )</td>
<td>( n )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-use</td>
<td>( 2n - 1 )</td>
<td>( n )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horner-Scheme</td>
<td>( n )</td>
<td>( n )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Idea

\[ f(x) = \ldots \left((a_n \cdot x + a_{n-1}) \cdot x + a_{n-2}\right) \ldots \cdot x + a_0 \]

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

→ To recompute \( f(x) \) for every argument \( x \) is too expensive.
→ Luckily, the \( n \)-th differences are constant !!!
Example: \[ f(x) = 3x^3 - 5x^2 + 4x + 13 \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( n )</th>
<th>( f(n) )</th>
<th>( \Delta )</th>
<th>( \Delta^2 )</th>
<th>( \Delta^3 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, the \( n \)-th difference is always

\[ \Delta_n^h(f) = n! \cdot a_n \cdot h^n \quad (h \text{ step width}) \]
Costs

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

$\Rightarrow$

Number of multiplications only depends on $n$. 
Simple Case: \[ f (x) = a_1 \cdot x + a_0 \]

- ... naturally occurs in many numerical loops.
- The first differences are already constant:
  \[ f (x + h) - f (x) = a_1 \cdot h \]
- Instead of the sequence:
  \[ y_i = f (x_0 + i \cdot h), \quad i \geq 0 \]
  we compute:
  \[ y_0 = f (x_0), \quad \Delta = a_1 \cdot h \]
  \[ y_i = y_{i-1} + \Delta, \quad i > 0 \]
Example

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

\begin{verbatim}
0
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
1
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
A = A_0 + b \cdot i;
M[A] = \ldots;
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
2
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
3
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
4
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
5
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
6
\end{verbatim}
... or, after loop rotation:

\[ i = i_0; \]
\[ \text{if } (i < n) \text{ do } \{ \]
\[ \quad A = A_0 + b \cdot i; \]
\[ \quad M[A] = \ldots; \]
\[ \quad i = i + h; \]
\[ \} \text{ while } (i < n); \]
... and reduction of strength:

\[ i = i_0; \]
\[ \text{if } (i < n) \{ \]
\[ \Delta = b \cdot h; \]
\[ A = A_0 + b \cdot i_0; \]
\[ \text{do } \{ \]
\[ M[A] = \ldots; \]
\[ i = i + h; \]
\[ A = A + \Delta; \]
\[ \} \text{ while } (i < n); \]
\[ \} \]
Caveat

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

Identify

... loops;
... iteration variables;
... constants;
... the matching use structures.
Loops:

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

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

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

\[ \begin{array}{c|c} \mathcal{P} \\ \hline 0 & \{0\} \\ 1 & \{0, 1\} \\ 2 & \{0, 1, 2\} \\ 3 & \{0, 1, 2, 3\} \\ 4 & \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\} \\ 5 & \{0, 1, 5\} \end{array} \]
Example

\[ \mathcal{P} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \mathcal{P} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>{0}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>{0, 1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>{0, 1, 2}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>{0, 1, 2, 3}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>{0, 1, 2, 3, 4}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>{0, 1, 5}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\hline
\mathcal{P} & \\
\hline
0 & \{0\} \\
1 & \{0, 1\} \\
2 & \{0, 1, 2\} \\
3 & \{0, 1, 2, 3\} \\
4 & \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\} \\
5 & \{0, 1, 5\} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Diagram: A graph with nodes labeled 0 to 5 and edges connecting them.
We are interested in edges which during each iteration are executed exactly once:

This property can be expressed by means of the pre-dominator relation ...
Assume that \((u, _, v)\) is the back edge.

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

- \(v\) pre-dominates \(u_1\);
- \(u_1\) pre-dominates \(v_1\);
- \(v_1\) predominate \(u\)

and is not contained in an inner loop.
Assume that \((u, _, v)\) is the back edge.

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

- \(v\) pre-dominates \(u_1\);
- \(u_1\) pre-dominates \(v_1\);
- \(v_1\) predominates \(u\).

and is not contained in an inner loop.

On the level of source programs, this is trivial:

\[
\text{do } \{ \ s_1 \ldots s_k \ \\
\text{ } \} \text{ while } (e);
\]

The desired assignments must be among the \(s_i\) without preceeding jumps.
Iteration Variable

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

\[ i = i + h; \]

for some loop constant \( h \).

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

Consider the fixpoint computation:

\[
x = \emptyset; \\
\text{for } (t = Fx; t \not\subseteq x; t = Fx; ) \\
x = x \cup t;
\]

If \( F \) is distributive, it could be replaced by:

\[
x = \emptyset; \\
\text{for } (\Delta = Fx; \Delta \neq \emptyset; \Delta = (F \Delta) \setminus x; ) \\
x = x \cup \Delta;
\]

The function \( F \) must only be computed for the smaller sets \( \Delta \) semi-naive iteration
Instead of the sequence: \[ \emptyset \subseteq F(\emptyset) \subseteq F^2(\emptyset) \subseteq \ldots \]
we compute:
\[ \Delta_1 \cup \Delta_2 \cup \ldots \]
where:
\[ \Delta_{i+1} = F(F^i(\emptyset)) \setminus F^i(\emptyset) \]
\[ = F(\Delta_i) \setminus (\Delta_1 \cup \ldots \cup \Delta_i) \quad \text{with} \quad \Delta_0 = \emptyset \]

Assume that the costs of \( F^i x \) is \( 1 + \#x \).

Then the costs may sum up to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>naive</th>
<th>( 1 + 2 + \ldots + n + n ) = ( \frac{1}{2}n(n + 3) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>semi-naive</td>
<td>( 2n )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

where \( n \) is the cardinality of the result.

\[ \Rightarrow \quad \text{A linear factor is saved.} \]
2.2 Peephole Optimization

Idea

- Slide a small window over the program.
- Optimize aggressively inside the window, i.e.,
  - Eliminate redundancies!
  - Replace expensive operations inside the window by cheaper ones!
Examples

\[ y = M[x]; \quad x = x + 1; \quad \implies \quad y = M[x + 1]; \]
  // given that there is a specific post-increment instruction

\[ z = y - a + a; \quad \implies \quad z = y; \]
  // algebraic simplifications

\[ x = x; \quad \implies \quad ; \]
\[ x = 0; \quad \implies \quad x = x \oplus x; \]
\[ x = 2 \cdot x; \quad \implies \quad x = x + x; \]
Important Subproblem: \textit{nop}-Optimization

If \((v_1, ;, v)\) is an edge, \(v_1\) has no further out-going edge.

Consequently, we can identify \(v_1\) and \(v\).

The ordering of the identifications does not matter.
Implementation

- We construct a function \( \text{next} : \text{Nodes} \rightarrow \text{Nodes} \) with:

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

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

- We replace every edge:

\[(u, \text{lab}, v) \iff (u, \text{lab}, \text{next } v)\]

... whenever \( \text{lab} \neq ; \)

- All ;-edges are removed.
Example

next 1 = 1
next 3 = 4
next 5 = 6
Example

next 1 = 1
next 3 = 4
next 5 = 6
2. Subproblem: Linearization

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

Caveat

Not every linearization is equally efficient !!!
Example

\begin{itemize}
\item[0:] \textbf{if} \((e_1)\) \textbf{goto} 2;
\item[4:] \textbf{halt}
\item[2:] \textbf{body}
\item[3:] \textbf{if} \((e_2)\) \textbf{goto} 4;
\item[3:] \textbf{goto} 1;
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Bad:} The loop body is jumped into.
Example

0: if (!e₁) goto 4;
1: body
2: if (!e₂) goto 1;
3: halt

// better cache behavior
Idea

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

- Temperature \approx\text{ nesting-depth}

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

The sub-tree with back edge is hotter ...
... in the Example:

![Diagram](image-url)
More Complicated Example
More Complicated Example
More Complicated Example
Our definition of Loop implies that (detected) loops are necessarily nested.

It is also meaningful for do-while-loops with breaks ...
Our definition of Loop implies that (detected) loops are necessarily nested.

It is also meaningful for do-while-loops with breaks...
Summary: The Approach

(1) For every node, determine a temperature;
(2) Pre-order-DFS over the CFG;

→ If an edge leads to a node we already have generated code for, then we insert a jump.

→ If a node has two successors with different temperature, then we insert a jump to the colder of the two.

→ If both successors are equally warm, then it does not matter.
2.3 Procedures

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

For that, we introduce a new statement:

\[ f(); \]

Every procedure \( f \) has a definition:

\[ f() \{ \text{stmt}^{*} \} \]

Additionally, we distinguish between global and local variables. Program execution starts with the call of a procedure \( \text{main()} \).
Example

```c
int  a, ret;
main() {
    a = 3;
    f();
    M[17] = ret;
    ret = 0;
}

f() {
    int  b;
    if (a ≤ 1) {ret = 1; goto exit; }
    b = a;
    a = b − 1;
    f();
    ret = b · ret;
}

exit :
}
```

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

```
main()

0
  a = 3;

1
  f();

2
  M[17] = ret;

3
  ret = 0;

4

5

f()

5
  Neg (a \leq 1)

6
  b = a;

7
  Pos (a \leq 1)

8
  a = b - 1;

9
  f();

10
  ret = 1;

11
  ret = b * ret;
```
In order to optimize such programs, we require an extended operational semantics.

Program executions are no longer paths, but forests:
... in the Example:
The function \([\cdot]\) is extended to computation forests: \(w:\)
\[
[w] : (\text{Vars} \to \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}) \to (\text{Vars} \to \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z})
\]

For a call \(k = (u, f(); v)\) we must:

- determine the initial values for the locals:
  \[
  \text{enter } \rho = \{ x \mapsto 0 \mid x \in \text{Locals} \} \oplus (\rho|_{\text{Globals}})
  \]
- ... combine the new values for the globals with the old values for the locals:
  \[
  \text{combine } (\rho_1, \rho_2) = (\rho_1|_{\text{Locals}}) \oplus (\rho_2|_{\text{Globals}})
  \]
- ... evaluate the computation forest inbetween:
  \[
  \left[ k \langle w \rangle \right] (\rho, \mu) = \text{let } (\rho_1, \mu_1) = \left[ w \right] (\text{enter } \rho, \mu)
  \text{ in } (\text{combine } (\rho, \rho_1), \mu_1)
  \]
Caveat

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

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{configuration} & = stack \times \text{store} \\
\text{store} & = globals \times (\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}) \\
\text{globals} & = (\text{Globals} \to \mathbb{Z}) \\
\text{stack} & = \text{frame} \cdot \text{frame}^* \\
\text{frame} & = \text{point} \times \text{locals} \\
\text{locals} & = (\text{Locals} \to \mathbb{Z})
\end{align*}
\]

A \textit{frame} specifies the local state of computation inside a procedure call.

The \textit{leftmost} frame corresponds to the current call.
Computation steps refer to the current call.

The novel kinds of steps:

call \( k = (u, f()); v \) :

\[
\begin{align*}
(u, \rho) \cdot \sigma, \langle \gamma, \mu \rangle & \implies (u_f, \{x \rightarrow 0 \mid x \in Locals\}) \cdot (v, \rho) \cdot \sigma, \langle \gamma, \mu \rangle \\
u_f & \text{ entry point of } f
\end{align*}
\]

return:

\[
\begin{align*}
(r_f, \_ \_ ) \cdot \sigma, \langle \gamma, \mu \rangle & \implies (\sigma, \langle \gamma, \mu \rangle) \\
r_f & \text{ return point of } f
\end{align*}
\]
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:

\[
\begin{array}{|c|}
\hline
5 & b \rightarrow 0 \\
\hline
2 & \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
5 & b \mapsto 0 \\
9 & b \mapsto 3 \\
2 & \\
\end{array}
\]
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>( b \mapsto 0 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>( b \mapsto 2 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>( b \mapsto 3 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:

```
11  b ↦ 0
  9  b ↦ 2
  9  b ↦ 3
  2
```
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:

```
| 11 | b ↦→ 2 |
|  9 | b ↦→ 3 |
|  2 |       |
```
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>$b \rightarrow 3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The call stack explicitly implements the DFS traversal through the computation forest.

... in the Example:
This operational semantics is quite realistic.

Costs for a Procedure Call

Before entering the body:
- Creating a stack frame;
- assigning of the parameters;
- Saving the registers;
- Saving the return address;
- Jump to the body.

At procedure exit:
- Freeing the stack frame.
- Restoring the registers.
- Passing of the result.
- Return behind the call.

⇒ ... quite expensive !!!
1. Idea: Inlining

Copy the procedure body at every call site !!!

Example

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{abs} &\ (\) \ \{ \\
& a_2 = -a_1; \\
& \text{max}(); \\
\} \\
\text{max} &\ (\) \ \{ \\
& \text{if} \ (a_1 < a_2) \ \{ \ \text{ret} = a_2; \ \text{goto} \ \_\text{exit}; \ \} \\
& \text{ret} = a_1; \\
\} \\
\_\text{exit} &:\n\} 
\end{align*}
\]
... yields:

```c
abs () {
    a_2 = -a_1;
    if (a_1 < a_2) {
        ret = a_2; goto _exit;
    }
    ret = a_1;
}
_exit :
```
Problems

- The copied block may modify the locals of the calling procedure.
- More general: Multiple use of local variable names may lead to errors.
- Multiple calls of a procedure may lead to code duplication.
- How can we handle recursion?
Detection of Recursion

We construct the call-graph of the program.

In the Examples:
Call-Graph

- The nodes are the procedures.
- An edge connects $g$ with $h$, whenever the body of $g$ contains a call of $h$.

Strategies for Inlining

- Just copy leaf-procedures, i.e., procedures without further calls.
- Copy all non-recursive procedures!

... here, we consider just leaf-procedures.
Transformation 9

\[ f() = 0; \quad (x \in \text{Locals}) \]
Remark

- The Nop-edge can be eliminated if the \textit{stop}-node of $f$ has no out-going edges ...
- The $x_f$ are the copies of the locals of the procedure $f$.
- According to our semantics of procedure calls, these must be initialized with 0.
2. Idea: Elimination of Tail Recursion

\[
f() \begin{cases} 
  \text{int } b; \\
  \text{if } (a_2 \leq 1) \{ \text{ ret } = a_1; \text{ goto } _\text{exit}; \} \\
  b = a_1 \cdot a_2; \\
  a_2 = a_2 - 1; \\
  a_1 = b; \\
  f(); \\
\end{cases} \\
\_\text{exit} : 
\]

After the procedure call, nothing in the body remains to be done. 
\[\Rightarrow\] We may directly jump to the beginning.

... after having reset the locals to 0.
... this yields in the Example:

```c
f () {  
    int b;
    _f:  
        if (a2 ≤ 1) {  
            ret = a1;  
            goto _exit;  
        }
        b = a1 · a2;
        a2 = a2 − 1;
        a1 = b;
        b = 0;  
        goto _f;
    _exit:
}
```

// It works, since we have ruled out references to variables!
Transformation 11

\[ f() : \]

\[ u \]

\[ f(); \]

\[ v \]

\[ x = 0; \quad (x \in \text{Locals}) \]

\[ f() : \]

\[ u \]

\[ v \]
Caveat

→ This optimization is crucial for programming languages without iteration constructs !!!
→ Duplication of code is not necessary.
→ No variable renaming is necessary.
→ The optimization may also be profitable for non-recursive tail calls.
→ The corresponding code may contain jumps from the body of one procedure into the body of another ???
Background 4: Interprocedural Analysis

So far, we can analyze each procedure separately.

→ The costs are moderate.
→ The methods also work in presence of separate compilation.
→ At procedure calls, we must assume the worst case.
→ Constant propagation only works for local constants.

Question

How can recursive programs be analyzed ???
Example: Constant Propagation


code

```c
main() {
    int t;
    t = 0;
    if (t) M[17] = 3;
    a1 = t;
    work();
    ret = 1 - ret;
}

work() {
    if (a1) work();
    ret = a1;
}
```

550
Example: Constant Propagation

main()

0
  
  $t = 0$;

1
  
  Neg ($t$)  Pos ($t$)

2
  
  $M[17] = 3$;

3
  
  $a_1 = t$;

4
  
  work();

5
  
  ret = 1 - ret;

6

7
  
  work();

8
  
  Neg ($a_1$)  Pos ($a_1$)

9

10
  
  ret = $a_1$;
Example: Constant Propagation

```c
main()
{
    t = 0;
    a1 = 0;
    work0();
    ret = 1;
    ret = 0;
}

work0()
{
    ret = 0;
}
```
(1) Functional Approach

Let $\mathbb{D}$ denote a complete lattice of (abstract) states.

Idea

Represent the effect of $f()$ by a function:

$$[f]^\# : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$$
In order to determine the effect of a call edge \( k = (u, f(); v) \) we require abstract functions:

\[
\text{enter}\# : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D} \\
\text{combine}\# : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}
\]

Then we define:

\[
[[k]# D = \text{combine}# (D, [[f]# (\text{enter}# D))
\]
... for Constant Propagation:

\[\mathbb{D} = (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\top)_{\bot}\]

\[\text{enter}^\# D = \begin{cases} \bot & \text{if } D = \bot \\ D|_{\text{Globals}} \oplus \{x \mapsto 0 \mid x \in \text{Locals}\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}\]

\[\text{combine}^\# (D_1, D_2) = \begin{cases} \bot & \text{if } D_1 = \bot \lor D_2 = \bot \\ D_1|_{\text{Locals}} \oplus D_2|_{\text{Globals}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}\]
The effects \([f]\)\(\#\) then can be determined by a system of constraints over the complete lattice \(\mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}\):

\[
\begin{align*}
[v] & \subseteq \text{ld} & \text{v} & \text{entry point} \\
[v] & \subseteq [k] \circ [u] & \text{k} = (u, \_, v) & \text{edge} \\
[f] & \subseteq [\text{stop}_f] & \text{stop}_f & \text{end point of } f
\end{align*}
\]

\([v]: \mathbb{D} \to \mathbb{D}\) describes the effect of all prefixes of computation forests \(w\) of a procedure which lead from the entry point to \(v\).
Problems

• How can we represent functions $f : D \rightarrow D$ ???
• If $\# D = \infty$, then $D \rightarrow D$ has infinite strictly increasing chains.

Simplification: Copy-Constants

→ Conditions are interpreted as ;.
→ Only assignments $x = e$; with $e \in Vars \cup \mathbb{Z}$ are treated exactly.
Observation

→ The effects of assignments are:

\[
[x = e;]^! D = \begin{cases} 
D \oplus \{x \mapsto c\} & \text{if } e = c \in \mathbb{Z} \\
D \oplus \{x \mapsto (D y)\} & \text{if } e = y \in \text{Vars} \\
D \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\} & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

→ Let \(\mathbb{V}\) denote the (finite !!!) set of constant right-hand sides. Then variables may only take values from \(\mathbb{V}^\top\).

→ The occurring effects can be taken from

\[\mathcal{D}_f \rightarrow \mathcal{D}_f \quad \text{with} \quad \mathcal{D}_f = (\text{Vars} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}^\top)_{\bot}\]

→ The complete lattice is huge, but finite !!!
Improvement

→ Not all functions from \( D_f \rightarrow D_f \) will occur.

→ All occurring functions \( \lambda D. \perp \neq M \) are of the form:

\[
M = \{ x \mapsto (b_x \sqcup \bigsqcup_{y \in I_x} y) \mid x \in Vars \} \\
M D = \{ x \mapsto (b_x \sqcup \bigsqcup_{y \in I_x} D y) \mid x \in Vars \}
\]

where:

→ Let \( \mathcal{M} \) denote the set of all these functions. Then for \( M_1, M_2 \in \mathcal{M} \) \((M_1 \neq \lambda D. \perp \neq M_2)\):

\[
(M_1 \sqcup M_2) x = (M_1 x) \sqcup (M_2 x)
\]

→ For \( k = \# Vars \), \( \mathcal{M} \) has height \( O(k^2) \).
Also, composition can be directly implemented:

\[(M_1 \circ M_2) \, x \, = \, b' \sqcup \bigcup_{y \in I'} y\quad\text{with}\]
\[b' \, = \, b \sqcup \bigcup_{z \in I} b_z\]
\[I' \, = \, \bigcup_{z \in I} I_z\quad\text{where}\]
\[M_1 \, x \, = \, b \sqcup \bigcup_{y \in I} y\]
\[M_2 \, z \, = \, b_z \sqcup \bigcup_{y \in I_z} y\]

The effects of assignments then are:

\[
[x = e;]\# = \begin{cases} 
\text{Id}_{\text{Vars}} \oplus \{x \mapsto c\} & \text{if } e = c \in \mathbb{Z} \\
\text{Id}_{\text{Vars}} \oplus \{x \mapsto y\} & \text{if } e = y \in \text{Vars} \\
\text{Id}_{\text{Vars}} \oplus \{x \mapsto \top\} & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]
In order to implement the analysis, we additionally must construct the effect of a call $k = (_; f();_;_)$ from the effect of a procedure $f$:

$$\llbracket k \rrbracket^\# = H(\llbracket f \rrbracket^\#)$$

where:

$$H(M) = \text{Id}|_{\text{Locals}} \oplus (M \circ \text{enter}\#)|_{\text{Globals}}$$

$$\text{enter}\# x = \begin{cases} 
  x & \text{if } x \in \text{Globals} \\
  0 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}$$
... in the Example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{If } & \quad \llbracket \text{work} \rrbracket^\sharp = \{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t \} \\
\text{then } & \quad H \llbracket \text{work} \rrbracket^\sharp = \text{Id}_\{t\} \oplus \{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto a_1 \} \\
& \quad = \{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t \}
\end{align*}
\]

Now we can perform fixpoint iteration ...
work ()

Neg ($a_1$) → 7

Pos ($a_1$) → 8

work();

ret = $a_1$;

10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>${a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto \text{ret}, t \mapsto t}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>${a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto \text{ret}, t \mapsto t}$</td>
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<td>${a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>${a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto \text{ret}, t \mapsto t}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
\left[ (8, \ldots, 9) \right]^\# \circ \left[ 8 \right]^\# = \left\{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t \right\} \circ \left\{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto \text{ret}, t \mapsto t \right\} = \left\{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t \right\}
\]
\[ [(8, \ldots, 9)]^\# \circ [8]^\# = \{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t \} \circ \{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto \text{ret}, t \mapsto t \} = \{ a_1 \mapsto a_1, \text{ret} \mapsto a_1, t \mapsto t \} \]
If we know the effects of procedure calls, we can put up a constraint system for determining the abstract state when reaching a program point:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{R}[\text{main}] & \supseteq \text{enter}^\# d_0 \\
\mathcal{R}[f] & \supseteq \text{enter}^\# (\mathcal{R}[u]) \quad k = (u, f();_,_) \quad \text{call} \\
\mathcal{R}[v] & \supseteq \mathcal{R}[f] \quad v \quad \text{entry point of } f \\
\mathcal{R}[v] & \supseteq [k]^\# (\mathcal{R}[u]) \quad k = (u,_,v) \quad \text{edge}
\end{align*}
\]
... in the Example:

```
main()

0
  \( t = 0; \)

1
  Pos(t)

2
  Neg(t)
  \( M[17] = 3; \)

3
  \( a_1 = t; \)

4
  work();

5
  ret = 1 - ret;

6
```

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>( a_1 \mapsto \top, \text{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0 )</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>( a_1 \mapsto \top, \text{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>( a_1 \mapsto \top, \text{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>( a_1 \mapsto \top, \text{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>( a_1 \mapsto \top, \text{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>( a_1 \mapsto 0, \text{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>( a_1 \mapsto 0, \text{ret} \mapsto 0, t \mapsto 0 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>( a_1 \mapsto 0, \text{ret} \mapsto \top, t \mapsto 0 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

- At least copy-constants can be determined interprocedurally.
- For that, we had to ignore conditions and complex assignments.
- In the second phase, however, we could have been more precise.
- The extra abstractions were necessary for two reasons:
  1. The set of occurring transformers $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ must be finite;
  2. The functions $M \in \mathcal{M}$ must be efficiently implementable.
- The second condition can, sometimes, be abandoned ...
Observation

→ Often, procedures are only called for few distinct abstract arguments.

→ Each procedure need only to be analyzed for these.

→ Put up a constraint system:

\[
\begin{align*}
[v, a] & \equiv a & v & \text{entry point} \\
[v, a] & \equiv \text{combine} ([u, a], [f, \text{enter}] [u, a][u, a]) & (u, f()); v & \text{call} \\
[v, a] & \equiv [\text{lab}] [u, a] & k = (u, \text{lab}, v) & \text{edge} \\
[f, a] & \equiv [\text{stop}_f, a] & \text{stop}_f & \text{end point of } f \\
// [v, a] & = = & \text{value for the argument } a.
\end{align*}
\]
Discussion

- This constraint system may be huge.
- We do not want to solve it completely!!!
- It is sufficient to compute the correct values for all calls which occur, i.e., which are necessary to determine the value \([\text{main()}, a_0] \#\) \(\Rightarrow\) We apply our local fixpoint algorithm!
- The fixpoint algo provides us also with the set of actual parameters \(a \in \mathbb{D}\) for which procedures are (possibly) called and all abstract values at their program points for each of these calls.
... in the Example:

Let us try a full constant propagation ...

```
main()

0
  t = 0;

1
  Pos(t)

2
  M[17] = 3;

3
  a1 = t;

4
  work();

5
  ret = 1 - ret;

6

Neg(t)

7
  Neg(a1)

work()

8
  Pos(a1)

 ret = a1;

9

work();

10
```

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<tr>
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<th>a1</th>
<th>ret</th>
<th>a1</th>
<th>ret</th>
</tr>
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<td>T</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>T</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>T</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>T</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>T</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>main()</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

- In the Example, the analysis terminates quickly.
- If $D$ has finite height, the analysis terminates if each procedure is only analyzed for finitely many arguments.
- Analogous analysis algorithms have proved very effective for the analysis of Prolog.
- Together with a points-to analysis and propagation of negative constant information, this algorithm is the heart of a very successful race analyzer for C with Posix threads.
(2) The Call-String Approach

Idea

→ Compute the set of all reachable call stacks!
→ In general, this is infinite.
→ Only treat stacks up to a fixed depth \( d \) precisely! From longer stacks, we only keep the upper prefix of length \( d \).
→ Important special case: \( d = 0 \).

\[\Rightarrow\] Just track the current stack frame ...
... in the Example:

```c
main()

0
  t = 0;

1
  Pos(t)

2
  Neg(t)

3
  M[17] = 3;

4
  a1 = t;

5
  work();

6
  ret = 1 - ret;

work()

7
  Neg(a1)

8
  Pos(a1)

9
  work();

10
  ret = a1;
```
... in the Example:

main()

0

$t = 0$;

1

$\text{Neg}(t)$

$\text{Pos}(t)$

2

$M[17] = 3$;

3

$a_1 = t$;

4

5

combine

6

ret = 1 - ret;

work()

7

$\text{enter}$

$\text{Neg}(a_1)$

8

$\text{Pos}(a_1)$

9

10

combine

ret = $a_1$;

$\text{enter}$
The conditions for $5, 7, 10$, e.g., are:

$$\mathcal{R}[5] \sqsubseteq \text{combine}^\#(\mathcal{R}[4], \mathcal{R}[10])$$

$$\mathcal{R}[7] \sqsubseteq \text{enter}^\#(\mathcal{R}[4])$$

$$\mathcal{R}[7] \sqsubseteq \text{enter}^\#(\mathcal{R}[8])$$

$$\mathcal{R}[9] \sqsubseteq \text{combine}^\#(\mathcal{R}[8], \mathcal{R}[10])$$

**Caveat**

The resulting super-graph contains obviously impossible paths ...
... in the Example this is:

```
main()
0
  t = 0;
1  Neg (t)
  Pos (t)
2
3  M[17] = 3;
  a_1 = t;
4
5  combine
6

work ()
7  enter
  Neg (a_1)
  Pos (a_1)
8
9
10  combine
  ret = a_1;
```
... in the Example this is:

```c
main()
{
    t = 0;

    M[17] = 3;

    a_1 = t;

    ret = 1 - ret;
}

work()
{
    Neg(a_1)
    Pos(a_1)
}

combine
{
    enter
    ret = a_1;
    combine
}
```
Note:

→ In the example, we find the same results: more paths render the results less precise.
In particular, we provide for each procedure the result just for one (possibly very boring) argument.

→ The analysis terminates — whenever $D$ has no infinite strictly ascending chains.

→ The correctness is easily shown w.r.t. the operational semantics with call stacks.

→ For the correctness of the functional approach, the semantics with computation forests is better suited.
3 Exploiting Hardware Features

Question: How can we optimally use:

... Registers
... Pipelines
... Caches
... Processors ???
3.1 Registers

Example

\[
x = M[A];
\]
\[
y = x + 1;
\]
\[
\text{if } (y) \{ \\
\quad z = x \cdot x; \\
\quad M[A] = z;
\}
\] else \{
\quad t = -y \cdot y;
\quad M[A] = t;
\}

\[
x = M[A];
\]
\[
y = x + 1; ;
\]
\[
\text{Neg}(y) \\
\text{Pos}(y)
\]
\[
t = -y \cdot y;
\]
\[
z = x \cdot x;
\]
\[
M[A] = t;
\]
\[
M[A] = z;
\]
The program uses 5 variables ...

Problem

What if the program uses more variables than there are registers.

Idea

Use one register for several variables.
In the example, e.g., one for $x, t, z$ ...
\[
x = M[A];
\]
\[
y = x + 1;
\]
\[
\text{if } (y) \{
\]
\[
z = x \cdot x;
\]
\[
M[A] = z;
\]
\[
\} \text{ else } \{
\]
\[
t = -y \cdot y;
\]
\[
M[A] = t;
\]
\[
\} 
\]
\[ R = M[A]; \]
\[ y = R + 1; \]
if \( y \) {
    \[ R = R \cdot R; \]
    \[ M[A] = R; \]
} else {
    \[ R = -y \cdot y; \]
    \[ M[A] = R; \]
}
Caveat

This is only possible if the live ranges do not overlap.

The (true) live range of $x$ is defined by:

$$\mathcal{L}[x] = \{ u \mid x \in \mathcal{L}[u] \}$$

... in the Example:
\begin{align*}
x &= M[A]; \\
y &= x + 1; \\
t &= -y \cdot y; \\
z &= x \cdot x; \\
M[A] &= t; \\
M[A] &= z;
\end{align*}

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{|c|}
\hline
$\mathcal{L}$ \\
\hline
8 & $\emptyset$ \\
7 & $\{A, z\}$ \\
6 & $\{A, x\}$ \\
5 & $\{A, t\}$ \\
4 & $\{A, y\}$ \\
3 & $\{A, x, y\}$ \\
2 & $\{A, x\}$ \\
1 & $\{A\}$ \\
0 & $\emptyset$ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{center}
\[ x = M[A]; \]
\[ y = x + 1; \]
\[ t = -y \cdot y; \]
\[ z = x \cdot x; \]

\[ \mathcal{L} \]

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>{ A, z }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>{ A, x }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>{ A, t }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>{ A, y }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>{ A, x, y }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>{ A, x }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>{ A }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>{ A }</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
\[ x = M[A]; \]

\[ y = x + 1; \]

\[ t = -y \cdot y; \]

\[ z = x \cdot x; \]

\[ M[A] = t; \]

\[ M[A] = z; \]

Live Ranges:

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
A & \{0, \ldots, 7\} \\
x & \{2, 3, 6\} \\
y & \{2, 4\} \\
t & \{5\} \\
z & \{7\}
\end{array}
\]
In order to determine sets of compatible variables, we construct the Interference Graph \( I = (\text{Vars}, E_I) \) where:

\[
E_I = \{ \{x,y\} \mid x \neq y, \mathcal{L}[x] \cap \mathcal{L}[y] \neq \emptyset \}
\]

\( E_I \) has an edge for \( x \neq y \) iff \( x, y \) are jointly live at some program point.

... in the Example:
\[
\begin{align*}
x &= M[A]; \\
y &= x + 1; \\
t &= -y \cdot y; \\
z &= x \cdot x; \\
M[A] &= t; \\
M[A] &= z;
\end{align*}
\]
Variables which are not connected with an edge can be assigned to the same register.
Variables which are \textbf{not} connected with an edge can be assigned to the same register.
Sviatoslav Sergeevich Lavrov,
Russian Academy of Sciences  (1962)
Gregory J. Chaitin, University of Maine (1981)
Abstract Problem

Given: Undirected Graph \((V, E)\).

Wanted: Minimal coloring, i.e., mapping \(c : V \rightarrow \mathbb{N}\) mit

\[
\begin{align*}
&(1) \quad c(u) \neq c(v) \quad \text{for} \quad \{u, v\} \in E; \\
&(2) \quad \bigcup \{c(u) \mid u \in V\} \quad \text{minimal!}
\end{align*}
\]

- In the example, 3 colors suffice. But:
- In general, the minimal coloring is not unique.
- It is NP-complete to determine whether there is a coloring with at most \(k\) colors.

\[\rightarrow\]

We must rely on heuristics or special cases.
Greedy Heuristics

- Start somewhere with color 1;
- Next choose the smallest color which is different from the colors of all already colored neighbors;
- If a node is colored, color all neighbors which not yet have colors;
- Deal with one component after the other ...
... more concretely:

forall \ (v \in V) \ c[v] = 0;
forall \ (v \in V) \ \text{color} \ (v);

void \ \text{color} \ (v) \ {\ }
{\ }
if \ (c[v] \neq 0) \ \text{return};
neighbors = \{u \in V \mid \{u, v\} \in E\};
c[v] = \bigcap\{k > 0 \mid \forall u \in \text{neighbors} : \ k \neq c(u)\};
forall \ (u \in \text{neighbors})
{\ }
\text{if} \ (c(u) == 0) \ \text{color} \ (u);
}

The new color can be easily determined once the neighbors are sorted according to their colors.
Discussion

→ Essentially, this is a Pre-order DFS.
→ In theory, the result may arbitrarily far from the optimum
→ ... in practice, it may not be as bad.
→ ... Anecdote: different variants have been patented !!!
Discussion

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→ In theory, the result may arbitrarily far from the optimum
→ ... in practice, it may not be as bad.
→ ... Anecdote: different variants have been patented !!!

The algorithm works the better the smaller life ranges are ...

Idea: Life Range Splitting
### Special Case: Basic Blocks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( A_1 = x + y; )</th>
<th>( \mathcal{L} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( M[A_1] = z; )</td>
<td>( x, z )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( x = x + 1; )</td>
<td>( x )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( z = M[A_1]; )</td>
<td>( x, z )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( t = M[x]; )</td>
<td>( x, z, t )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( A_2 = x + t; )</td>
<td>( x, z, t )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( M[A_2] = z; )</td>
<td>( x, t )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( y = M[x]; )</td>
<td>( y, t )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( M[y] = t; )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Diagram of Basic Blocks](image)
### Special Case: Basic Blocks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>( \mathcal{L} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>( A_1 = x + y ); ( M[A_1] = z ); ( x = x + 1 ); ( z = M[A_1] ); ( t = M[x] ); ( A_2 = x + t ); ( M[A_2] = z ); ( y = M[x] ); ( M[y] = t );</td>
<td>( x, y, z ) ( x, z ) ( x ) ( x, z ) ( x, z, t ) ( x, z, t ) ( x, t ) ( y, t )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The live ranges of $x$ and $z$ can be split:

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<td>$x, y, z$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M[A_1] = z$;</td>
<td>$x, z$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_1 = x + 1$;</td>
<td>$x_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$z_1 = M[A_1]$;</td>
<td>$x_1, z_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t = M[x_1]$;</td>
<td>$x_1, z_1, t$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_2 = x_1 + t$;</td>
<td>$x_1, z_1, t$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M[A_2] = z_1$;</td>
<td>$x_1, t$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$y_1 = M[x_1]$;</td>
<td>$y_1, t$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M[y_1] = t$;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The live ranges of $x$ and $z$ can be split:

| $A_1 = x + y$; | $x, y, z$ |
| $M[A_1] = z$; | $x, z$ |
| $x_1 = x + 1$; | $x_1$ |
| $z_1 = M[A_1]$; | $x_1, z_1$ |
| $t = M[x_1]$; | $x_1, z_1, t$ |
| $A_2 = x_1 + t$; | $x_1, z_1, t$ |
| $M[A_2] = z_1$; | $x_1, t$ |
| $y_1 = M[x_1]$; | $y_1, t$ |
| $M[y_1] = t$; | $t$ |
Interference graphs for minimal live ranges on basic blocks are known as interval graphs:

vertex \quad = \quad interval

edge \quad = \quad joint vertex
The covering number of a vertex is given by the number of incident intervals.

**Theorem**

maximal covering number

--- size of the maximal clique

--- minimally necessary number of colors

Graphs with this property (for every sub-graph) are called perfect ...

A minimal coloring can be found in polynomial time.
Idea

→ Conceptually iterate over the vertices $0, \ldots, m - 1$!
→ Maintain a list of currently free colors.
→ If an interval starts, allocate the next free color.
→ If an interval ends, free its color.

This results in the following algorithm:
free = [1, \ldots, k];
for (i = 0; i < m; i++) {
  init[i] = []; exit[i] = [];
}
forall (I = [u, v] \in \text{Intervals}) {
  init[u] = (I :: init[u]); exit[v] = (I :: exit[v]);
}
for (i = 0; i < m; i++) {
  forall (I \in \text{init}[i]) {
    color[I] = \text{hd free}; \; \text{free} = \text{tl free};
  }
  forall (I \in \text{exit}[i]) \; \text{free} = \text{color}[I] :: \text{free};
}
Discussion

→ For arbitrary programs, we thus may apply some heuristics for graph coloring ...

→ If the number of *real* register does not suffice, the remaining variables are spilled into a fixed area on the stack.

→ Generally, variables from inner loops are preferably held in registers.

→ For basic blocks we have succeeded to derive an optimal register allocation.

   The number of required registers could even be determined before-hand!

→ This works only once live ranges have been split.

→ Splitting of live ranges for full programs results programs in *static single assignment* form ...
Discussion

- Every live variable should be defined at most once ??
- Every live variable should have at most one definition ?
- All definitions of the same variable should have a common end point !!!

⇒ Static Single Assignment Form
How to arrive at SSA Form

We proceed in three phases:

**Step 0:**
Before every join point insert one *nop* edge.

**Step 1:**
Transform the program such that each program point $v$ is reached by at most one definition of a variable $x$ which is live at $v$.

**Step 2:**
Introduce a separate copy $x_h$ for every occurrence of a definition of a variable $x$!
Replace every use of $x$ with the use of the reaching copy $x_h$...
Implementing Step 1

- Determine for every program point the set of reaching definitions.
- **Assumption**
  
  All incoming edges of a join point \( v \) are labeled with the same parallel assignment \( x = x \mid x \in L_v \) for some set \( L_v \).

  Initially, \( L_v = \emptyset \) for all \( v \).

- If the join point \( v \) is reached by more than one definition for the same variable \( x \) which is live at program point \( v \), insert \( x \) into \( L_v \), i.e., add definitions \( x = x \); at the end of each incoming edge of \( v \).
Example

Reaching Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\mathcal{R}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>$\langle x, 0 \rangle, \langle y, 0 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$\langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle y, 0 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$\langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$\langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>$\langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>$\langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>$\langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>$\langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example

Reaching Definitions

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\mathcal{R} & \\
\hline
0 & \langle x, 0 \rangle, \langle y, 0 \rangle \\
1 & \langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle y, 0 \rangle \\
2 & \langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle \\
3 & \langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle \\
4 & \langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle \\
5 & \langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle \\
6 & \langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle \\
7 & \langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle x, 5 \rangle, \langle y, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 4 \rangle \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

where \( \psi \equiv x = x \mid y = y \)
Reaching Definitions

The complete lattice $\mathbb{R}$ for this analysis is given by:

$$\mathbb{R} = 2^{\text{Defs}}$$

where

$$\text{Defs} = \text{Vars} \times \text{Nodes} \quad \text{Defs}(x) = \{x\} \times \text{Nodes}$$

Then:

$$\llbracket (_-, x = r; , v) \rrbracket \mathcal{R} = \mathbb{R} \setminus \text{Defs}(x) \cup \{\langle x, v \rangle\}$$

$$\llbracket (_-, x = x \mid x \in L, v) \rrbracket \mathcal{R} = \mathbb{R} \setminus \bigcup_{x \in L} \text{Defs}(x) \cup \{\langle x, v \rangle \mid x \in L\}$$

The ordering on $\mathbb{R}$ is given by subset inclusion $\subseteq$ where the value at program start is given by $\mathbb{R}_0 = \{\langle x, \text{start} \rangle \mid x \in \text{Vars}\}$. 
The Transformation SSA, Step 1

where $k \geq 2$.

The label $\psi$ of the new in-going edges for $v$ is given by:

$$\psi \equiv \{ x = x \mid x \in \mathcal{L}[v], \#(\mathcal{R}[v] \cap \text{Defs}(x)) > 1 \}$$
If the node \( v \) is the start point of the program, we add auxiliary edges whenever there are further ingoing edges into \( v \):

**The Transformation SSA, Step 1 (cont.)**

where \( k \geq 1 \) and \( \psi \) of the new in-going edges for \( v \) is given by:

\[
\psi \equiv \{ x = x \mid x \in L[v], \#(R[v] \cap Defs(x)) > 1 \}
\]
Discussion

- Program start is interpreted as (the end point of) a definition of every variable \( x \).
- At some edges, parallel definitions \( \psi \) are introduced!
- Some of them may be useless.
Discussion

• Program start is interpreted as (the end point of) a definition of every variable \(x\).
• At some edges, parallel definitions \(\psi\) are introduced!
• Some of them may be useless.

Improvement

• We introduce assignments \(x = x\) before \(v\) only if the sets of reaching definitions for \(x\) at incoming edges of \(v\) differ!
• This introduction is repeated until every \(v\) is reached by exactly one definition for each variable live at \(v\).
Theorem

Assume that every program point in the controlflow graph is reachable from \texttt{start} and that every left-hand side of a definition is live. Then:

1. The algorithm for inserting definitions \( x = x \) terminates after at most \( n \cdot (m + 1) \) rounds were \( m \) is the number of program points with more than one in-going edges and \( n \) is the number of variables.

2. After termination, for every program point \( u \), the set \( R[u] \) has exactly one definition for every variable \( x \) which is live at \( u \).
Discussion

The efficiency crucially depends on the number of iterations. If the cfg is well-structured, it terminates already after one iteration!
Discussion

The efficiency crucially depends on the number of iterations. If the cfg is **well-structured**, it terminates already after **one** iteration!

A **well-structured** cfg can be reduced to a single vertex or edge by:
Discussion

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A well-structured cfg can be reduced to a single vertex or edge by:
Discussion (cont.)

- Reducible cfgs are not the exception — but the rule.
- In Java, reducibility is only violated by loops with breaks/continues.
- If the insertion of definitions does not terminate after $k$ iterations, we may immediately terminate the procedure by inserting definitions $x = x$ before all nodes which are reached by more than one definition of $x$.

Assume now that every program point $u$ is reached by exactly one definition for each variable which is live at $u$ ...
The Transformation SSA, Step 2

Each edge \((u, \text{lab}, v)\) is replaced with \((u, \mathcal{T}_{v,\phi}[\text{lab}], v)\) where 
\[
\phi x = x'_{u'} \quad \text{if} \quad \langle x, u' \rangle \in \mathcal{R}[u] \quad \text{and:}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{T}_{v,\phi}[;] &= , \\
\mathcal{T}_{v,\phi}[\text{Neg}(e)] &= \text{Neg}(\phi(e)) \\
\mathcal{T}_{v,\phi}[\text{Pos}(e)] &= \text{Pos}(\phi(e)) \\
\mathcal{T}_{v,\phi}[x = e] &= x_v = \phi(e) \\
\mathcal{T}_{v,\phi}[x = M[e]] &= x_v = M[\phi(e)] \\
\mathcal{T}_{v,\phi}[M[e_1] = e_2] &= M[\phi(e_1)] = \phi(e_2) \\
\mathcal{T}_{v,\phi}[^{\{x = x \mid x \in L\}}] &= \{x_v = \phi(x) \mid x \in L\}
\end{align*}
\]
Remark

The multiple assignments:

\[ pa = x_{v1}^{(1)} = x_{v1}^{(1)} \mid \ldots \mid x_{vk}^{(k)} = x_{vk}^{(k)} \]

in the last row are thought to be executed in parallel, i.e.,

\[ \lbrack pa \rbrack (\rho, \mu) = (\rho \oplus \{ x_{v}^{(i)} \mapsto \rho(x_{vi}^{(i)}) \mid i = 1, \ldots, k \}, \mu) \]
Example

\[
x_1 = M[I];
\]

\[
y_1 = 1;
\]

\[
\psi_1 = x_3 = x_1 \mid y_3 = y_1
\]

\[
\psi_2 = x_3 = x_2 \mid y_3 = y_2
\]
Theorem

Assume that every program point is reachable from \textbf{start} and the program is in SSA form without assignments to dead variables.

Let $\lambda$ denote the maximal number of simultaneously live variables and $G$ the interference graph of the program variables. Then:

$$\lambda = \omega(G') = \chi(G')$$

where $\omega(G'), \chi(G')$ are the maximal size of a clique in $G$ and the minimal number of colors for $G$, respectively.

A minimal coloring of $G$, i.e., an optimal register allocation can be found in polynomial time.
Discussion

- By the theorem, the number $\lambda$ of required registers can be easily computed.
- Thus variables which are to be spilled to memory, can be determined ahead of the subsequent assignment of registers.
- Thus we may, e.g., insist on keeping iteration variables from inner loops.
Discussion

- By the theorem, the number $\lambda$ of required registers can be easily computed.

- Thus variables which are to be spilled to memory, can be determined ahead of the subsequent assignment of registers.

- Thus here, we may, e.g., insist on keeping iteration variables from inner loops.

- Clearly, always $\lambda \leq \omega(G') \leq \chi(G')$.

Therefore, it suffices to color the interference graph with $\lambda$ colors.

- Instead, we provide an algorithm which directly operates on the cfg ...
Observation

- Live ranges of variables in programs in SSA form behave similar to live ranges in basic blocks.
- Consider some dfs spanning tree $T$ of the cfg with root $\text{start}$.
- For each variable $x$, the live range $\mathcal{L}[x]$ forms a tree fragment of $T$.
- A tree fragment is a subtree from which some subtrees have been removed ...
Example

\[ x = M[i]; \]
\[ y = 1; \]
\[ M[a] = y; \]
\[ x = x - 1; \]
\[ y = x \times y; \]

Neg(\(x > 1\))

Pos(\(x > 1\))
Discussion

• Although the example program is not in SSA form, all live ranges still form tree fragments.
• The intersection of tree fragments is again a tree fragment!
• A set $C$ of tree fragments forms a clique iff their intersection is non-empty !!!
• The greedy algorithm will find an optimal coloring ...
Proof of the Intersection Property

(1) Assume \( I_1 \cap I_2 \neq \emptyset \) and \( v_i \) is the root of \( I_i \). Then:

\[ v_1 \in I_2 \quad \text{or} \quad v_2 \in I_1 \]

(2) Let \( C \) denote a clique of tree fragments. Then there is an enumeration \( C = \{I_1, \ldots, I_r\} \) with roots \( v_1, \ldots, v_r \) such that

\[ v_i \in I_j \quad \text{for all} \quad j \leq i \]

In particular, \( v_r \in I_i \) for all \( i \).
The Greedy Algorithm

forall (\(u \in \text{Nodes}\)) \(\text{visited}[u] = \text{false}\);
forall (\(x \in \mathcal{L}[\text{start}]\)) \(\Gamma(x) = \text{extract}(\text{free})\);
alloc(\text{start});

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{void alloc (Node } u \text{) } \{ \\
\quad \text{visited}[u] = \text{true}; \\
\quad \forall ((\text{lab}, v) \in \text{edges}[u]) \\
\quad \quad \text{if } (\neg \text{visited}[v]) \{ \\
\quad \quad \quad \forall (x \in \mathcal{L}[u] \setminus \mathcal{L}[v]) \text{ insert}(\text{free}, \Gamma(x)); \\
\quad \quad \quad \forall (x \in \mathcal{L}[v] \setminus \mathcal{L}[u]) \Gamma(x) = \text{extract}(\text{free}); \\
\quad \quad \quad \text{alloc}(v); \\
\quad \quad \} \\
\}\}
\]

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Example

\[ x = M[A]; \]
\[ y = x + 1; \]
\[ t = -y \cdot y; \]
\[ z = x \cdot x; \]
\[ M[A] = t; \]
\[ M[A] = z; \]
Example

\[
x = M[A];
\]

\[
y = x + 1;
\]

Neg \(y\) \hspace{1cm} Pos \(y\)

\[
t = -y \cdot y;
\]

\[
z = x \cdot x;
\]

M\([A]\) = t; \hspace{1cm} M\([A]\) = z;

\[
R_1 = M[A];
\]

\[
R_2 = R_1 + 1;
\]

Neg \(R_2\) \hspace{1cm} Pos \(R_2\)

\[
R_1 = -R_2 \cdot R_2;
\]

\[
R_1 = R_1 \cdot R_1
\]

M\([A]\) = R_1; \hspace{1cm} M\([A]\) = R_1;
Remark

- Intersection graphs for tree fragments are also known as **chordal graphs** ...
- A chordal graph is an undirected graph where every cycle with more than three nodes contains a **cord**.
- Chordal graphs are another sub-class of **perfect graphs**.
- Cheap register allocation comes at a price:
  
  when transforming into **SSA** form, we have introduced parallel register-register moves.
Problem

The parallel register assignment:

\[ \psi_1 = R_1 = R_2 \mid R_2 = R_1 \]

is meant to exchange the registers \( R_1 \) and \( R_2 \).

There are at least two ways of implementing this exchange ...
Problem

The parallel register assignment:

\[ \psi_1 = R_1 = R_2 \mid R_2 = R_1 \]

is meant to exchange the registers \( R_1 \) and \( R_2 \).

There are at least two ways of implementing this exchange ...

(1) Using an auxiliary register:

\[
\begin{align*}
R &= R_1; \\
R_1 &= R_2; \\
R_2 &= R;
\end{align*}
\]
(2) XOR:

\[
R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2; \\
R_2 = R_1 \oplus R_2; \\
R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2; \\
R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2;
\]
(2) XOR:

\[ R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2; \]
\[ R_2 = R_1 \oplus R_2; \]
\[ R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2; \]

But what about cyclic shifts such as:

\[ \psi_k = R_1 = R_2 | \ldots | R_{k-1} = R_k | R_k = R_1 \]

for \( k > 2 \) ??
(2) **XOR:**

\[
R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2; \\
R_2 = R_1 \oplus R_2; \\
R_1 = R_1 \oplus R_2;
\]

But what about cyclic shifts such as:

\[
\psi_k = R_1 = R_2 | \ldots | R_{k-1} = R_k | R_k = R_1
\]

for \( k > 2 \) ??

Then at most \( k - 1 \) swaps of two registers are needed:

\[
\psi_k = R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2; \\
\ldots \\
R_{k-1} \leftrightarrow R_k;
\]
Next complicated case: Permutations

- Every permutation can be decomposed into a set of disjoint shifts.
- Any permutation of $n$ registers with $r$ shifts can be realized by $n - r$ swaps...
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- Every permutation can be decomposed into a set of disjoint shifts.
- Any permutation of $n$ registers with $r$ shifts can be realized by $n - r$ swaps ...

Example

$$\psi = R_1 = R_2 \mid R_2 = R_5 \mid R_3 = R_4 \mid R_4 = R_3 \mid R_5 = R_1$$

consists of the cycles $(R_1, R_2, R_5)$ and $(R_3, R_4)$. Therefore:

$$\psi = R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2; \quad R_2 \leftrightarrow R_5; \quad R_3 \leftrightarrow R_4;$$
The general case

- Every register receives its value at most once.
- The assignment therefore can be decomposed into a permutation together with tree-like assignments (directed towards the leaves) ...

Example

\[ \psi = R_1 = R_2 \mid R_2 = R_4 \mid R_3 = R_5 \mid R_5 = R_3 \]

The parallel assignment realizes the linear register moves for \( R_1, R_2 \) and \( R_4 \) together with the cyclic shift for \( R_3 \) and \( R_5 \):

\[ \psi = R_1 = R_2; \]
\[ R_2 = R_4; \]
\[ R_3 \leftrightarrow R_5; \]
Interprocedural Register Allocation

→ For every local variable, there is an entry in the stack frame.
→ Before calling a function, the locals must be saved into the stack frame and be restored after the call.
→ Sometimes there is hardware support.

Then the call is transparent for all registers.
→ If it is our responsibility to save and restore, we may ...
  • save only registers which are over-written;
  • restore overwritten registers only.
→ Alternatively, we save only registers which are still live after the call — and then possibly into different registers ⇒ reduction of life ranges
3.2 Instruction Level Parallelism

Modern processors do not execute one instruction after the other strictly sequentially.

Here, we consider two approaches:

(1) VLIW (Very Large Instruction Words)  
(2) Pipelining
VLIW

One instruction simultaneously executes up to $k$ (e.g., 4) elementary Instructions.

Pipelining

Instruction execution may overlap.

Example

$$w = (R_1 = R_2 + R_3 \mid D = D_1 \times D_2 \mid R_3 = M[R_4])$$
Caveat

- Instructions occupy hardware resources.
- Instructions may access the same busses/registers **hazards**
- Results of an instruction may be available only after some delay.
- During execution, different parts of the hardware are involved:

  ![Fetch Decode Execute Write Diagram](image)

  - During **Execute** and **Write** different internal registers/busses/alu's may be used.
We conclude:

Distributing the instruction sequence into sequences of words is amenable to various constraints ...

In the following, we ignore the phases Fetch und Decode.

Examples for Constraints

(1) at most one load/store per word;
(2) at most one jump;
(3) at most one write into the same register.
Example Timing:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Floating-point Operation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Load/Store</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integer Arithmetic</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Timing Diagram:

\[
\begin{array}{l|cccc}
 & R_1 & R_2 & R_3 & D \\
\hline
0 & 5 & -1 & 2 & 0.3 \\
1 & 1 & & & \\
2 & & & 49 & \\
3 & & & & 17.4 \\
\end{array}
\]

\(R_3\) is over-written, after the addition has fetched 2.
If a register is accessed simultaneously (here: $R_3$), a strategy of conflict solving is required ...

Conflicts

**Read-Read:** A register is simultaneously read.

⇒ in general, unproblematic.

**Read-Write:** A register is simultaneously read and written.

**Conflict Resolution:**

- ... ruled out!
- Read is delayed (stalls), until write has terminated!
- Read before write returns old value!
Write-Write: A register is simultaneously written to.

⇒ in general, unproblematic.

Conflict Resolutions:

• ... ruled out!
• ...

In Our Examples ... 

• simultaneous read is permitted;
• read before write;
• write/write is ruled out;
• no stalls are injected.

We first consider basic blocks only, i.e., linear sequences of
assignments ...
**Idea:** Data Dependence Graph

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vertices</th>
<th>Instructions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Edges</td>
<td>Dependencies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example**

1. \( x = x + 1; \)
2. \( y = M[A]; \)
3. \( t = z; \)
4. \( z = M[A + x]; \)
5. \( t = y + z; \)
Possible Dependencies

- Definition $\rightarrow$ Use  // Reaching Definitions
- Use $\rightarrow$ Definition  // ???
- Definition $\rightarrow$ Definition  // Reaching Definitions

**Reaching Definitions:**

Determine for each $u$ which definitions may reach $decess can be determined by means of a system of constraints.
... in the Example:

\begin{center}
\begin{tikzpicture}
\node (1) at (0,0) {$x = x + 1;$};
\node (2) at (0,-1) {$y = M[A]$;};
\node (3) at (0,-2) {$t = z;$};
\node (4) at (0,-3) {$z = M[A + x]$;};
\node (5) at (0,-4) {$t = y + z;$};
\node (6) at (0,-5) {};
\end{tikzpicture}
\end{center}

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline
\textbf{R} & \\
\hline
1 & \{\langle x, 1 \rangle, \langle y, 1 \rangle, \langle z, 1 \rangle, \langle t, 1 \rangle \} \\
2 & \{\langle x, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 1 \rangle, \langle z, 1 \rangle, \langle t, 1 \rangle \} \\
3 & \{\langle x, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 3 \rangle, \langle z, 1 \rangle, \langle t, 1 \rangle \} \\
4 & \{\langle x, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 3 \rangle, \langle z, 1 \rangle, \langle t, 4 \rangle \} \\
5 & \{\langle x, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 3 \rangle, \langle z, 5 \rangle, \langle t, 4 \rangle \} \\
6 & \{\langle x, 2 \rangle, \langle y, 3 \rangle, \langle z, 5 \rangle, \langle t, 6 \rangle \} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
Let $U_i, D_i$ denote the sets of variables which are used or defined at the edge outgoing from $u_i$. Then:

$$(u_1, u_2) \in DD \quad \text{if} \quad u_1 \in \mathcal{R}[u_2] \land D_1 \cap D_2 \neq \emptyset$$

$$(u_1, u_2) \in DU \quad \text{if} \quad u_1 \in \mathcal{R}[u_2] \land D_1 \cap U_2 \neq \emptyset$$

... in the Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Def</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$x = x + 1$;</td>
<td>{x}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$y = M[A]$;</td>
<td>{y}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$t = z$;</td>
<td>{t}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>$z = M[A + x]$;</td>
<td>{z}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>$t = y + z$;</td>
<td>{t}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Let \( U_i, D_i \) denote the sets of variables which are used or defined at the edge outgoing from \( u_i \). Then:

\[(u_1, u_2) \in DU \quad \text{if} \quad u_1 \in \mathcal{R}[u_2] \land D_1 \cap U_2 \neq \emptyset\]

... in the Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Def</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>( x_1 = x + 1; )</td>
<td>{x_1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>( y = M[A]; )</td>
<td>{y}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>( t = z; )</td>
<td>{t}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>( z_1 = M[A + x_1]; )</td>
<td>{z_1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>( t_1 = y + z_1; )</td>
<td>{t_1}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The UD-edge \((3, 4)\) has been inserted to exclude that \(z\) is over-written before use.

In the next step, each instruction is annotated with its (required ressources, in particular, its) execution time. Our goal is a maximally parallel correct sequence of words. For that, we maintain the current system state:

\[
\Sigma : Vars \rightarrow \mathbb{N}
\]

\[
\Sigma(x) \triangleq \text{expected delay until } x \text{ is available}
\]

Initially:

\[
\Sigma(x) = 0
\]

As an invariant, we guarantee on entry of the basic block, that all operations are terminated.
Then the slots of the word sequence are successively filled:

- We start with the minimal nodes in the dependence graph.
- If we fail to fill all slots of a word, we insert ; .
- After every inserted instruction, we re-compute $\Sigma$. 

Caveat

$\Rightarrow$ The execution of two VLIWs can overlap !!!
$\Rightarrow$ Determining an optimal sequence, is NP-hard ...
Example: Word width \( k = 2 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>y, z</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
x = x + 1 \quad y = M[A] \\
t = z \quad z = M[A + x] \\
t = y + z
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>x</th>
<th>y</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In each cycle, the execution of a new word is triggered. The state just records the number of cycles still to be waited for the result.
Remark

- If instructions put constraints on future selection, we also record these in $\Sigma$.
- Overall, we still distinguish just finitely many system states.
- The computation of the effect of a VLIW onto $\Sigma$ can be compiled into a finite automaton !!!!
- This automaton, though, could be quite huge.
- The challenge of making choices still remains.
- Basic blocks usually are not very large $\implies$ opportunities for parallelization are limited.
Extension 1: Acyclic Code

```plaintext
if (x > 1) {
    y = M[A];
    z = x - 1;
} else {
    y = M[A + 1];
    z = x - 1;
}
```

`y = y + 1;`

The dependence graph must be enriched with extra control-dependencies ...
The statement \( z = x - 1; \) is executed with the same arguments in both branches and does not modify any of the remaining variables.

We could have moved it before the \textit{if} anyway.
The following code could be generated:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( z = x - 1 )</td>
<td>( \text{if } (! (x &gt; 0)) \text{ goto } A )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( y = M[A] )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goto ( B )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( A : )</td>
<td>( y = M[A + 1] )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( B : )</td>
<td>( y = y + 1 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At every jump target, we guarantee the invariant.
If we allow several (known) states on entry of a sub-block, we can generate code which complies with all of these.

... in the Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>[z = x - 1]</th>
<th>[\text{if } (! (x &gt; 0)) \text{ goto } A]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[y = M[A]]</td>
<td>[\text{goto } B]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(A:)</td>
<td>(y = M[A + 1])</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B:)</td>
<td>(y = y + 1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If this parallelism is not yet sufficient, we could try to speculatively execute possibly useful tasks ...

For that, we require:

- an idea which alternative is executed more frequently;
- the wrong execution may not end in a catastrophe, i.e., run-time errors such as, e.g., division by 0;
- the wrong execution must allow roll-back (e.g., by delaying a commit) or may not have any observational effects ...
... in the Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$z = x - 1$</th>
<th>$y = M[A]$</th>
<th>if $(x &gt; 0)$ goto $B$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$y = M[A + 1]$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$y = y + 1$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the case $x \leq 0$ we have $y = M[A]$ executed in advance. This value, however, is overwritten in the next step ...

**In general:**

$x = e$; has no observable effect in a branch if $x$ is dead in this branch.
Extension 2: Unrolling of Loops

We may unrole important, i.e., inner loops several times:
Now it is clear which side of tests to prefer:
the side which stays within the unroled body of the loop.

Caveat

- The different instances of the body are translated relative to possibly different initial states.
- The code behind the loop must be correct relative to the exit state corresponding to every jump out of the loop!
Example

for (x = 0; x < n; x++)
    M[A + x] = z;

Duplication of the body yields:
for \((x = 0; x < n; x++)\) {
    \(M[A + x] = z;\)
    \(x = x + 1;\)
    if \(! (x < n)\) break;
    \(M[A + x] = z;\)
}
It would be better to remove \( x = x + 1; \) together with the test in the middle — since these serialize execution of the copies !!

This is possible if \( x + 1 \) is substituted for \( x \) in the second copy, the condition is transformed and compensation code is added:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{for } (x = 0; x + 1 < n; x = x + 2) & \quad \{ \\
M[A + x] &= z; \\
M[A + x + 1] &= z; \\
\} \\
\text{if } (x < n) & \quad \{ \\
M[A + x] &= z; \\
x &= x + 1; \\
\} \\
\end{align*}
\]
Discussion

- Elimination of the intermediate test together with the fusion of all increments at the end reveals that the different loop iterations are in fact independent.
- Nonetheless, we do not gain much since we only allow one store per word.
- If right-hand sides, however, are more complex, we can interleave their evaluation with the stores.
Extension 3

Sometimes, one loop alone does not provide enough opportunities for parallelization.
... but perhaps two successively in a row ...

Example

```c
for (x = 0; x < n; x++) {
    R_1 = B[x];
    S_1 = C[x];
    T_1 = R_1 + S_1;
    A[x] = T_1;
}
```

```c
for (x = 0; x < n; x++) {
    R_2 = B[x];
    S_2 = C[x];
    T_2 = R_2 - S_2;
    C[x] = T_2;
}
```
In order to fuse two loops into one, we require that:

- the iteration schemes coincide;
- the two loops access different data.

In case of individual variables, this can easily be verified. This is more difficult in presence of arrays. Taking the source program into account, accesses to distinct statically allocated arrays can be identified. An analysis of accesses to the same array is significantly more difficult ...
Assume that the blocks $A, B, C$ are distinct.

Then we can combine the two loops into:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{for } (x = 0; x < n; x++) & \{ \\
R_1 &= B[x]; & R_2 &= B[x]; \\
S_1 &= C[x]; & S_2 &= C[x]; \\
T_1 &= R_1 + S_1; & T_2 &= R_2 - S_2; \\
A[x] &= T_1; & C[x] &= T_2; \\
\}
\end{align*}
\]
The first loop may in iteration $x$ not read data which the second loop writes to in iterations $< x$.

The second loop may in iteration $x$ not read data which the first loop writes to in iterations $> x$.

If the index expressions of jointly accessed arrays are linear, the given constraints can be verified through integer linear programming ...

\[
\begin{align*}
  i & \geq 0 \\
  i & \leq x - 1
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
  x_{\text{write}} & = i \\
  x_{\text{read}} & = x \\
  x_{\text{read}} & = x_{\text{write}}
\end{align*}
\]

// $x_{\text{read}}$ read access to $C$ by 1st loop
// $x_{\text{write}}$ write access to $C$ by 2nd loop

... obviously has no solution.
General Form:

\[
\begin{align*}
s & \geq t_1 \\
t_2 & \geq s \\
y_1 & = s_1 \\
y_2 & = s_2 \\
y_1 & = y_2
\end{align*}
\]

for linear expressions \( s, t_1, t_2, s_1, s_2 \) over \( i \) and the iteration variables.

This can be simplified to:

\[
0 \leq s - t_1 \quad 0 \leq t_2 - s \quad 0 = s_1 - s_2
\]

What should we do with it ???
Simple Case:

The two inequations have no solution over \( \mathbb{Q} \). Then they also have no solution over \( \mathbb{Z} \).

... in Our Example:

\[
\begin{align*}
x &= i \\
0 &\leq i \quad \Rightarrow \quad x \\
0 &\leq x - 1 - i \quad \Rightarrow \quad -1
\end{align*}
\]

The second inequation has no solution.
One Variable:

The inequations where \( x \) occurs positive, provide lower bounds.

The inequations where \( x \) occurs negative, provide upper bounds.

If \( G, L \) are the greatest lower and the least upper bound, respectively, then all (integer) solution are in the interval \([G, L]\).

Example

\[
0 \leq 13 - 7 \cdot x \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad x \leq \frac{13}{7} \\
0 \leq -1 + 5 \cdot x \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad x \geq \frac{1}{5}
\]

The only integer solution of the system is \( x = 1 \).
Discussion

- Solutions only matter within the bounds to the iteration variables.
- Every integer solution there provides a conflict.
- Fusion of loops is possible if no conflicts occur.
- The given special case suffices to solve the case one variable over $\mathbb{Z}$.
- The number of variables in the inequations corresponds to the nesting-depth of for-loops in general, is quite small.
Discussion

- **Integer Linear Programming (ILP)** can decide satisfiability of a finite set of equations/inequations over \( \mathbb{Z} \) of the form:

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot x_i = b \quad \text{bzw.} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot x_i \geq b, \quad a_i \in \mathbb{Z}
\]

- Moreover, a (linear) cost function can be optimized.
- **Warning:** The decision problem is in general, already NP-hard!!!
- Notwithstanding that, surprisingly efficient implementations exist.
- Not just loop fusion, but also other re-organizations of loops yield ILP problems ...
Background 5: Presburger Arithmetic

Many problems in computer science can be formulated without multiplication.

Let us first consider two simple special cases ...

1. Linear Equations

\[ 2x + 3y = 24 \]
\[ x - y + 5z = 3 \]
Question

- Is there a solution over $\mathbb{Q}$?
- Is there a solution over $\mathbb{Z}$?
- Is there a solution over $\mathbb{N}$?

Let us reconsider the equations:

$$2x + 3y = 24$$
$$x - y + 5z = 3$$
Answers

• Is there a solution over $\mathbb{Q}$? Yes
• Is there a solution over $\mathbb{Z}$? No
• Is there a solution over $\mathbb{N}$? No

Complexity

• Is there a solution over $\mathbb{Q}$? Polynomial
• Is there a solution over $\mathbb{Z}$? Polynomial
• Is there a solution over $\mathbb{N}$? NP-hard
Solution Method for Integers

Observation 1

\[ a_1 x_1 + \ldots + a_k x_k = b \quad (\forall i : a_i \neq 0) \]

has a solution iff

\[ \gcd\{a_1, \ldots, a_k\} \mid b \]
Example

\[ 5y - 10z = 18 \]

has no solution over \( \mathbb{Z} \).
Example

\[ 5y - 10z = 18 \]

has no solution over \( \mathbb{Z} \).

Observation 2

Adding a multiple of one equation to another does not change the set of solutions.
Example

\[2x + 3y = 24\]
\[x - y + 5z = 3\]
Example

\[ 2x + 3y = 24 \]
\[ x - y + 5z = 3 \]

\[ \Rightarrow \]

\[ 5y - 10z = 18 \]
\[ x - y + 5z = 3 \]
Observation 3

Adding multiples of columns to another column is an invertible transformation which we keep track of in a separate matrix...

\[
\begin{array}{ccc|c}
1 & 0 & 0 & 5y - 10z = 18 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & x - y + 5z = 3 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{ccc|c}
1 & 0 & 0 & 5y = 18 \\
0 & 1 & 2 & x - y + 3z = 3 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & \\
\end{array}
\]
Observation 3

Adding multiples of columns to another column is an invertible transformation which we keep track of in a separate matrix ...

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 2 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
5y \\
x - y + 3z \\
3z
\end{pmatrix}
= 
\begin{pmatrix}
18 \\
3 \\
3
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[\Rightarrow\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & -3 \\
0 & 1 & 2 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
5y \\
x - y \\
3z
\end{pmatrix}
= 
\begin{pmatrix}
18 \\
3 \\
3
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[\Rightarrow\] triangular form!!
Observation 4

- A special solution of a triangular system can be directly read off.
- All solutions of a homogeneous triangular system can be directly read off.
- All solutions of the original system can be recovered from the solutions of the triangular system by means of the accumulated transformation matrix.
Example

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & -3 \\
0 & 1 & 2 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
5y \\
x \\
y
\end{bmatrix}
= \begin{bmatrix}
15 \\
3
\end{bmatrix}
\]

One special solution:

\[ [6, 3, 0]^T \]

All solutions of the homogeneous system are spanned by:

\[ [0, 0, 1]^T \]
Solving over $\mathbb{N}$

- ... is of major practical importance;

- ... has led to the development of many new techniques;

- ... easily allows to encode NP-hard problems;

- ... remains difficult if just three variables are allowed per equation.
2. One Polynomial Special Case

\[ x \geq y + 5 \]
\[ 19 \geq x \]
\[ y \geq 13 \]
\[ y \geq x - 7 \]

- There are at most 2 variables per in-equation;
- no scaling factors.
Idea: Represent the system by a graph:
The in-equations are **satisfiable** iff

- the weight of every **cycle** are at most 0;
- the weights of paths **reaching** $x$ are bounded by the weights of edges from $x$ into the **sink**.
5 - 7 \leq 0
13 + 5 ≤ 19
The in-equations are **satisfiable** iff

- the weight of every *cycle* are at most 0;
- the weights of paths reaching \( x \) are bounded by the weights of edges from \( x \) into the sink.

=>

Apply Bellman-Ford algorithm!
3. A General Solution Method

Idea: Fourier-Motzkin Elimination

- Successively remove individual variables $x$.
- All in-equations with positive occurrences of $x$ yield lower bounds.
- All in-equations with negative occurrences of $x$ yield upper bounds.
- All lower bounds must be at most as big as all upper bounds.
Jean Baptiste Joseph Fourier, 1768–1830
Example

\begin{align*}
9 & \leq 4x_1 + x_2 \quad (1) \\
4 & \leq x_1 + 2x_2 \quad (2) \\
0 & \leq 2x_1 - x_2 \quad (3) \\
6 & \leq x_1 + 6x_2 \quad (4) \\
-11 & \leq -x_1 - 2x_2 \quad (5) \\
-17 & \leq -6x_1 + 2x_2 \quad (6) \\
-4 & \leq -x_2 \quad (7)
\end{align*}
For $x_1$ we obtain:

\begin{align*}
9 & \leq 4x_1 + x_2 \quad (1) & \quad \frac{9}{4} - \frac{1}{4}x_2 & \leq x_1 \quad (1) \\
4 & \leq x_1 + 2x_2 \quad (2) & \quad 4 - 2x_2 & \leq x_1 \quad (2) \\
0 & \leq 2x_1 - x_2 \quad (3) & \quad \frac{1}{2}x_2 & \leq x_1 \quad (3) \\
6 & \leq x_1 + 6x_2 \quad (4) & \quad 6 - 6x_2 & \leq x_1 \quad (4) \\
-11 & \leq -x_1 - 2x_2 \quad (5) & \quad x_1 & \leq 11 - 2x_2 \quad (5) \\
-17 & \leq -6x_1 + 2x_2 \quad (6) & \quad x_1 & \leq \frac{17}{6} + \frac{1}{3}x_2 \quad (6) \\
-4 & \leq -x_2 \quad (7) & \quad -4 & \leq -x_2 \quad (7)
\end{align*}

If such an $x_1$ exists, all lower bounds must be bounded by all upper bounds, i.e.,
\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{9}{4} - \frac{1}{4}x_2 & \leq 11 - 2x_2 & (1, 5) & -35 \leq -7x_2 & (1, 5) \\
\frac{9}{4} - \frac{1}{4}x_2 & \leq \frac{17}{6} + \frac{1}{3}x_2 & (1, 6) & -\frac{7}{12} \leq \frac{7}{12}x_2 & (1, 6) \\
4 - 2x_2 & \leq 11 - 2x_2 & (2, 5) & -7 \leq 0 & (2, 5) \\
4 - 2x_2 & \leq \frac{17}{6} + \frac{1}{3}x_2 & (2, 6) & \frac{7}{6} \leq \frac{7}{3}x_2 & (2, 6) \\
\frac{1}{2}x_2 & \leq 11 - 2x_2 & (3, 5) \quad \text{or} \quad -22 \leq -5x_2 & (3, 5) \\
\frac{1}{2}x_2 & \leq \frac{17}{6} + \frac{1}{3}x_2 & (3, 6) & -\frac{17}{6} \leq -\frac{1}{6}x_2 & (3, 6) \\
6 - 6x_2 & \leq 11 - 2x_2 & (4, 5) & -5 \leq 4x_2 & (4, 5) \\
6 - 6x_2 & \leq \frac{17}{6} + \frac{1}{3}x_2 & (4, 6) & \frac{19}{6} \leq \frac{19}{3}x_2 & (4, 6) \\
-4 & \leq -x_2 & (7) & -4 \leq -x_2 & (7)
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{9}{4} - \frac{1}{4}x_2 & \leq 11 - 2x_2 \quad (1, 5) & -5 & \leq -x_2 \quad (1, 5) \\
\frac{9}{4} - \frac{1}{4}x_2 & \leq \frac{17}{6} + \frac{1}{3}x_2 \quad (1, 6) & -1 & \leq x_2 \quad (1, 6) \\
4 - 2x_2 & \leq 11 - 2x_2 \quad (2, 5) & -7 & \leq 0 \quad (2, 5) \\
4 - 2x_2 & \leq \frac{17}{6} + \frac{1}{3}x_2 \quad (2, 6) & \frac{1}{2} & \leq x_2 \quad (2, 6) \\
\frac{1}{2}x_2 & \leq 11 - 2x_2 \quad (3, 5) & \text{or} & \frac{-22}{5} & \leq -x_2 \quad (3, 5) \\
\frac{1}{2}x_2 & \leq \frac{17}{6} + \frac{1}{3}x_2 \quad (3, 6) & -17 & \leq -x_2 \quad (3, 6) \\
6 - 6x_2 & \leq 11 - 2x_2 \quad (4, 5) & -\frac{5}{4} & \leq x_2 \quad (4, 5) \\
6 - 6x_2 & \leq \frac{17}{6} + \frac{1}{3}x_2 \quad (4, 6) & \frac{1}{2} & \leq x_2 \quad (4, 6) \\
-4 & \leq -x_2 \quad (7) & -4 & \leq -x_2 \quad (7)
\end{align*}
\]

This is the one-variable case which we can solve exactly:
max \{-1, \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{5}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\} \leq x_2 \leq \min \{5, \frac{22}{5}, 17, 4\}

From which we conclude: \(x_2 \in \left[\frac{1}{2}, 4\right]\).

**In General:**

- The original system has a solution over \(\mathbb{Q}\) iff the system after elimination of one variable has a solution over \(\mathbb{Q}\).
- Every elimination step may square the number of inequations \(\Longrightarrow\) exponential run-time.
- It can be modified such that it also decides satisfiability over \(\mathbb{Z}\) \(\Longrightarrow\) Omega Test.
William Worthington Pugh, Jr.
University of Maryland, College Park
Idea

• We successively remove variables. Thereby we omit division ...
• If $x$ only occurs with coefficient $\pm 1$, we apply Fourier-Motzkin elimination.
• Otherwise, we provide a bound for a positive multiple of $x$ ...

Consider, e.g., (1) and (6):

\[
6 \cdot x_1 \leq 17 + 2x_2 \\
9 - x_2 \leq 4 \cdot x_1
\]
W.l.o.g., we only consider \textbf{strict} in-equations:

\[ 6 \cdot x_1 < 18 + 2x_2 \]
\[ 8 - x_2 < 4 \cdot x_1 \]

... where we always divide by gc\textit{ds}:

\[ 3 \cdot x_1 < 9 + x_2 \]
\[ 8 - x_2 < 4 \cdot x_1 \]

This implies:

\[ 3 \cdot (8 - x_2) < 4 \cdot (9 + x_2) \]
We thereby obtain:

- If one derived in-equation is unsatisfiable, then also the overall system.
- If all derived in-equations are satisfiable, then there is a solution which, however, need not be integer.
- An integer solution is guaranteed to exist if there is sufficient separation between lower and upper bound ...
- Assume \( \alpha < a \cdot x \) \hspace{1cm} \( b \cdot x < \beta \).

Then it should hold that:

\[ b \cdot \alpha < a \cdot \beta \]

and moreover:

\[ a \cdot b < a \cdot \beta - b \cdot \alpha \]
... in the Example:

\[ 12 < 4 \cdot (9 + x_2) - 3 \cdot (8 - x_2) \]

or:

\[ 12 < 12 + 7x_2 \]

or:

\[ 0 < x_2 \]

In the example, also these strengthened in-equations are satisfiable

\[ \implies \text{ the system has a solution over } \mathbb{Z}. \]
Discussion

- If the strengthened in-equations are satisfiable, then also the original system. The reverse implication may be wrong!
- In the case where upper and lower bound are not sufficiently separated, we have:

\[ a \cdot \beta \leq b \cdot \alpha + a \cdot b \]

or:

\[ b \cdot \alpha < ab \cdot x < b \cdot \alpha + a \cdot b \]

Division with \( b \) yields:

\[ \alpha < a \cdot x < \alpha + a \]

\[ \alpha + i = a \cdot x \quad \text{for some} \quad i \in \{1, \ldots, a - 1\} \quad !!! \]
Discussion (cont.)

→ Fourier-Motzkin Elimination is not the best method for rational systems of in-equations.

→ The Omega test is necessarily exponential. If the system is solvable, the test generally terminates rapidly.

It may have problems with unsolvable systems.

→ Also for ILP, there are other/smarter algorithms ...

→ For programming language problems, however, it seems to behave quite well.
4. Generalization to a Logic

Disjunction

\[(x - 2y = 15 \land x + y = 7) \lor (x + y = 6 \land 3x + z = -8)\]

Quantors:

\[\exists x : z - 2x = 42 \land z + x = 19\]
4. Generalization to a Logic

Disjunction:

\[(x - 2y = 15 \land x + y = 7) \lor (x + y = 6 \land 3x + z = -8)\]

Quantors:

\[\exists x : z - 2x = 42 \land z + x = 19\]

\[\implies \]

Presburger Arithmetic
Mojzesz Presburger, 1904–1943 (?)
Presburger Arithmetic \[\equiv\] full arithmetic without multiplication
Presburger Arithmetic \implies full arithmetic without multiplication

Arithmetic : highly undecidable
even incomplete
Presburger Arithmetic = full arithmetic without multiplication

Arithmetic : highly undecidable
even incomplete

⇒ Hilbert’s 10th Problem
⇒ Gödel’s Theorem
Presburger Formulas over \( \mathbb{N} \):

\[
\phi ::= x + y = z \mid x = n \mid \\
\phi_1 \land \phi_2 \mid \neg \phi \\
\exists x :\; \phi
\]
Presburger Formulas over \( \mathbb{N} \):

\[
\phi \ ::= \ x + y = z \ | \ x = n \ | \\
\phi_1 \land \phi_2 \ | \ \neg \phi \ | \\
\exists x : \ \phi
\]

Goal: \[\text{PSAT}\]

Find values for the free variables in \( \mathbb{N} \) such that \( \phi \) holds ...
Idea: Code the values of the variables as *Words*

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Observation

The set of satisfying variable assignments is regular!
Observation

The set of satisfying variable assignments is regular!

\[ \phi_1 \land \phi_2 \implies L(\phi_1) \cap L(\phi_2) \quad \text{(Intersection)} \]

\[ \neg \phi \implies \overline{L(\phi)} \quad \text{(Complement)} \]

\[ \exists x : \phi \implies \pi_x (L(\phi)) \quad \text{(Projection)} \]
Projecting away the $x$-component:

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Projecting away the $x$-component:

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccc}
213 & t & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
42 & z & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
89 & y & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
\end{array}
\]
Caveat

- Our representation of numbers is not unique: $011101$ should be accepted iff every word from $011101 \cdot 0^*$ is accepted!
- This property is preserved by union, intersection and complement.
- It is lost by projection !!!

$\implies$ The automaton for projection must be enriched such that the property is re-established !!
Automata for Basic Predicates

$x = 5$

Diagram: A transition diagram with states 0, 1, 2, and 3, showing transitions labeled with 0 and 1.
Automata for Basic Predicates

\[ x + x = y \]
Automata for Basic Predicates

\[ x + y = z \]
Results

Ferrante, Rackoff, 1973: \[ \text{PSAT} \leq \text{DSPACE}(2^{2^c \cdot n}) \]
Results

Ferrante, Rackoff, 1973: \[ \text{PSAT} \leq \text{DSpace}(2^{2^{c \cdot n}}) \]

Fischer, Rabin, 1974: \[ \text{PSAT} \geq \text{NTime}(2^{2^{c \cdot n}}) \]
3.3 Improving the Memory Layout

Goal

- Better utilization of caches
  $\implies$ reduction of the number of cache misses
- Reduction of allocation/de-allocation costs
  $\implies$ replacing heap allocation by stack allocation
  $\implies$ support to free superfluous heap objects
- Reduction of access costs
  $\implies$ short-circuiting indirection chains (Unboxing)
1. Cache Optimization

Idea: local memory access

- Loading from memory fetches not just one byte but fills a complete cache line.
- Access to neighbored cells become cheaper.
- If all data of an inner loop fits into the cache, the iteration becomes maximally memory-efficient ...
Possible Solutions

→ Reorganize the data accesses!
→ Reorganize the data!

Such optimizations can be made fully automatic only for arrays.

Example

\[
\text{for} \ (j = 1; j < n; j++) \\
\quad \text{for} \ (i = 1; i < m; i++) \\
\quad \quad a[i][j] = a[i-1][j-1] + a[i][j];
\]
At first, always iterate over the rows!

Exchange the ordering of the iterations:

\[
\text{for } (i = 1; i < m; i++) \\
\quad \text{for } (j = 1; j < n; j++) \\
\qquad a[i][j] = a[i - 1][j - 1] + a[i][j];
\]

When is this permitted???
Iteration Scheme: before:
Iteration Scheme: after:
Iteration Scheme: allowed dependencies:
In our case, we must check that the following equation systems have no solution:

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\text{Write} & \text{Read} \\
\hline
(i_1, j_1) &= (i_2 - 1, j_2 - 1) \\
                  & i_1 \leq i_2 \\
                  & j_2 \leq j_1 \\
\hline
(i_1, j_1) &= (i_2 - 1, j_2 - 1) \\
                  & i_2 \leq i_1 \\
                  & j_1 \leq j_2 \\
\end{array}
\]

The first implies: \( j_2 \leq j_2 - 1 \) Hurra!
The second implies: \( i_2 \leq i_2 - 1 \) Hurra!
Example: Matrix-Matrix Multiplication

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{for } & (i = 0; i < N; i++) \\
& \quad \text{for } (j = 0; j < M; j++) \\
& \quad \quad \text{for } (k = 0; k < K; k++) \\
& \quad \quad \quad c[i][j] = c[i][j] + a[i][k] \cdot b[k][j];
\end{align*}
\]

Over \( b[]\) the iteration is columnwise.
Exchange the two inner loops

for  \( i = 0; i < N; i++ \)
    for  \( k = 0; k < K; k++ \)
        for  \( j = 0; j < M; j++ \)
            \[ c[i][j] = c[i][j] + a[i][k] \cdot b[k][j]; \]

Is this permitted ???
Discussion

- Correctness follows as before.
- A similar idea can also be used for the implementation of multiplication for row compressed matrices.
- Sometimes, the program must be massaged such that the transformation becomes applicable.
- Matrix-matrix multiplication perhaps requires initialization of the result matrix first ...
for  

\( i = 0; i < N; i++ \) 

\[
\text{for  } (j = 0; j < M; j++) \text{  } \{ \\
\quad c[i][j] = 0; \\
\quad \text{for  } (k = 0; k < K; k++) \text{  } \\
\quad \quad c[i][j] = c[i][j] + a[i][k] \cdot b[k][j]; \\
\text{\} }
\]

- Now, the two iterations can no longer be exchanged.
- The iteration over \( j \), however, can be duplicated ...
for (i = 0; i < N; i++) {
    for (j = 0; j < M; j++) c[i][j] = 0;
    for (j = 0; j < M; j++)
        for (k = 0; k < K; k++)
            c[i][j] = c[i][j] + a[i][k] * b[k][j];
}

Correctness

⇒⇒⇒ The read entries (here: no) may not be modified in the remaining body of the loop !!!
⇒⇒⇒ The ordering of the write accesses to a memory cell may not be changed.
We obtain:

for \((i = 0; i < N; i++)\) {
    for \((j = 0; j < M; j++)\) \(c[i][j] = 0;\)
    for \((k = 0; k < K; k++)\)
        for \((j = 0; j < M; j++)\)
            \(c[i][j] = c[i][j] + a[i][k] \cdot b[k][j];\)
}

Discussion

- Instead of fusing several loops, we now have distributed the loops.
- Accordingly, conditionals may be moved out of the loop
  \(\Rightarrow\) if-distribution ...
Caveat

Instead of using this transformation, the inner loop could also be optimized as follows:

\[
\text{for } (i = 0; i < N; i++)
\]
\[
\quad \text{for } (j = 0; j < M; j++)
\{
\]
\[
\quad \quad t = 0;
\]
\[
\quad \quad \text{for } (k = 0; k < K; k++)
\]
\[
\quad \quad \quad t = t + a[i][k] \cdot b[k][j];
\]
\[
\quad \quad c[i][j] = t;
\]
\[
\}
\]
Idea

If we find **heavily used** array elements $a[e_1] \ldots [e_r]$ whose index expressions stay **constant** within the inner loop, we could instead also provide auxiliary registers.

Caveat

The latter optimization prohibits the former and vice versa ...
Discussion

- so far, the optimizations are concerned with iterations over arrays.
- Cache-aware organization of other data-structures is possible, but in general not fully automatic ...

Example: Stacks
Advantage

+ The implementation is simple.
+ The operations push / pop require constant time.
+ The data-structure may grow arbitrarily.

Disadvantage

− The individual list objects may be arbitrarily dispersed over the memory.
Alternative

Advantage

+ The implementation is also simple.
+ The operations push / pop still require constant time.
+ The data are consecutively allocated; stack oscillations are typically small

⇒ better Cache behavior !!!
Disadvantage

– The data-structure is bounded.

Improvement

• If the array is full, replace it with another of double size !!!
• If the array drops empty to a quarter, halve the array again !!!

⇒ The extra amortized costs are constant.
⇒ The implementation is no longer so trivial.
Discussion

→ The same idea also works for queues.
→ Other data-structures are attempted to organize blockwise.

Problem: how can accesses be organized such that they refer mostly to the same block ???

⇒ Algorithms for external data
2. **Stack Allocation instead of Heap Allocation**

**Problem**

- Programming languages such as **Java** allocate all data-structures in the heap — even if they are only used within the current method.
- If no reference to these data survives the call, we want to allocate these on the stack.

⇒ **Escape Analysis**
Idea

Determine points-to information.
Determine if a created object is possibly reachable from the outside ...

Example: Our Pointer Language

\[
x = \text{new}();
\]
\[
y = \text{new}();
\]
\[
x[A] = y;
\]
\[
z = y;
\]
\[
\text{ret} = z;
\]

... could be a possible method body.
Accessible from the outside world are memory blocks which:

- are assigned to a global variable such as `ret`; or
- are **reachable** from global variables.

... in the Example:

```plaintext
x = new();
y = new();
x[A] = y;
z = y;
ret = [z];
```
Accessible from the outside world are memory blocks which:

- are assigned to a global variable such as `ret`; or
- are reachable from global variables.

... in the Example:

```plaintext
x = new();
y = new();
x[A] = y;
z = y;
ret = z;
```
Accessible from the outside world are memory blocks which:

- are assigned to a global variable such as `ret`; or
- are reachable from global variables.

... in the Example:

\[
\begin{align*}
x &= \text{new}(); \\
y &= \text{new}(); \\
x[A] &= y; \\
z &= y; \\
\text{ret} &= z;
\end{align*}
\]
Accessible from the outside world are memory blocks which:

- are assigned to a global variable such as `ret`; or
- are reachable from global variables.

... in the Example:

```plaintext
x = new();
y = new();
x[A] = y;
z = y;
ret = z;
```
We conclude:

• The objects which have been allocated by the first `new()` may never escape.
• They can be allocated on the stack.

Caveat

This is only meaningful if only few such objects are allocated during a method call.

If a local `new()` occurs within a loop, we still may allocate the objects in the heap.
Extension: Procedures

- We require an **interprocedural** points-to analysis.
- We know the whole program, we can, e.g., merge the control-flow graphs of all procedures into one and compute the points-to information for this.
- **Caveat:** If we always use the same global variables $y_1, y_2, \ldots$ for (the simulation of) parameter passing, the computed information is necessarily imprecise.
- If the whole program is **not** known, we must assume that each reference which is known to a procedure escapes.
3.4 Wrap-Up

We have considered various optimizations for improving hardware utilization.

Arrangement of the Optimizations:

- First, global restructuring of procedures/functions and of loops for better memory behavior.
- Then local restructuring for better utilization of the instruction set and the processor parallelism.
- Then register allocation and finally,
- Peephole optimization for the final kick ...
| Procedures:        | Tail Recursion + Inlining  
|                   | SSA  
|                   | Stack Allocation  
| Loops:            | Iteration Reordering  
|                   | → if-Distribution  
|                   | → for-Distribution  
|                   | Value Caching  
| Bodies:           | Instruction Scheduling with  
|                   | → Loop Unrolling  
|                   | → Loop Fusion  
| Instructions:     | Register Allocation  
|                   | Instruction Selection  
|                   | Peephole Optimization |
4 Optimization of Functional Programs

Example

\[
\text{let rec } \text{fac } x = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } x \leq 1 \\
 x \cdot \text{fac} (x - 1) & \text{else}
\end{cases}
\]

- There are no basic blocks.
- There are no loops.
- Virtually all functions are recursive!
Strategies for Optimization

⇒ Improve specific inefficiencies such as:
  • Pattern matching
  • Lazy evaluation (if supported)
  • Indirections — Unboxing / Escape Analysis
  • Intermediate data-structures — Deforestation

⇒ Detect and/or generate loops with basic blocks!
  • Tail recursion
  • Inlining
  • let-Floating

Then apply general optimization techniques
... e.g., by translation into C.
Warning

**Novel** analysis techniques are needed to collect information about functional programs.

**Example:**  

**Inlining**

```haskell
let max (x, y) = if x > y then x else y
let abs z = max (z, -z)
```

As result of the optimization we expect ...
let max \( (x, y) \) = if \( x > y \) then \( x \) else \( y \)

let abs \( z \) = let \( x = z \) in let \( y = -z \) in if \( x > y \) then \( x \) else \( y \)

Discussion

For the beginning, \( \text{max} \) is just a name. We must find out which value it takes at run-time

\[ \longrightarrow \text{Value Analysis required} !! \]
Nevin Heintze in the Australian team of the Prolog-Programming-Contest, 1998
The complete picture:
4.1 A Simple Functional Language

For simplicity, we consider:

\[
\begin{align*}
e &::= b \mid (e_1, \ldots, e_k) \mid c \; e_1 \ldots \; e_k \mid \text{fun} \; x \rightarrow e \\
& \mid (e_1 \; e_2) \mid (\square_1 \; e) \mid (e_1 \; \square_2 \; e_2) \\
\text{let} \; x_1 = e_1 \; \text{in} \; e_0 \\
\text{match} \; e_0 \; \text{with} \; p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \ldots \mid p_k \rightarrow e_k
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
p &::= b \mid x \mid c \; x_1 \ldots \; x_k \mid (x_1, \ldots, x_k) \\
t &::= \text{let rec} \; x_1 = e_1 \; \text{and} \ldots \text{and} \; x_k = e_k \; \text{in} \; e
\end{align*}
\]

where \( b \) is a constant, \( x \) is a variable, \( c \) is a (data-)constructor and \( \square_i \) are \( i \)-ary operators.
Discussion

- **let rec** only occurs on top-level.
- Functions are always **unary**. Instead, there are explicit **tuples**.
- **if**-expressions and case distinction in function definitions is reduced to **match**-expressions.
- In case distinctions, we allow just **simple patterns**.
  
  Complex patterns must be decomposed ...

- **let**-definitions correspond to basic blocks.
- **Type-annotations** at variables, patterns or expressions could provide further useful information
  — which we ignore.
... in the Example:

A definition of `max` may look as follows:

```plaintext
let max = fun x -> match x with (x1, x2) -> (
  match x1 < x2
  with True -> x2
  | False -> x1
)
```
Accordingly, we have for \( \text{abs} : \)

\[
\text{let abs} = \text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{let } z = (x, -x) \text{ in max } z
\]

### 4.2 A Simple Value Analysis

**Idea**

For every subexpression \( e \) we collect the set \( \llbracket e \rrbracket^\# \) of possible values of \( e \) ...
Let \( V \) denote the set of occurring (classes of) constants, functions as well as applications of constructors and operators. As our lattice, we choose:

\[
V = 2^V
\]

As usual, we put up a constraint system:

- If \( e \) is a value, i.e., of the form: \( b, c e_1 \ldots e_k, (e_1, \ldots, e_k) \), an operator application or \( \text{fun} \ x \rightarrow e \) we generate the constraint:

\[
[e]^\# \supseteq \{e\}
\]

- If \( e \equiv (e_1 \ e_2) \) and \( f \equiv \text{fun} \ x \rightarrow e' \), then

\[
[e]^\# \supseteq (f \in [e_1]^\#) \ ? \ [e']^\# : \emptyset
\]

\[
[x]^\# \supseteq (f \in [e_1]^\#) \ ? \ [e_2]^\# : \emptyset
\]

...
• If \( e \equiv \text{let } x_1 = e_1 \text{ in } e_0 \), then we generate:

\[
\begin{align*}
[x_1] & \subseteq [e_1] \\
[e] & \subseteq [e_0]
\end{align*}
\]

• Analogously for \( t \equiv \text{letrec } x_1 = e_1 \ldots x_k = e_k \text{ in } e_0 \):

\[
\begin{align*}
[x_i] & \subseteq [e_i] \\
[t] & \subseteq [e_0]
\end{align*}
\]
• int-values returned by operators are described by the unevaluated expression;

Operator applications might return Boolean values or other basic values. Therefore, we do replace tests for basic values by non-deterministic choice ...

• Assume $e \equiv \text{match } e_0 \text{ with } p_1 \to e_1 \mid \ldots \mid p_k \to e_k$. Then we generate for $p_i \equiv b$ (basic value),

$$[e]^\# \supseteq [e_i]^\#$$

...
If $p_i \equiv c y_1 \ldots y_k$ and $v \equiv c e'_1 \ldots e'_k$ is a value, then

\[
[e]^\# \supseteq (v \in [e_0]^\#) \ ? [e_i]^\# : \emptyset
\]

\[
[y_j]^\# \supseteq (v \in [e_0]^\#) \ ? [e'_j]^\# : \emptyset
\]

If $p_i \equiv (y_1, \ldots, y_k)$ and $v \equiv (e'_1, \ldots, e'_k)$ is a value, then

\[
[e]^\# \supseteq (v \in [e_0]^\#) \ ? [e_i]^\# : \emptyset
\]

\[
[y_j]^\# \supseteq (v \in [e_0]^\#) \ ? [e'_j]^\# : \emptyset
\]

If $p_i \equiv y$, then

\[
[e]^\# \supseteq [e_i]^\#
\]

\[
[y]^\# \supseteq [e_0]^\#
\]
The app-Function

Consider the concatenation of two lists. In Ocaml, we would write:

```ocaml
let rec app = fun x -> match x with
    | [] -> fun y -> y
    | h :: t -> fun y -> h :: app t y

in app [1; 2] [3]
```

The analysis then results in:

```
[[app]]# = {fun x -> match ...}
[[x]]# = {[1; 2], [2], []}
[[match ...]]# = {fun y -> y, fun y -> h :: app t y}
[[y]]# = {[3]}
...
\[
\begin{align*}
[h] & = \{1, 2\} \\
[t] & = \{[2], []\} \\
[\text{app } t] & = \\
[\text{app } [1; 2]] & = \{\text{fun } y \to y, \text{fun } y \to h :: \text{app } t y\} \\
[\text{app } t y] & = \\
[\text{app } [1; 2] [3]] & = \{[3], h :: \text{app } t y\}
\end{align*}
\]

Values \(c e_1 \ldots e_k\), \((e_1, \ldots, e_k)\) or operator applications \(e_1 \square e_2\) now are interpreted as recursive calls \(c [e_1]^# \ldots [e_k]^#\), \(([e_1]^#, \ldots, [e_k]^#)\) or \([e_1]^# \square [e_2]^#\), respectively.

\[\Rightarrow\] regular tree grammar
... in the Example:

We obtain for $A = \begin{bmatrix} \text{app t y} \end{bmatrix}$:

$$
\begin{align*}
A & \rightarrow [3] \mid [h]^\# :: A \\
[h]^\# & \rightarrow 1 \mid 2
\end{align*}
$$

Let $\mathcal{L}(e)$ denote the set of terms derivable from $[e]^\#$ w.r.t. the regular tree grammar. Thus, e.g.,

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{L}(h) &= \{1, 2\} \\
\mathcal{L}(\text{app t y}) &= \{[a_1; \ldots, a_r; 3] \mid r \geq 0, a_i \in \{1, 2\}\}
\end{align*}
$$
4.3 An Operational Semantics

Idea

We construct a Big-Step operational semantics which evaluates expressions w.r.t. an environment.

Values are of the form:

\[ v ::= b \mid c v_1 \ldots c_k \mid (v_1, \ldots, v_k) \mid (\text{fun } x \rightarrow e, \eta) \]

Examples for Values

\[
\begin{align*}
&c 1 \\
&[1; 2] = :: 1 (:: 2 []) \\
&(\text{fun } x \rightarrow x::y, \{y \mapsto [5]\})
\end{align*}
\]
Expressions are evaluated w.r.t. an environment \( \eta : Vars \rightarrow Values \).

The Big-Step operational semantics provides rules to infer the value to which an expression is evaluated w.r.t. a given environment, i.e., deals with statements of the form:

\[
(e, \eta) \rightarrow v
\]

Values

\[
(b, \eta) \rightarrow b
\]

\[
(\text{fun } x \rightarrow e, \eta) \rightarrow (\text{fun } x \rightarrow e, \eta)
\]

\[
(e_1, \eta) \rightarrow v_1 \ldots (e_k, \eta) \rightarrow v_k
\]

\[
(c \, e_1 \ldots e_k, \eta) \rightarrow c \, v_1 \ldots v_k
\]

Operator applications are treated analogously!
\[(e_1, \eta) \Rightarrow v_1 \quad \ldots \quad (e_k, \eta) \Rightarrow v_k\]

\[
\left((e_1, \ldots, e_k), \eta\right) \Rightarrow (v_1, \ldots, v_k)
\]

**Global Definition**

\[
\text{let rec } \ldots \; x = e \; \ldots \; \text{in } \ldots \n\]

\[
(e, \emptyset) \Rightarrow v
\]

\[
\left(x, \eta\right) \Rightarrow v
\]
Function Application

\[(e_1, \eta) \Rightarrow (\text{fun } x \rightarrow e, \eta_1)\]

\[(e_2, \eta) \Rightarrow v_2\]

\[(e, \eta_1 \oplus \{x \mapsto v_2\}) \Rightarrow v_3\]

\[(e_1 \; e_2, \eta) \Rightarrow v_3\]
Case Distinction 1

\[(e, \eta) \implies b\]
\[(e_i, \eta) \implies v\]

\[(\text{match } e \text{ with } p_1 \to e_1 \mid \ldots \mid p_k \to e_k, \eta) \implies v\]

if \( p_i \equiv b \) is the first pattern which matches \( b \).
Case Distinction 2

\[(e, \eta) \implies c v_1 \ldots v_k\]

\[(e_i, \eta \oplus \{z_1 \mapsto v_1, \ldots, z_k \mapsto v_k\}) \implies v\]

\[\textbf{(match } e \textbf{ with } p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \ldots \mid p_k \rightarrow e_k, \eta) \implies v\]

if \( p_i \equiv c z_1 \ldots z_k \) is the first pattern which matches \( c v_1 \ldots v_k \).
Case Distinction 3

\[(e, \eta) \Rightarrow (v_1, \ldots, v_k)\]

\[
(e_i, \eta \oplus \{y_1 \mapsto v_1, \ldots, y_1 \mapsto v_k\}) \Rightarrow v
\]

\[
(\text{match } e \text{ with } p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \ldots \mid p_k \rightarrow e_k, \eta) \Rightarrow v
\]

if \(p_i \equiv (y_1, \ldots, y_k)\) is the first pattern which matches \((v_1, \ldots, v_k)\).
Case Distinction 4

\[(e, \eta) \Rightarrow v'\]
\[(e_i, \eta \oplus \{x \mapsto v'\}) \Rightarrow v\]

\[\text{match } e \text{ with } p_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid \ldots \mid p_k \rightarrow e_k, \eta \Rightarrow v\]

if \( p_i \equiv x \) is the first pattern which matches \( v' \).
Local Definitions

\[(e_1, \eta) \mapsto v_1\]
\[(e_0, \eta \oplus \{x_1 \mapsto v_1\}) \mapsto v_0\]

\[(\text{let } x_1 = e_1 \text{ in } e_0, \eta) \mapsto v_0\]

Variables

\[(x, \eta) \mapsto \eta(x)\]
Correctness of the Analysis

For every $(e, \eta)$ occurring in a proof for the program, it should hold:

- If $\eta(x) = v$, then $[v] \triangle \mathcal{L}(x)$.
- If $(e, \eta) \rightarrow v$, then $[v] \triangle \mathcal{L}(e)$ ...

- where $[v]$ is the stripped expression corresponding to $v$, i.e., obtained by removing all environments, and
- $v \triangle L$ iff $v \in L$ or $L$ has an expression $v'$ which evaluates to $v$.

Conclusion

$\mathcal{L}(e)$ returns a superset of the values to which $e$ is evaluated.
4.4 Application: Inlining

Problem

- global variables. The program:

```plaintext
let x = 1
in let f = let x = 2
    in fun y → y + x
    in f x
```
... computes something else than:

```
let x = 1
in let f = let x = 2
in fun y → y + x
     in let y = x
     in y + x
```

- recursive functions. In the definition:

```
foo = fun y → foo y
```

foo should better not be substituted.
Idea 1

→ First, we introduce *unique* variable names.
→ Then, we only substitute functions which are *statically* within the scope of the *same* global variables as the application.
→ For every expression, we determine all function definitions with this property.
Let $D = D[e]$ denote the set of definitions which statically arrive at $e$.

•• If $e \equiv \text{let } x_1 = e_1 \text{ in } e_0$ then:

$$D[e_1] = D$$
$$D[e_0] = D \cup \{x_1\}$$

•• If $e \equiv \text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1$ then:

$$D[e_1] = D \cup \{x\}$$

•• Similarly, for $e \equiv \text{match} \ldots c \ldots x_1 \ldots x_k \rightarrow e_i \ldots$,

$$D[e_i] = D \cup \{x_1, \ldots, x_k\}$$
In all other cases, \( D \) is propagated to the sub-expressions unchanged.

... in the Example:

```plaintext
let  x = 1
in let  f =  let  x₁ = 2
          in  fun  y →  y + x₁
          in  f x
```

... the application \( f x \) is not in the scope of \( x₁ \)

\[\Rightarrow\] we first duplicate the definition of \( x₁ \):
let  $x = 1$

in let  $x_1 = 2$

in let  $f = \begin{array}{l}
\text{let } x_1 = 2 \\
\text{in fun } y \rightarrow y + x_1
\end{array}$

in  $f x$

\[\Rightarrow\] the inner definition becomes redundant !!!
let $x = 1$

in let $x_1 = 2$

in let $f = \text{fun } y \to y + x_1$

in $f \ x$

$\Rightarrow$ now we can apply inlining :
let $x = 1$
\textbf{in let} $x_1 = 2$
\textbf{in let} $f = \text{fun } y \rightarrow y + x_1$
\textbf{in} \begin{itemize}
\item \textbf{let} $y = x$
\item \textbf{in} $y + x_1$
\end{itemize}

Removing \textbf{variable-variable}-assignments, we arrive at:
let \( x = 1 \)

in let \( x_1 = 2 \)

in let \( f = \text{fun } y \rightarrow y + x_1 \)

in \( x + x_1 \)
Idea 2

→ We apply our value analysis.
→ We ignore global variables.
→ We only substitute functions without free variables.

Example: The map-Function

let rec  f = fun x → x · x
      and  map = fun g → fun x → match x
                       with  [] →    []
                             | x::xs →  g x :: map g xs
      in  map f list
• The actual parameter \( f \) in the application \( \text{map } g \) is always \( \text{fun } x \rightarrow x \cdot x \).

• Therefore, \( \text{map } g \) can be specialized to a new function \( h \) defined by:

\[
\begin{align*}
h &= \text{let } g &= \text{fun } x \rightarrow x \cdot x \\
in \text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{match } x \\
&\quad \text{with } [ ] \rightarrow [ ] \\
&\quad \quad \mid x :: xs \rightarrow g x :: \text{map } g \ xs
\end{align*}
\]
The inner occurrence of $\text{map } g$ can be replaced with $h$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \text{fold-Transformation.}$$

$$h = \text{let } g = \text{fun } x \rightarrow x \cdot x \text{ in } \text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{match } x$$

$$\text{with } [\ ] \rightarrow [\ ]$$

$$| \quad x::xs \rightarrow g \ x :: h \ xs$$
Inlining the function \( g \) yields:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{h} &= \text{let } g = \text{fun } x \rightarrow x \cdot x \\
\text{in } \text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{match } x \\
&\quad \text{with } [] \rightarrow [[]] \\
&\quad | \ x::xs \rightarrow (\text{let } x = x \\
&\qquad \text{in } x \cdot x) :: \text{h } xs
\end{align*}
\]
Removing useless definitions and variable-variable assignments yields:

\[
\begin{align*}
  h & = \text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{match } x \\
  \text{with} \hspace{5pt} & \begin{array}{l}
  [ ] \rightarrow [ ] \\
  \mid x::xs \rightarrow x \ast x :: h \hspace{1pt} xs
  \end{array}
\end{align*}
\]
4.5 Deforestation

- Functional programmers love to collect intermediate results in lists which are processed by higher-order functions.
- Examples of such higher-order functions are:

\[
\text{map} = \text{fun } f \rightarrow \text{fun } l \rightarrow \text{match } l \text{ with } [[]] \rightarrow [[]] \\
\quad | \quad x::xs \rightarrow f x :: \text{map } f xs)
\]
filter = fun p → fun l → match l with [] → []
    | x::xs → if p x then x :: filter p xs
         else filter p xs

foldl = fun f → fun a → fun l → match l with [] → a
    | x::xs → foldl f (f a x) xs
id \quad = \quad \textbf{fun} \; x \rightarrow x

\text{comp} \quad = \quad \textbf{fun} \; f \rightarrow \textbf{fun} \; g \rightarrow \textbf{fun} \; x \rightarrow f \; (g \; x)

\text{comp}_1 \quad = \quad \textbf{fun} \; f \rightarrow \textbf{fun} \; g \rightarrow \textbf{fun} \; x_1 \rightarrow \textbf{fun} \; x_2 \rightarrow f \; (g \; x_1) \; x_2

\text{comp}_2 \quad = \quad \textbf{fun} \; f \rightarrow \textbf{fun} \; g \rightarrow \textbf{fun} \; x_1 \rightarrow \textbf{fun} \; x_2 \rightarrow f \; x_1 \; (g \; x_2)
Example

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{sum} & \quad = \quad \text{foldl} \ (\ + \ ) \ 0 \\
\text{length} & \quad = \quad \text{let} \quad f & \quad = \quad \text{map} \ (\text{fun} \ x \rightarrow \ 1) \\
& \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{in} \quad \text{comp} \ \text{sum} \ f \\
\text{dev} & \quad = \quad \text{fun} \ l \rightarrow \quad \text{let} \quad s_1 & \quad = \quad \text{sum} \ l \quad \text{in} \\
& \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{let} \quad n & \quad = \quad \text{length} \ l \quad \text{in} \\
& \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{let} \quad mean & \quad = \quad s_1/n \quad \text{in} \\
& \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{let} \quad l_1 & \quad = \quad \text{map} \ (\text{fun} \ x \rightarrow \ x - mean) \ l \quad \text{in} \\
& \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{let} \quad l_2 & \quad = \quad \text{map} \ (\text{fun} \ x \rightarrow \ x \cdot x) \ l_1 \quad \text{in} \\
& \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{let} \quad s_2 & \quad = \quad \text{sum} \ l_2 \quad \text{in} \\
& \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad s_2/n
\end{align*}
\]
Observations

- Explicit recursion does no longer occur!
- The implementation creates unnecessary intermediate data-structures!

`length` could also be implemented as:

```plaintext
length = let f = fun a -> fun x -> a + 1
         in foldl f 0
```

- This implementation avoids to create intermediate lists !!!
Phil Wadler, Edinburgh
Simplification Rules

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{comp id } f &= \text{comp } f \text{ id } = f \\
\text{comp}_1 f \text{ id} &= \text{comp}_2 f \text{ id } = f \\
\text{map id} &= \text{id} \\
\text{comp } (\text{map } f) (\text{map } g) &= \text{map } (\text{comp } f \ g) \\
\text{comp } (\text{foldl } f \ a) (\text{map } g) &= \text{foldl } (\text{comp}_2 f \ g) a
\end{align*}
\]
Simplification Rules

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{comp } \text{id } f & = \text{comp } f \text{ id } = f \\
\text{comp }_1 f \text{ id} & = \text{comp }_2 f \text{ id } = f \\
\text{map } \text{id} & = \text{id} \\
\text{comp } (\text{map } f) (\text{map } g) & = \text{map } (\text{comp } f \text{ } g) \\
\text{comp } (\text{foldl } f \text{ } a) (\text{map } g) & = \text{foldl } (\text{comp }_2 f \text{ } g) \text{ } a \\
\text{comp } (\text{filter } p_1) (\text{filter } p_2) & = \text{filter } (\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{ if } p_2 x \text{ then } p_1 x \text{ else } \text{false}) \\
\text{comp } (\text{foldl } f \text{ } a) (\text{filter } p) & = \text{let } h = \text{fun } a \rightarrow \text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{ if } p x \text{ then } f a x \text{ else } a \\
& \hspace{1cm} \text{in } \text{foldl } h \text{ } a
\end{align*}
\]
Caveat

Function compositions also could occur as nested function calls ...

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{id } x &= x \\
\text{map id } l &= l \\
\text{map } f \ (\text{map } g \ l) &= \text{map } (\text{comp } f \ g) \ l \\
\text{foldl } f \ a \ (\text{map } g \ l) &= \text{foldl } (\text{comp}_2 \ f \ g) \ a \ l \\
\text{filter } p_1 \ (\text{filter } p_2 \ l) &= \text{filter } (\text{fun } x \rightarrow p_1 \ x \land p_2 \ x) \ l \\
\text{foldl } f \ a \ (\text{filter } p \ l) &= \text{let } h = \text{fun } a \rightarrow \text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{if } p \ x \ \text{then } f \ a \ x \\
&\quad \text{else } a \\
\text{in } \text{foldl } h \ a \ l
\end{align*}
\]
Example, optimized:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{sum} &= \text{foldl} \ (+) \ 0 \\
\text{length} &= \text{let} \ f = \text{comp}_2 \ (+) \ (\text{fun} \ x \to 1) \\
&\quad \text{in} \ \text{foldl} \ f \ 0 \\
\text{dev} &= \text{fun} \ l \to \ \text{let} \ s_1 = \text{sum} \ l \ \text{in} \\
&\quad \text{let} \ n = \text{length} \ l \ \text{in} \\
&\quad \text{let} \ \text{mean} = s_1/n \ \text{in} \\
&\quad \text{let} \ f = \text{comp} \ (\text{fun} \ x \to x \cdot x) \\
&\quad \quad \quad \quad \ (\text{fun} \ x \to x - \text{mean}) \ \text{in} \\
&\quad \text{let} \ g = \text{comp}_2 \ (+) \ f \ \text{in} \\
&\quad \text{let} \ s_2 = \text{foldl} \ g \ 0 \ l \ \text{in} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[s_2/n\]
Remarks

- All intermediate lists have disappeared.
- Only \texttt{foldl} remain — i.e., loops.
- Compositions of functions can be further simplified in the next step by \texttt{Inlining}.
- Inside \texttt{dev}, we then obtain:

\[
g \ = \ \texttt{fun} \ a \ \to \ \texttt{fun} \ x \ \to \ \texttt{let} \ x_1 = x - \texttt{mean} \ \texttt{in} \\
\quad \texttt{let} \ x_2 = x_1 \cdot x_1 \ \texttt{in} \\
\quad a + x_2
\]

- The result is a sequence of \texttt{let}-definitions !!!
Extension: Tabulation

If the list has been created by tabulation of a function, the creation of the list sometimes can be avoided ...

\[
\begin{align*}
tabulate' & = \text{fun } j \rightarrow \text{fun } f \rightarrow \text{fun } n \rightarrow \\
& \quad \text{if } j \geq n \text{ then } [] \\
& \quad \text{else } (f j) :: \text{tabulate'} (j + 1) f n \\
tabulate & = \text{tabulate'} 0
\end{align*}
\]
Then we have:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{comp} \ (\text{map} \ f) \ (\text{tabulate} \ g) &= \text{tabulate} \ (\text{comp} \ f \ g) \\
\text{comp} \ (\text{foldl} \ f \ a) \ (\text{tabulate} \ g) &= \text{loop} \ (\text{comp}_2 \ f \ g) \ a
\end{align*}
\]

where

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{loop}' &= \text{fun} \ j \rightarrow \text{fun} \ f \rightarrow \text{fun} \ a \rightarrow \text{fun} \ n \rightarrow \\
&\quad \text{if} \ j \geq n \ \text{then} \ a \\
&\quad \text{else} \ \text{loop}' \ (j + 1) \ f \ (f \ a \ j) \ n \\
\text{loop} &= \text{loop}' \ 0
\end{align*}
\]
Extension (2): List Reversals

Sometimes, the ordering of lists or arguments is reversed:

\[
\text{rev}' = \text{fun } a \rightarrow \text{fun } l \rightarrow \\
\quad \quad \text{match } l \text{ with } [ ] \rightarrow a \\
\quad \quad | \quad x :: xs \rightarrow \text{rev}' (x :: a) xs
\]

\[
\text{rev} = \text{rev}' [ ]
\]

\[
\text{comp rev rev} = \text{id}
\]

\[
\text{swap} = \text{fun } f \rightarrow \text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{fun } y \rightarrow f y x
\]

\[
\text{comp swap swap} = \text{id}
\]
\[
foldr \ f \ a \ = \ \text{comp} \ (\text{foldl} \ (\text{swap} \ f) \ a) \ \text{rev}
\]

**Discussion**

- The standard implementation of `foldr` is not tail-recursive.
- The last equation decomposes a `foldr` into two tail-recursive functions — at the price that an intermediate list is created.
- Therefore, the standard implementation is probably faster.
- Sometimes, the operation `rev` can also be optimized away ...
We have:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{comp rev (map } f) &= \text{comp (map } f) \text{ rev} \\
\text{comp rev (filter } p) &= \text{comp (filter } p) \text{ rev} \\
\text{comp rev (tabulate } f) &= \text{rev_tabulate } f
\end{align*}
\]

Here, \text{rev_tabulate} tabulates in reverse ordering. This function has properties quite analogous to \text{tabulate}:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{comp (map } f) \text{ (rev_tabulate } g) &= \text{rev_tabulate (comp}_2 f g) \\
\text{comp (foldl } f a) \text{ (rev_tabulate } g) &= \text{rev_loop (comp}_2 f g) a
\end{align*}
\]
Extension (3): Dependencies on the Index

- Correctness is proven by induction on the lengths of occurring lists.
- Similar composition results also hold for transformations which take the current indices into account:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{mapi}' & = \text{fun } i \rightarrow \text{fun } f \rightarrow \text{fun } l \rightarrow \text{match } l \text{ with } [] \rightarrow [] \\
& \quad | x :: xs \rightarrow f \space i \space x :: \text{mapi}' \space (i + 1) \space f \space xs \\
\text{mapi} & = \text{mapi}' \space 0
\end{align*}
\]
Analogously, there is index-dependent accumulation:

\[
\text{foldli'} = \text{fun } i \rightarrow \text{fun } f \rightarrow \text{fun } a \rightarrow \text{fun } l \rightarrow \\
\quad \text{match } l \text{ with } \left[ \right] \rightarrow a \\
\quad \mid x :: xs \rightarrow \text{foldli'} (i + 1) f (f i a x) xs
\]

\[
\text{foldli} = \text{foldli'} 0
\]

For composition, we must take care that always the same indices are used. This is achieved by:
\[
\text{compi} = \text{fun } f \to \text{fun } g \to \text{fun } i \to \text{fun } x \to f \ i \ (g \ i \ x)
\]

\[
\text{compi}_1 = \text{fun } f \to \text{fun } g \to \text{fun } i \to \text{fun } x_1 \to \text{fun } x_2 \to f \ i \ (g \ i \ x_1) \ x_2
\]

\[
\text{compi}_2 = \text{fun } f \to \text{fun } g \to \text{fun } i \to \text{fun } x_1 \to \text{fun } x_2 \to f \ i \ x_1 \ (g \ i \ x_2)
\]

\[
\text{cmp}_1 = \text{fun } f \to \text{fun } g \to \text{fun } i \to \text{fun } x_1 \to \text{fun } x_2 \to f \ i \ x_1 \ (g \ x_2)
\]

\[
\text{cmp}_2 = \text{fun } f \to \text{fun } g \to \text{fun } i \to \text{fun } x_1 \to \text{fun } x_2 \to f \ x_1 \ (g \ i \ x_2)
\]
Then

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{comp}(\text{map } f) (\text{map } g) &= \text{mapi}(\text{comp}_2 f g) \\
\text{comp}(\text{map } f) (\text{mapi } g) &= \text{mapi}(\text{comp } f g) \\
\text{comp}(\text{mapi } f) (\text{mapi } g) &= \text{mapi}(\text{compi } f g) \\
\text{comp}(\text{foldli } f \ a) (\text{map } g) &= \text{foldli}(\text{cmp}_1 f g) \ a \\
\text{comp}(\text{foldl } f \ a) (\text{mapi } g) &= \text{foldli}(\text{cmp}_2 f g) \ a \\
\text{comp}(\text{foldli } f \ a) (\text{mapi } g) &= \text{foldli}(\text{compi}_2 f g) \ a \\
\text{comp}(\text{foldli } f \ a) (\text{tabulate } g) &= \text{let } h = \text{fun } a \rightarrow \text{fun } i \rightarrow f \ i \ a (g \ i) \\
\text{in } \text{loop } h \ a
\end{align*}
\]
Discussion

- **Warning:** index-dependent transformations may not commute with `rev` or `filter`.

- All our rules can only be applied if the functions `id`, `map`, `mapi`, `foldl`, `foldli`, `filter`, `rev`, `tabulate`, `rev_tabulate`, `loop`, `rev_loop`, ... are provided by a **standard library**: Only then the algebraic properties can be guaranteed !!!

- Similar simplification rules can be derived for any kind of tree-like data-structure `tree α`.

- These also provide operations `map`, `mapi` and `foldl`, `foldli` with corresponding rules.

- Further opportunities are opened up by functions `to_list` and `from_list` ...
Example

\[
\text{type } \text{tree } \alpha &= \text{Leaf} \mid \text{Node } \alpha (\text{tree } \alpha) (\text{tree } \alpha)
\]

\[
\text{map} &= \text{fun } f \rightarrow \text{fun } t \rightarrow \text{match } t \text{ with Leaf } \rightarrow \text{Leaf}
\]

\[
| \quad \text{Node } x \ l \ r \rightarrow \text{let } l' = \text{map } f \ l
\]

\[
\quad r' = \text{map } f \ r
\]

\[
\text{in } \text{Node } (f \ x) \ l' \ r'
\]

\[
\text{foldl} &= \text{fun } f \rightarrow \text{fun } a \rightarrow \text{fun } t \rightarrow \text{match } t \text{ with Leaf } \rightarrow a
\]

\[
| \quad \text{Node } x \ l \ r \rightarrow \text{let } a' = \text{foldl } f \ a \ l
\]

\[
\text{in } \text{foldl } f \ (f \ a' \ x) \ r
\]
\[
\text{to\_list}' \quad = \quad \text{fun } a \rightarrow \text{fun } t \rightarrow \text{match } t \text{ with } \text{Leaf} \rightarrow a \\
\mid \quad \text{Node } x \ t_1 \ t_2 \rightarrow \text{let } a' = \text{to\_list}' \ a \ t_2 \\
\quad \text{in } \text{to\_list}'(x::a') \ t_1
\]

\[
\text{to\_list} \quad = \quad \text{to\_list}'[\ ]
\]

\[
\text{from\_list} \quad = \quad \text{fun } l \rightarrow \text{match } l \\
\quad \text{with } [\ ] \rightarrow \text{Leaf} \\
\mid \quad x::xs \rightarrow \text{Node } x \ \text{Leaf} \ (\text{from\_list} \ xs)
\]
Caveat

Not every natural equation is valid:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{comp to_list from_list} &= \text{id} \\
\text{comp from_list to_list} &\neq \text{id} \\
\text{comp to_list (map } f \text{)} &= \text{comp (map } f \text{) to_list} \\
\text{comp from_list (map } f \text{)} &= \text{comp (map } f \text{) from_list} \\
\text{comp (foldl } f \ a \text{) to_list} &= \text{foldl } f \ a \\
\text{comp (foldl } f \ a \text{) from_list} &= \text{foldl } f \ a
\end{align*}
\]
In this case, there is even a `rev`:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{rev} & = \quad \text{fun } t \rightarrow \\
& \quad \text{match } t \text{ with Leaf } \rightarrow \text{ Leaf} \\
& \quad | \quad \text{Node } x \ t_1 \ t_2 \rightarrow \text{ let } s_1 = \text{ rev } t_1 \\
& \quad & \quad s_2 = \text{ rev } t_2 \\
& \quad & \quad \text{ in Node } x \ s_2 \ s_1 \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{comp to\_list rev} & = \quad \text{comp rev to\_list} \\
\text{comp from\_list rev} & \neq \quad \text{comp rev from\_list}
\end{align*}
\]
4.6 CBN vs. CBV: Strictness Analysis

Problem

- Programming languages such as Haskell evaluate expressions for \textbf{let}-defined variables and actual parameters not before their values are accessed.
- This allows for an elegant treatment of (possibly) infinite lists of which only small initial segments are required for computing the result.
- Delaying evaluation by default incurs, though, a non-trivial overhead ...
Example

\[
\text{from} = \text{fun } n \to n :: \text{from } (n + 1)
\]

\[
\text{take} = \text{fun } k \to \text{fun } s \to \text{if } k \leq 0 \text{ then } [] \\
\quad \text{else match } s \text{ with } [] \to [] \\
\quad \quad | x :: xs \to x :: \text{take } (k - 1) xs
\]
Then CBN yields

$$\text{take } 5 \ (\text{from} \ 0) = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]$$

— whereas evaluation with CBV does not terminate !!!
Then CBN yields

\[
\text{take } 5 \text{ (from } 0) = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
\]

— whereas evaluation with CBV does not terminate !!!

On the other hand, for CBN, tail-recursive functions may require non-constant space ???

\[
\text{fac2} = \text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{fun } a \rightarrow \text{if } x \leq 0 \text{ then } a \\
\text{else fac2 } (x - 1) (a \cdot x)
\]
Discussion

- The multiplications are collected in the accumulating parameter through nested closures.
- Only when the value of a call $\text{fac2 } x \ 1$ is accessed, this dynamic data structure is evaluated.
- Instead, the accumulating parameter should have been passed directly by-value !!!
- This is the goal of the following optimization ...
Simplification

- At first, we rule out data structures, higher-order functions, and local function definitions.
- We introduce an unary operator `#` which forces the evaluation of a variable.
- Goal of the transformation is to place `#` at as many places as possible ...
Simplification

- At first, we rule out data structures, higher-order functions, and local function definitions.
- We introduce an unary operator $\#$ which forces the evaluation of a variable.
- Goal of the transformation is to place $\#$ at as many places as possible ...

\[
e ::= c \mid x \mid e_1 \Box_2 e_2 \mid \Box_1 e \mid f \ e_1 \ldots \ e_k \mid \text{if} \ e_0 \ \text{then} \ e_1 \ \text{else} \ e_2 \\
\mid \text{let} \ r_1 = e_1 \ \text{in} \ e
\]

\[
r ::= x \mid \#x
\]

\[
d ::= f \ x_1 \ldots \ x_k = e
\]

\[
p ::= \text{letrec and} \ d_1 \ldots \ \text{and} \ d_n \ \text{in} \ e
\]
Idea

• Describe a $k$-ary function

$$f : \text{int} \to \ldots \to \text{int}$$

by a function

$$[[f]]^\# : \mathbb{B} \to \ldots \to \mathbb{B}$$

• 0 means: evaluation does definitely not terminate.
• 1 means: evaluation may terminate.
• $[[f]]^\# 0 = 0$ means: If the function call returns a value, then the evaluation of the argument must have terminated and returned a value.

$$\implies f \text{ is strict.}$$
Idea (cont.)

- We determine the abstract semantics of all functions.
- For that, we put up a system of equations ...

Auxiliary Function

\[
\begin{align*}
[e]^{\#} & : (\text{Vars} \to \mathbb{B}) \to \mathbb{B} \\
[c]^{\#} \rho & = 1 \\
[x]^{\#} \rho & = \rho x \\
[\Box_1 e]^{\#} \rho & = [e]^{\#} \rho \\
[e_1 \Box_2 e_2]^{\#} \rho & = [e_1]^{\#} \rho \land [e_2]^{\#} \rho \\
[\text{if } e_0 \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_2]^{\#} \rho & = [e_0]^{\#} \rho \land ([e_1]^{\#} \rho \lor [e_2]^{\#} \rho) \\
[f \ e_1 \ldots e_k]^{\#} \rho & = [f]^{\#} ([e_1]^{\#} \rho) \ldots ([e_k]^{\#} \rho) \\
\ldots
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let } x_1 &= e_1 \text{ in } e \quad &= \quad [e] \odot (\rho \odot \{x_1 \mapsto [e_1] \odot \rho\}) \\
\text{let } \#x_1 &= e_1 \text{ in } e \quad &= \quad ([e_1] \odot \rho) \land ([e] \odot (\rho \odot \{x_1 \mapsto 1\}))
\end{align*}
\]

System of Equations

\[
[f_i] \odot b_1 \ldots b_k = [e_i] \odot \{x_j \mapsto b_j \mid j = 1, \ldots, k\}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, n, b_1, \ldots, b_k \in \mathbb{B}
\]

- The unknowns of the system of equations are the functions \([f_i] \odot\) or the individual entries \([f_i] \odot b_1 \ldots b_k\) in the value table.
- All right-hand sides are monotonic!
- Consequently, there is a least solution.
- The complete lattice \(\mathbb{B} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow \mathbb{B}\) has height \(O(2^k)\).
Example

For \texttt{fac2}, we obtain:

\[
\left[ \texttt{fac2} \right]^{\#} b_1 b_2 = b_1 \land (b_2 \lor \left[ \texttt{fac2} \right]^{\#} b_1 (b_1 \land b_2))
\]

Fixpoint iteration yields:

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
0 & \texttt{fun} x \rightarrow \texttt{fun} a \rightarrow 0 \\
1 & \texttt{fun} x \rightarrow \texttt{fun} a \rightarrow x \land a \\
2 & \texttt{fun} x \rightarrow \texttt{fun} a \rightarrow x \land a \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]
We conclude:

- The function \( \text{fac2} \) is strict in both arguments, i.e., if evaluation terminates, then also the evaluation of its arguments.
- Accordingly, we transform:

\[
\text{fac2} = \begin{array}{c}
\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{fun } a \rightarrow \\
\text{if } x \leq 0 \text{ then } a \\
\text{else let } \# x' = x - 1 \\
\# a' = x \cdot a \\
in \text{fac2 } x' a'
\end{array}
\]
Correctness of the Analysis

- The system of equations is an abstract denotational semantics.
- The denotational semantics characterizes the meaning of functions as least solution of the corresponding equations for the concrete semantics.
- For values, the denotational semantics relies on the complete partial ordering $\mathbb{Z}_\perp$.
- For complete partial orderings, Kleene’s fixpoint theorem is applicable.
- As description relation $\Delta$ we use:

\[ \perp \triangleq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad z \triangleq 1 \quad \text{for} \quad z \in \mathbb{Z} \]
Extension: Data Structures

- Functions may vary in the parts which they require from a data structure ...

\[
\text{hd} = \quad \text{fun} \quad l \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{match} \quad l \quad \text{with} \quad x :: xs \rightarrow x
\]

- \text{hd} only accesses the first element of a list.
- \text{length} only accesses the backbone of its argument.
- \text{rev} forces the evaluation of the complete argument — given that the result is required completely ...
Extension of the Syntax

We additionally consider expression of the form:

\[
e ::= \ldots \mid \varepsilon \mid e_1 :: e_2 \mid \text{match } e_0 \text{ with } \varepsilon \rightarrow e_1 \mid x :: x.s \rightarrow e_2 \\
\mid (e_1, e_2) \mid \text{match } e_0 \text{ with } (x_1, x_2) \rightarrow e_1
\]

Top Strictness

- We assume that the program is well-typed.
- We are only interested in top constructors.
- Again, we model this property with (monotonic) Boolean functions.
- For \textit{int}-values, this coincides with strictness.
- We extend \([e]^{\#} \rho\) with rules for case-distinction ...
\[
\begin{align*}
[\text{match } e_0 \text{ with } [ ] & \rightarrow e_1 ~|~ x :: xs \rightarrow e_2]\# \rho = \\
[e_0]\# \rho \land ([e_1]\# \rho \lor [e_2]\# (\rho \oplus \{x, xs \mapsto 1\}))
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
[\text{match } e_0 \text{ with } (x_1, x_2) & \rightarrow e_1]\# \rho = \\
[e_0]\# \rho \land [e_1]\# (\rho \oplus \{x_1, x_2 \mapsto 1\})
\end{align*}
\]

\[
[[ ]]\# \rho = [e_1 :: e_2]\# \rho = [(e_1, e_2)]\# \rho = 1
\]

- The rules for \textbf{match} are analogous to those for \textbf{if}.
- In case of ::, we know nothing about the values beneath the constructor; therefore \(\{x, xs \mapsto 1\}\).
- We check our analysis on the function \textbf{app} ...
Example

\[
\text{app} = \text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{fun } y \rightarrow \text{match } x \text{ with } [ ] \rightarrow y \\
| \quad x :: xs \rightarrow x :: \text{app } xs \ y
\]

Abstract interpretation yields the system of equations:

\[
[\text{app}]^{\#} b_1 \ b_2 = b_1 \land (b_2 \lor 1) \\
= b_1
\]

We conclude that we may conclude for sure only for the first argument that its top constructor is required.
Total Strictness

Assume that the result of the function application is totally required. Which arguments then are also totally required?

We again refer to Boolean functions ...

\[
\begin{align*}
\llbracket \text{match } e_0 \ \text{with} \ [ ] \rightarrow e_1 \mid x, :: x s \rightarrow e_2 \rrbracket^\# \rho &= \ \text{let } b = \llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^\# \rho \ \text{in} \ \\
& \quad b \land \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# \rho \lor \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^\# (\rho \oplus \{ x \mapsto b, x s \mapsto 1 \}) \lor \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^\# (\rho \oplus \{ x \mapsto 1, x s \mapsto b \}) \\
\llbracket \text{match } e_0 \ \text{with} \ (x_1, x_2) \rightarrow e_1 \rrbracket^\# \rho &= \ \text{let } b = \llbracket e_0 \rrbracket^\# \rho \ \text{in} \ \\
& \quad \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# (\rho \oplus \{ x_1 \mapsto 1, x_2 \mapsto b \}) \lor \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# (\rho \oplus \{ x_1 \mapsto b, x_2 \mapsto 1 \}) \\
\llbracket [ ] \rrbracket^\# \rho &= 1 \\
\llbracket e_1 :: e_2 \rrbracket^\# \rho &= \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# \rho \land \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^\# \rho \\
\llbracket (e_1, e_2) \rrbracket^\# \rho &= \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket^\# \rho \land \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket^\# \rho
\end{align*}
\]
Discussion

- The rules for constructor applications have changed.
- Also the treatment of \textbf{match} now involves the components $z$ and $x_1, x_2$.
- Again, we check the approach for the function \texttt{app}.

Example

Abstract interpretation yields the system of equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbf{app}^\# b_1 b_2 &= b_1 \land b_2 \lor b_1 \land \mathbf{app}^\# 1 b_2 \lor 1 \land \mathbf{app}^\# b_1 b_2 \\
&= b_1 \land b_2 \lor b_1 \land \mathbf{app}^\# 1 b_2 \lor \mathbf{app}^\# b_1 b_2
\end{align*}
\]
This results in the following fixpoint iteration:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>fun $x \rightarrow$ fun $y \rightarrow 0$</th>
<th>fun $x \rightarrow$ fun $y \rightarrow x \land y$</th>
<th>fun $x \rightarrow$ fun $y \rightarrow x \land y$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We deduce that both arguments are definitely totally required if the result is totally required.

**Caveat**

Whether or not the result is totally required, depends on the context of the function call!

In such a context, a specialized function may be called ...
app# = fun x → fun y → let #x' = x and #y' = y in
          match 'x with [] → y'
          | x :: xs → let #r = x :: app# xs y
                  in r

Discussion

- Both strictness analyses employ the same complete lattice.
- Results and application, though, are quite different.
- Thereby, we use the following description relations:
  
  Top Strictness : ⊥ △ 0
  Total Strictness : z △ 0 if ⊥ occurs in z.

- Both analyses can also be combined to an a joint analysis ...
Combined Strictness Analysis

- We use the complete lattice:

\[ T = \{0 \sqsubseteq 1 \sqsubseteq 2\} \]

- The description relation is given by:

\[ \bot \triangledown 0 \quad z \triangledown 1 \ (z \text{ contains } \bot) \quad z \triangledown 2 \ (z \text{ value}) \]

- The lattice is more informative, the functions, though, are no longer as efficiently representable, e.g., through Boolean expressions.

- We require the auxiliary functions:

\[ (i \sqsubseteq x); \ y = \begin{cases} y & \text{if } i \sqsubseteq x \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \]
The Combined Evaluation Function

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{[match } e_0 \text{ with } [ ] & \rightarrow e_1 \mid x :: x : s & \rightarrow e_2]^{\#} \rho &= \text{ let } b = [e_0]^{\#} \rho \text{ in} \\
& \quad (2 \sqsubseteq b) ; [e_1]^{\#} \rho \sqcup \\
& \quad (1 \sqsubseteq b) ; ([e_2]^{\#} (\rho \oplus \{x \mapsto 2, x : s \mapsto b\}) \\
& \quad \sqcup [e_2]^{\#} (\rho \oplus \{x \mapsto b, x : s \mapsto 2\})) \\
\text{[match } e_0 \text{ with } (x_1, x_2) & \rightarrow e_1]^{\#} \rho &= \text{ let } b = [e_0]^{\#} \rho \text{ in} \\
& \quad (1 \sqsubseteq b) ; ([e_1]^{\#} (\rho \oplus \{x_1 \mapsto 2, x_2 \mapsto b\}) \\
& \quad \sqcup [e_1]^{\#} (\rho \oplus \{x_1 \mapsto b, x_2 \mapsto 2\})) \\
\text{[[ ]]^{\#} \rho} &= 2 \\
\text{[e_1 :: e_2]^{\#} \rho} &= \\
\text{[(e_1, e_2)]^{\#} \rho} &= 1 \sqcup ([e_1]^{\#} \rho \sqcap [e_2]^{\#} \rho)
\end{align*}
\]
Example

For our beloved function $\text{app}$, we obtain:

\[
[\text{app}] \# d_1 \; d_2 \; = \; (2 \sqcap d_1) \; ; \; d_2 \; \sqcup \\
(1 \sqcap d_1) \; ; \; (1 \; \sqcup \; [\text{app}] \# d_1 \; d_2 \; \sqcup \; d_1 \; \sqcap \; [\text{app}] \# 2 \; d_2)
\]

\[
= \; (2 \sqcap d_1) \; ; \; d_2 \; \sqcup \\
(1 \sqcap d_1) \; ; \; 1 \; \sqcup \\
(1 \sqcap d_1) \; ; \; [\text{app}] \# d_1 \; d_2 \; \sqcup \\
d_1 \; \sqcap \; [\text{app}] \# 2 \; d_2
\]

this results in the fixpoint computation:
We conclude

- that both arguments are totally required if the result is totally required; and
- that the root of the first argument is required if the root of the result is required.

**Remark**

The analysis can be easily generalized such that it guarantees evaluation up to a depth $d$. 
Further Directions

- Our Approach is also applicable to other data structures.
- In principle, also higher-order (monomorphic) functions can be analyzed in this way.
- Then, however, we require higher-order abstract functions — of which there are many.
- Such functions therefore are approximated by:

\[
\text{fun } x_1 \rightarrow \ldots \text{fun } x_r \rightarrow \top
\]

- For some known higher-order functions such as map, foldl, loop, ... only unary or binary functional arguments are required — of which there are sufficiently few.
5 Optimization of Logic Programs

We only consider the mini language PuP (“Pure Prolog”). In particular, we do not consider:

- arithmetic;
- the cut-operator.
- Self-modification by means of `assert` and `retract`. 
Example

\[
\text{bigger}(X, Y) \leftarrow X = \text{elephant}, Y = \text{horse}
\]
\[
\text{bigger}(X, Y) \leftarrow X = \text{horse}, Y = \text{donkey}
\]
\[
\text{bigger}(X, Y) \leftarrow X = \text{donkey}, Y = \text{dog}
\]
\[
\text{bigger}(X, Y) \leftarrow X = \text{donkey}, Y = \text{monkey}
\]
\[
\text{is\_bigger}(X, Y) \leftarrow \text{bigger}(X, Y)
\]
\[
\text{is\_bigger}(X, Y) \leftarrow \text{bigger}(X, Z), \text{is\_bigger}(Z, Y)
\]
\[
\text{is\_bigger}(X, Y) \leftarrow \text{is\_bigger}(\text{elephant}, \text{dog})
\]
A more realistic Example

\text{app}(X, Y, Z) \leftarrow X = [ ], Y = Z
\text{app}(X, Y, Z) \leftarrow X = [H|X'], Z = [H|Z'], \text{app}(X', Y, Z')
\leftarrow \text{app}(X, [Y, c], [a, b, Z])
A more realistic Example

\[
\text{app}(X, Y, Z) \leftarrow X = [], \ Y = Z \\
\text{app}(X, Y, Z) \leftarrow X = [H|X'], \ Z = [H|Z'], \ \text{app}(X', Y, Z') \\
\leftarrow \text{app}(X, [Y, c], [a, b, Z])
\]

Remark

\[
[ ] \quad \text{===} \quad \text{the atom empty list} \\
[H|Z] \quad \text{===} \quad \text{binary constructor application} \\
[a, b, Z] \quad \text{===} \quad \text{Abbreviation for: [a|[b|[Z|[ ]]]]}
\]
Accordingly, a program $p$ is constructed as follows:

$$
t ::= a \mid X \mid _{-} \mid f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)
g ::= p(t_1, \ldots, t_k) \mid X = t
c ::= p(X_1, \ldots, X_k) \leftarrow g_1, \ldots, g_r
q ::= \leftarrow g_1, \ldots, g_r
p ::= c_1 \ldots c_m q
$$

- A term $t$ either is an atom, a (possibly anonymous) variable or a constructor application.
- A goal $g$ either is a literal, i.e., a predicate call, or a unification.
- A clause $c$ consists of a head $p(X_1, \ldots, X_k)$ together with body consisting of a sequence of goals.
- A program consists of a sequence of clauses together with a sequence of goals as query.
Procedural View of PuP-Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>literal</td>
<td>procedure call</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>predicate</td>
<td>procedure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>definition</td>
<td>body</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term</td>
<td>value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unification</td>
<td>basic computation step</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>binding of variables</td>
<td>side effect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Caveat: Predicate calls ...

- do not return results!
- modify the caller solely through side effects
- may fail. Then, the following definition is tried
Inefficiencies

**Backtracking:**  • The matching alternative must be searched for

⇒ **Indexing**

• Since a successful call may still fail later, the stack can only be cleared if there are no pending alternatives.

**Unification:**  • The translation possibly must switch between build and check several times.

• In case of unification with a variable, an Occur Check must be performed.

**Type Checking:**  • Since Prolog is untyped, it must be checked at run-time whether or not a term is of the desired form.

• Otherwise, ugly errors could show up.
Some Optimizations

- Replacing last calls with jumps;
- Compile-time type inference;
- Identification of deterministic predicates ...

Example

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{app}(X, Y, Z) & \leftarrow X = [], \ Y = Z \\
\text{app}(X, Y, Z) & \leftarrow X = [H|X'], \ Z = [H|Z'], \ \text{app}(X', Y, Z') \\
& \leftarrow \text{app}([a, b], [Y, c], Z)
\end{align*}
\]
Observation

- In PuP, functions must be simulated through predicates.
- These then have designated input- and output parameters.
- Input parameters are those which are instantiated with a variable-free term whenever the predicate is called. These are also called ground.
- In the example, the first parameter of app is an input parameter.
- Unification with such a parameter can be implemented as pattern matching!
- Then we see that app in fact is deterministic !!!
A variable $X$ is called ground w.r.t. a program execution $\pi$ starting program entry and entering a program point $v$, if $X$ is bound to a variable-free term.

Goal

- Find all variables which are ground whenever a particular program point is reached!
- Find all arguments of a predicate which are ground whenever the predicate is called!
Idea

• Describe groundness by values from $\mathbb{B}$:

  1 $\equiv$ variable-free term;
  0 $\equiv$ term which contains variables.

• A set of variable assignments is described by Boolean functions.

  $X \leftrightarrow Y \equiv X$ is ground iff $Y$ is ground.
  $X \land Y \equiv X$ and $Y$ are ground.
Idea (cont.)

- The constant function 0 denotes an unreachable program point.
- Occurring sets of variable assignments are closed under substitution.

This means that for every occurring function $\phi \neq 0$,

$$\phi(1, \ldots, 1) = 1$$

These functions are called positive.

- The set of all positive functions is called $\text{Pos}$.

Ordering: $\phi_1 \sqsubseteq \phi_2$ if $\phi_1 \Rightarrow \phi_2$.

- In particular, the least element is 0.
Example
Remarks

- Not all positive functions are monotonic !!!
- For \( k \) variables, there are \( 2^{2^{k-1}} + 1 \) many functions.
- The height of the complete lattice is \( 2^k \).
- We construct an interprocedural analysis which for every predicate \( p \) determines a (monotonic) transformation
  \[
  [p]^{\#} : \text{Pos} \rightarrow \text{Pos}
  \]
- For every clause, \( p(X_1, \ldots, X_k) \leftarrow g_1, \ldots, g_n \) we obtain the constraint:
  \[
  [p]^{\#} \psi \sqsupseteq \exists X_{k+1}, \ldots, X_m. \ [g_n]^{\#} (\ldots ( [g_1]^{\#} \psi ) \ldots)
  \]
  // \( m \) number of clause variables
Abstract Unification

\[
\left[ X = t \right]^{\#} \psi = \psi \land (X \leftrightarrow X_1 \land \ldots \land X_r)
\]
if \( Vars(t) = \{X_1, \ldots, X_r\} \).

Abstract Literal

\[
\left[ q(s_1, \ldots, s_k) \right]^{\#} \psi = \text{combine}_{s_1, \ldots, s_k}^{\#}(\psi, \left[ q \right]^{\#}(\text{enter}_{s_1, \ldots, s_k}^{\#} \psi))
\]

// analogous to procedure call !!
Thereby

\[ \text{enter}^\#_{s_1, \ldots, s_k} \psi = \text{ren} (\exists X_1, \ldots, X_m. [\bar{X}_1 = s_1, \ldots, \bar{X}_k = s_k] \# \psi) \]

\[ \text{combine}^\#_{s_1, \ldots, s_k} (\psi, \psi_1) = \exists \bar{X}_1, \ldots, \bar{X}_r. \psi \land [\bar{X}_1 = s_1, \ldots, \bar{X}_k = s_k] \# (\text{ren} \psi_1) \]

where

\[ \exists X. \phi = \phi[0/X] \lor \phi[1/X] \]

\[ \text{ren} \phi = \phi[X_1/\bar{X}_1, \ldots, X_k/\bar{X}_k] \]

\[ \text{ren} \phi = \phi[\bar{X}_1/X_1, \ldots, \bar{X}_r/X_r] \]
Example

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{app}(X, Y, Z) & \leftarrow X = [], Y = Z \\
\text{app}(X, Y, Z) & \leftarrow X = [H | X'], Z = [H | Z'], \text{app}(X', Y, Z')
\end{align*}
\]

Then

\[
\begin{align*}
[[\text{app}]](X) & \equiv X \land (Y \leftrightarrow Z) \\
[[\text{app}]](X) & \equiv \text{let } \psi = X \land H \land X' \land (Z \leftrightarrow Z') \\
& \text{ in } \exists H, X', Z'. \text{combine}((\psi, [[\text{app}]](\text{enter}(\psi))))
\end{align*}
\]

where for \( \psi = X \land H \land X' \land (Z \leftrightarrow Z') \):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{enter}(\psi) & = X \\
\text{combine}(\psi, X \land (Y \leftrightarrow Z)) & = (X \land H \land X' \land (Z \leftrightarrow Z') \land (Y \leftrightarrow Z'))
\end{align*}
\]
Example (Cont.)

Furthermore,

\[ \text{[app]}^\#(Z) \equiv X \land Y \land Z \]
\[ \text{[app]}^\#(Z) \equiv \text{let } \psi = H \land Z \land Z' \land (X \leftrightarrow X') \]
\[ \text{in } \exists H, X', Z'. \text{ combine}^\# \left( \psi, \text{[app]}^\#(\text{enter}^\#(\psi)) \right) \]

where for \( \psi = Z \land H \land Z' \land (X \leftrightarrow X') \):

\[ \text{enter}^\#(\psi) = Z \]
\[ \text{combine}^\#(\psi, X \land Y \land Z) = X \land H \land X' \land Y \land Z \land Z' \]

Fixpoint iteration therefore yields:

\[ \text{[app]}^\#(X) = X \land (Y \leftrightarrow Z) \]
\[ \text{[app]}^\#(Z) = X \land Y \land Z \]
Discussion

- Exhaustive tabulation of the transformation $[\text{app}]^\#$ is not feasible.
- Therefore, we rely on demand-driven fixpoint iteration!
- The evaluation starts with the evaluation of the query $g$, i.e., with the evaluation of $[g]^\# 1$.
- The set of inspected fixpoint variables $[p]^\# \psi$ yields a description of all possible calls.
- For an efficient representation of functions $\psi \in \text{Pos}$ we rely on binary decision diagrams (BDDs).
Background 6: Binary Decision Diagrams

Idea (1)

- Choose an ordering $x_1, \ldots, x_k$ on the arguments ...
- Represent the function $f : \mathbb{B} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$ by $[f]_0$ where:

$$
\begin{align*}
[b]_k &= b \\
[f]_{i-1} &= \text{fun } x_i \rightarrow \text{if } x_i \text{ then } [f 1]_i \\
&\quad \text{else } [f 0]_i
\end{align*}
$$

Example $f x_1 x_2 x_3 = x_1 \land (x_2 \leftrightarrow x_3)$
... yields the tree:
Idea (2)

- Decision trees are exponentially large ...
- Often, however, many sub-trees are isomorphic !!
- Isomorphic sub-trees need to be represented only once ...
Idea (3)

- Nodes whose test is irrelevant, can also be abandoned ...
Discussion

- This representation of the Boolean function $f$ is unique!

Equality of functions is efficiently decidable !!

- For the representation to be useful, it should support the basic operations: $\land$, $\lor$, $\neg$, $\Rightarrow$, $\exists x_j$ ...

\[
[b_1 \land b_2]_k = b_1 \land b_2 \\
[f \land g]_{i-1} = \text{fun } x_i \rightarrow \text{if } x_i \text{ then } [f \ 1 \land g \ 1]_i \\
\text{else } [f \ 0 \land g \ 0]_i \\
// \text{ analogous for the remaining operators}
\]
\[ [\exists x_j. f]_{i-1} = \text{fun } x_i \rightarrow \text{if } x_i \text{ then } [\exists x_j. f 1]_i \]
\[ \text{else } [\exists x_j. f 0]_i \text{ if } i < j \]
\[ [\exists x_j. f]_{j-1} = [f 0 \lor f 1]_j \]

- Operations are executed bottom-up.
- Root nodes of already constructed sub-graphs are stored in a unique-table

\[ \implies \]

Isomorphy can be tested in constant time!

- The operations thus are polynomial in the size of the input BDDs.
Discussion

• Originally, BDDs have been developed for circuit verification.
• Today, they are also applied to the verification of software ...
• A system state is encoded by a sequence of bits.
• A BDD then describes the set of all reachable system states.
• Caveat: Repeated application of Boolean operations may increase the size dramatically!
• The variable ordering may have a dramatic impact ...
Example: \((x_1 \leftrightarrow x_2) \land (x_3 \leftrightarrow x_4)\)
Discussion (2)

- In general, consider the function:

\[(x_1 \leftrightarrow x_2) \land \ldots \land (x_{2n-1} \leftrightarrow x_{2n})\]

W.r.t. the variable ordering:

\[x_1 < x_2 < \ldots < x_{2n}\]

the BDD has \(3n\) internal nodes.

W.r.t. the variable ordering:

\[x_1 < x_3 < \ldots < x_{2n-1} < x_2 < x_4 < \ldots < x_{2n}\]

the BDD has more than \(2^n\) internal nodes !!

- A similar result holds for the implementation of Addition through BDDs.
Discussion (3)

- Not all Boolean functions have small BDDs ...
- Difficult functions:
  - multiplication;
  - indirect addressing ...

⇒ data-intensive programs cannot be analyzed in this way!
Perspectives: Further Properties of Programs

Freeness: Is $X_i$ possibly/always unbound?

$\implies$ If $X_i$ is always unbound, no indexing for $X_i$ is required.
If $X_i$ is never unbound, indexing for $X_i$ is complete.

Pair Sharing: Are $X_i, X_j$ possibly bound to terms $t_i, t_j$ with

$$\text{Vars}(t_i) \cap \text{Vars}(t_j) \neq \emptyset$$

$\implies$ Literals without sharing can be executed in parallel.

Remark:
Both analyses may profit from Groundness!
5.2 Types for Prolog

Example

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{nat}(X) & \leftarrow X = 0 \\
\text{nat}(X) & \leftarrow X = s(Y), \text{nat}(Y) \\
\text{nat\_list}(X) & \leftarrow X = [] \\
\text{nat\_list}(X) & \leftarrow X = [H|T], \text{nat}(H), \text{nat\_list}(T)
\end{align*}
\]
Discussion

- In Prolog, a type is a set of ground terms with a simple description.
- There is no common agreement what simple means.
- One possibility are (non-deterministic) finite tree automata or normal Horn clauses:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{nat\_list}([H|T]) & \leftarrow \text{nat}(H), \text{nat\_list}(T) & \text{normal} \\
\text{bin}(\text{node}(T,T)) & \leftarrow \text{bin}(T) & \text{nicht normal} \\
\text{tree}(\text{node}(T_1,T_2)) & \leftarrow \text{tree}(T_1), \text{tree}(T_2) & \text{normal}
\end{align*}
\]
Comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normal clauses</th>
<th>Tree automaton</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>unary predicate</td>
<td>state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>normal clause</td>
<td>transition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constructor in the head</td>
<td>input symbol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>body</td>
<td>pre-condition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

General Form

\[
p(a(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_1(X_1), \ldots, p_k(X_k)
\]

\[
p(X) \leftarrow
\]

\[
p(b) \leftarrow
\]
Properties

• Types then are in fact regular tree languages.
• Types are closed under intersection:
  \[
  \langle p, q \rangle(a(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) \leftarrow \langle p_1, q_1 \rangle(X_1), \ldots, \langle p_k, q_k \rangle(X_k)
  \]
  if
  \[
  p(a(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_1(X_1), \ldots, p_k(X_k)
  \]
  and
  \[
  q(a(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) \leftarrow q_1(X_1), \ldots, q_k(X_k)
  \]

• Types are also closed under union.
• Queries \(p(X)\) and \(p(t)\) can be decided in polynomial time but:
  • ... only in presence of tabulation !

• Or the program is topdown deterministic ...
Example: Topdown vs. Bottom-up

\[
\begin{align*}
p(a(X_1, X_2)) & \leftarrow p_1(X_1), p_2(X_2) \\
p(a(X_1, X_2)) & \leftarrow p_2(X_1), p_1(X_2) \\
p_1(b) & \leftarrow \\
p_2(c) & \leftarrow \\
\end{align*}
\]

... is bottom-up, but not topdown deterministic.

There is no topdown deterministic program for this type!

→

Topdown deterministic types are closed under intersection, but not under union !!!
For a set $T$ of terms, we define the set $\Pi(T)$ of \textit{paths} in terms from $T$:

$$\Pi(T) = \bigcup \{ \Pi(t) \mid t \in T \}$$

$$\Pi(b) = \{b\}$$

$$\Pi(a(t_1, \ldots, t_k)) = \{ a_jw \mid w \in \Pi(t_j) \} \quad (k > 0)$$

// for new unary constructors $a_j$

\[\text{Example}\]

$$T = \{ a(b, c), a(c, b) \}$$

$$\Pi(T) = \{ a_1b, a_2c, a_1c, a_2b \}$$
Vice versa from a set $P$ of paths, a set $\Pi^{-}(P)$ of terms can be recovered:

$$\Pi^{-}(P) = \{ t \mid \Pi(t) \subseteq P \}$$

Example (Cont.)

$$P = \{ a_1b, a_2c, a_1c, a_2b \}$$

$$\Pi^{-}(P) = \{ a(b, b), a(b, c), a(c, b), a(c, c) \}$$

The set has become larger !!
Theorem

Assume that $T$ is a regular set of terms. Then:

- $\Pi(T)$ is regular.
- $T \subseteq \Pi^-(\Pi(T))$.
- $T = \Pi^-(\Pi(T))$ iff $T$ is topdown deterministic.
- $\Pi^-(\Pi(T))$ is the smallest superset of $T$ which is topdown deterministic.

Consequence

If we are interested in topdown deterministic types, it suffices to determine the set of paths in terms $T$.
Example (Cont.)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add}(X, Y, Z) & \leftarrow X = 0, \text{nat}(Y), Y = Z \\
\text{add}(X, Y, Z) & \leftarrow \text{nat}(X), X = s(X'), Z = s(Z'), \text{add}(X', Y, Z') \\
\text{mult}(X, Y, Z) & \leftarrow X = 0, \text{nat}(Y), Z = 0 \\
\text{mult}(X, Y, Z) & \leftarrow \text{nat}(X), X = s(X'), \text{mult}(X', Y, Z'), \text{add}(Z', Y, Z)
\end{align*}
\]

Question

Which run-time checks are necessary?
Idea

- Approximate the semantics of predicates by means of topdown-deterministic regular tree languages!
- Alternatively: Approximate the set of paths in the semantics of predicates by regular word languages!

Idea

- All predicates $p/k, k > 0$, are split into predicates $p_1/1, \ldots, p_k/1$. 
Semantics

Let $C$ denote a set of clauses.
The set $\llbracket p \rrbracket_C$ is the set of tuples of ground terms $(s_1, \ldots, s_k)$, for which $p(s_1, \ldots, s_k)$ is provable.

$\llbracket p \rrbracket_C$ ($p$ predicate) thus is the smallest collection of sets of tuples for which:

$$\sigma(t) \in \llbracket p \rrbracket_C \quad \text{when ever} \quad \forall i. \sigma(t_i) \in \llbracket p_i \rrbracket_C$$

for clauses $p(t) \leftarrow p_1(t_1), \ldots, p_n(t_n) \in C$ and ground substitutions $\sigma$. 
Approximation of Paths

Every clause

\[ p(t_1, \ldots, t_k) \leftarrow \alpha \]

is approximated by the clauses:

\[ p_j(w) \leftarrow \bigwedge \Pi(\alpha) \quad \text{where} \]

\[ \Pi(g_1, \ldots, g_m) = \Pi(g_1) \cup \ldots \cup \Pi(g_m) \]

\[ \Pi(q(s_1, \ldots, s_n)) = \{q_i(w) \mid w \in \Pi(s_i)\} \]

\((j = 1, \ldots, k, w \in \Pi(t_j))\).

Example

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add}(0, Y, Y) & \leftarrow \text{nat}(Y) \\
\text{add}(s(X), Y, s(Z)) & \leftarrow \text{add}(X, Y, Z)
\end{align*}
\]
yields

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add}_1(0) & \leftarrow \text{nat}_1(Y) \\
\text{add}_2(Y) & \leftarrow \text{nat}_1(Y) \\
\text{add}_3(Y) & \leftarrow \text{nat}_1(Y) \\
\text{add}_1(s_1 X) & \leftarrow \text{add}_1(X), \text{add}_2(Y), \text{add}_3(Z) \\
\text{add}_2(Y) & \leftarrow \text{add}_1(X), \text{add}_2(Y), \text{add}_3(Z) \\
\text{add}_3(s_1 Z) & \leftarrow \text{add}_1(X), \text{add}_2(Y), \text{add}_3(Z)
\end{align*}
\]
Discussion

• Every literal has at most one occurrence of a variable.
• The literals $q_j(w_jY)$ where the variable $Y$ does not occur in the head, represent tests:
  
  If there is a $w$ with $w_jw \in \left[q_j\right]_C$ for all such $j$, then we can cancel these literals.

  If there is no such $w$, then we can cancel the clause ...

... in the Example:

The literals:

$$\text{add}_1(X), \text{add}_2(Y), \text{add}_3(Z)$$

are all satisfiable.
We conclude:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add}_1(0) & \leftarrow \\
\text{add}_2(Y) & \leftarrow \text{nat}_1(Y) \\
\text{add}_3(Y) & \leftarrow \text{nat}_1(Y) \\
\text{add}_1(s_1X) & \leftarrow \text{add}_1(X) \\
\text{add}_2(Y) & \leftarrow \text{add}_2(Y) \\
\text{add}_3(s_1Z) & \leftarrow \text{add}_3(Z)
\end{align*}
\]
We conclude:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add}_1(0) & \leftarrow \\
\text{add}_2(Y) & \leftarrow \text{nat}_1(Y) \\
\text{add}_3(Y) & \leftarrow \text{nat}_1(Y) \\
\text{add}_1(s_1 X) & \leftarrow \text{add}_1(X) \\
\text{add}_3(s_1 Z) & \leftarrow \text{add}_3(Z)
\end{align*}
\]
We verify:

Theorem

Assume that $C$ is a set of clauses.
Let $C^\#$ denote the corresponding set of clauses for the paths.
Then for all predicates $p/k$:

$$\Pi([p]_C) \subseteq [p_1]_{C^\#} \cup \ldots \cup [p_k]_{C^\#}$$

Proof

Induction on the approximations of the respective fixpoints.
A set of clauses with unary predicates and unary constructors is called **Alternating Pushdown System (APS)**.

**Theorem**

- Every APS is equivalent to a **simple** APS of the form:

  \[
  p(aX) \leftarrow p_1(X), \ldots, p_r(X) \\
  p(X) \leftarrow \\
  p(b) \leftarrow
  \]

- Every APS is equivalent to a **normal** APS of the form:

  \[
  p(aX) \leftarrow p_1(X) \\
  p(X) \leftarrow \\
  p(b) \leftarrow
  \]
Step 1: Removal of complicated heads:

For \( w = a^{(1)} \ldots a^{(m)} \quad (m > 1) \) we replace

\[
\begin{align*}
p(w X) & \leftarrow \text{rhs} \\
p(a^{(1)} X) & \leftarrow p_2(X) \\
p_2(a^{(2)} X) & \leftarrow p_3(X) \\
& \quad \ldots \\
p_{m-1}(a^{(m-1)} X) & \leftarrow p_m(X) \\
p_m(a^{(m)} X) & \leftarrow \text{rhs} \\
\end{align*}
\]

// \( p_j \) all new
Step 1 (Cont.): Removal of complicated heads:

For \( w = a^{(1)} \ldots a^{(m)} b \quad (m > 0) \) we replace

\[
\begin{align*}
  p(w) & \leftarrow \text{rhs} \\
  p(a^{(1)} X) & \leftarrow p_2(X) \\
  p_2(a^{(2)} X) & \leftarrow p_3(X) \\
  \vdots \\
  p_{m-1}(a^{(m-1)} X) & \leftarrow p_m(X) \\
  p_m(a^{(m)} X) & \leftarrow p_{m+1}(X) \\
  p_{m+1}(b) & \leftarrow \text{rhs} \\
  // & \quad p_j \text{ all new}
\end{align*}
\]
Step 2: Splitting

We separate independent parts of pre-conditions into auxiliary predicates:

\[
\text{head} \leftarrow \text{rest}, p_1(w_1 X), \ldots, p_m(w_m X) \\
(X \text{ does not occur in head, rest})
\]

is replaced with

\[
\text{head} \leftarrow \text{rest}, q() \\
q() \leftarrow p_1(w_1 X), \ldots, p_m(w_m X)
\]

for a new predicate \( q/0 \).
Step 3: Normalization

We add simpler derived clauses:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{head} & \leftarrow p(a \ w), \text{rest} \\
p(a \ X) & \leftarrow p_1(X), \ldots, p_r(X) \\
\text{implies} \\
\text{head} & \leftarrow p_1(w), \ldots, p_r(w), \text{rest} \\
p(X) & \leftarrow p_1(X), \ldots, p_m(X) \\
p_i(a \ X) & \leftarrow p_{i1}(X), \ldots, p_{ir_i}(X) \\
\text{implies} \\
p(a \ X) & \leftarrow p_{11}(X), \ldots, p_{mr_m}(X)
\end{align*}
\]
Step 3 (Cont.): Normalization

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{head} & \leftarrow p(w), \text{rest} \\
p(X) & \leftarrow \text{implies} \\
\text{head} & \leftarrow \text{rest} \\
\text{head} & \leftarrow p(b), \text{rest} \\
p(b) & \leftarrow \text{implies} \\
\text{head} & \leftarrow \text{rest} \\
p() & \leftarrow p_1(X), \ldots, p_m(X) \\
p_i(aX) & \leftarrow p_{i1}(X), \ldots, p_{ir_i}(X) \\
\text{implies} \\
p() & \leftarrow p_{11}(X), \ldots, p_{mr_m}(X)
\end{align*}
\]
Example

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add}_1(X) & \leftarrow \text{add}_0(X) \\
\text{add}_0(0) & \leftarrow \\
\text{add}_1(X) & \leftarrow \text{add}_1(X) \\
\text{add}_1(s_1 X) & \leftarrow \text{add}_1(X)
\end{align*}
\]

... results in the new clause:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add}_1(0) & \leftarrow
\end{align*}
\]
Theorem

Assume that $C$ is a finite set of clauses for which steps 1 and 2 have been executed and which then has been saturated according to step 3.

Assume that $C_0 \subseteq C$ is the subset of normal clauses of $C$. Then for all occurring predicates $p$,

$$[p]_{C_0} = [p]_C$$

Proof

Induction on the depth of terms in $[p]_C$. 

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... in the Example:

For $\text{add}_1(X)$ we obtain the following clauses:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add}_1(0) & \leftarrow \\
\text{add}_1(s_1X) & \leftarrow \text{add}_1(X)
\end{align*}
\]

These clauses are already normal.
Transforming into Normal Clauses

Introduce new predicates for *conjunctions* of predicates.

Assume that $A = \{p_1, \ldots, p_m\}$. Then:

\[
[A](b) \leftarrow \quad \text{whenever} \quad p_i(b) \leftarrow \quad \text{for all } i.
\]

\[
[A](aX) \leftarrow [B](X) \quad \text{whenever} \quad B = \{p_{ij} \mid i = 1, \ldots, m\} \quad \text{for}
\]

\[
p_i(aX) \leftarrow p_{i1}(X), \ldots, p_{ir_i}(X)
\]
Last Step: Transformation into a Type

- First, the automaton is determinized ...
Last Step: Transformation into a Type

- First, the automaton is determinized ...

- Then transitions for the components of constructors \( a: \)
  \[
  p(a_j X) \leftarrow p^{(j)}(X)
  \]

  are joined into a transition for \( a: \)
  \[
  p(a(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) \leftarrow p^{(1)}(X_1), \ldots, p^{(k)}(X_k)
  \]

- Finally, the predicates \( p_j \) for the components of the predicate \( p/k \) are joined to a transition:
  \[
  p(X_1, \ldots, X_k) \leftarrow p_1(X_1), \ldots, p_k(X_k)
  \]
In the Example we find:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add}(X, Y, Z) & \leftarrow \text{add}_1(X), \text{nat}(Y), q'(Z) \quad \text{where} \\
q'(0) & \leftarrow \\
q'(s\, X) & \leftarrow q'(X) \\
q' & = \{\text{nat, add}_2\}
\end{align*}
\]
In the Example we find:

\[
\text{add}(X, Y, Z) \leftarrow \text{add}_1(X), \text{nat}(Y), q'(Z)
\]

where

\[
q'(0) \leftarrow
\]
\[
q'(s\ X) \leftarrow q'(X)
\]
\[
q' = \{\text{nat}, \text{add}_2\}
\]

The types \(\text{add}_1, q', \text{nat}\) are all equivalent.
Discussion

• For type-checking, it suffices to check for every predicate $p/k$ that
  
  $$\llbracket p_i \rrbracket_{C^\sharp} \subseteq \Pi(T_i)$$

• Since the $T_i$ are topdown deterministic, we have a deterministic automaton for $\Pi(T_i)$.

• Therefore, we can easily construct a DFA for the complement $\overline{\Pi(T_i)}$!!

• Then we check whether
  
  $$\llbracket p_i \rrbracket_{C^\sharp} \cap \overline{\Pi(T_i)} = \emptyset$$

  $\implies$ this saves us determinization.
Caveat

- The emptiness problem for APS is DEXPTIME-complete!
- In many cases, though, our method terminates quickly.
Caveat

- The emptiness problem for APS is DEXPTIME-complete!
- In many cases, though, our method terminates quickly.

- Inferred types can also be used to understand legacy code.
- Then, however, they are only useful if they are not too complicated!
- Our type inference provides very precise information.
- In practical applications, further widenings are applied to accelerate the analysis, e.g., by reducing the number of occurring sets.
5.3 Goal-directed Type Inference

Prolog programs explore predicates only insofar as they contribute to answer a query.

Example: append

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{app}([], Y, Y) & \leftarrow \\
\text{app}([\text{H}|\text{T}], Y, [\text{H}|\text{Z}]) & \leftarrow \text{app}(T, Y, Z) \\
& \leftarrow \text{app}([1, 2], [3], Z)
\end{align*}
\]

... results in
The \textit{APS}-Approximation

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{app}_1([|]_1(H)) & \leftarrow \text{app}_1(T), \text{app}_2(Y), \text{app}_3(Z). \\
\text{app}_1([|]_2(T)) & \leftarrow \text{app}_1(T), \text{app}_2(Y), \text{app}_3(Z). \\
\text{app}_2(Y) & \leftarrow \text{app}_1(T), \text{app}_2(Y), \text{app}_3(Z). \\
\text{app}_3([|]_1(H)) & \leftarrow \text{app}_1(T), \text{app}_2(Y), \text{app}_3(Z). \\
\text{app}_3([|]_2(Z)) & \leftarrow \text{app}_1(T), \text{app}_2(Y), \text{app}_3(Z). \\
\text{app}_1([]) & \leftarrow \\
\text{app}_2(X) & \leftarrow \\
\text{app}_3(X) & \leftarrow \\
& \leftarrow \text{app}_1([|]_1(1)), \text{app}_1([|]_2([|]_1(2))), \text{app}_1([|]_2([|]_2([]))), \\
& \text{app}_2([|]_1(3)), \text{app}_2([|]_2([])), \text{app}_3(X)
\end{align*}
\]
Ignoring the query, we find via normalization:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{app}_2(X) & \leftarrow \\
\text{app}_3(X) & \leftarrow \\
\text{app}_1([]) & \leftarrow \\
\text{app}_1([]_2X) & \leftarrow q_0(X) \\
\text{app}_1([]_2X) & \leftarrow q_1(X) \\
\text{app}_1([]_2X) & \leftarrow q_2(X) \\
\text{app}_1([]_1X) & \leftarrow \\
q_0([]) & \leftarrow \\
q_1([]_2X) & \leftarrow q_0(X) \\
q_1([]_2X) & \leftarrow q_1(X) \\
q_1([]_2X) & \leftarrow q_2(X) \\
q_2([]_1X) & \leftarrow
\end{align*}
\]
Discussion

- The second and third argument can be arbitrary.
- The first argument is a list where nothing is known about the elements.
- Ignoring the query, this result is the best we can hope for.
- Better results can be obtained if additionally call patterns are tracked!

⇒ Magic Set Transformation
Magic Sets

- For every predicate $p/k$, we introduce a new predicate $\text{called}_{p/k}$ with the clauses

$$\text{called}_p(t) \leftarrow \text{for the query } \leftarrow p(t)$$

- 

$$\text{called}_{p_i}(t_i) \leftarrow \text{called}_{p}(t), p_1(t_1), \ldots, p_{i-1}(t_{i-1})$$

$$p(t) \leftarrow \text{called}_{p}(t), p_1(t_1), \ldots, p_m(t_m)$$

for every clause:

$$p(t) \leftarrow p_1(t_1), \ldots, p_m(t_m)$$
Example: append (Cont.)

\[
\text{app}([], Y, Y) \leftarrow \text{called}([], Y, Y)
\]

\[
\text{app}([H|T], Y, [H|Z]) \leftarrow \text{called}([H|T], Y, [H|Z]), \\
\text{app}(T, Y, Z)
\]

\[
\text{called}(T, Y, Z) \leftarrow \text{called}([H|T], Y, [H|Z])
\]

\[
\text{called}([1, 2], [3], Z) \leftarrow
\]
The APS-Approximation

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{app}_1([]) & \leftarrow \text{called}_1([]), \text{called}_2(X), \text{called}_3(X) \\
\text{app}_2(X) & \leftarrow \text{called}_1([]), \text{called}_2(X), \text{called}_3(X) \\
\text{app}_3(X) & \leftarrow \text{called}_1([]), \text{called}_2(X), \text{called}_3(X) \\
\text{app}_1([][1]H) & \leftarrow \text{called}_1([][1]H), \text{called}_1([][2]T), \text{called}_2(Y), \text{called}_3([][1]H), \text{called}_3([][2]Z), \\
& \quad \text{app}_1(T), \text{app}_2(Y), \text{app}_3(Z) \\
\text{app}_1([][2]T) & \leftarrow \text{called}_1([][1]H), \text{called}_1([][2]T), \text{called}_2(Y), \text{called}_3([][1]H), \text{called}_3([][2]Z), \\
& \quad \text{app}_1(T), \text{app}_2(Y), \text{app}_3(Z) \\
\text{app}_2(Y) & \leftarrow \text{called}_1([][1]H), \text{called}_1([][2]T), \text{called}_2(Y), \text{called}_3([][1]H), \text{called}_3([][2]Z), \\
& \quad \text{app}_1(T), \text{app}_2(Y), \text{app}_3(Z) \\
\text{app}_3([][1]H) & \leftarrow \text{called}_1([][1]H), \text{called}_1([][2]T), \text{called}_2(Y), \text{called}_3([][1]H), \text{called}_3([][2]Z), \\
& \quad \text{app}_1(T), \text{app}_2(Y), \text{app}_3(Z) \\
\text{app}_3([][2]Z) & \leftarrow \text{called}_1([][1]H), \text{called}_1([][2]T), \text{called}_2(Y), \text{called}_3([][1]H), \text{called}_3([][2]Z), \\
& \quad \text{app}_1(T), \text{app}_2(Y), \text{app}_3(Z)
\end{align*}
\]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Called Function</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$called_1(T')$</td>
<td>$called_1([^1]H), called_1([^2]T), called_2(Y), called_3([^1]H), called_3([^2]Z)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$called_2(Y)$</td>
<td>$called_1([^1]H), called_1([^2]T), called_2(Y), called_3([^1]H), called_3([^2]Z)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$called_3(Z)$</td>
<td>$called_1([^1]H), called_1([^2]T), called_2(Y), called_3([^1]H), called_3([^2]Z)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$called_1([^1]1)$</td>
<td>$called_1([^1]H), called_1([^2]T), called_2(Y), called_3([^1]H), called_3([^2]Z)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$called_1([^2]1)$</td>
<td>$called_1([^1]H), called_1([^2]T), called_2(Y), called_3([^1]H), called_3([^2]Z)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$called_1([^2]2)$</td>
<td>$called_1([^1]H), called_1([^2]T), called_2(Y), called_3([^1]H), called_3([^2]Z)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$called_1([^2][^1]1)$</td>
<td>$called_1([^1]H), called_1([^2]T), called_2(Y), called_3([^1]H), called_3([^2]Z)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$called_1([^2]1)$</td>
<td>$called_1([^1]H), called_1([^2]T), called_2(Y), called_3([^1]H), called_3([^2]Z)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$called_2([^1]3)$</td>
<td>$called_1([^1]H), called_1([^2]T), called_2(Y), called_3([^1]H), called_3([^2]Z)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$called_2([^2]1)$</td>
<td>$called_1([^1]H), called_1([^2]T), called_2(Y), called_3([^1]H), called_3([^2]Z)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$called_3(X)$</td>
<td>$called_1([^1]H), called_1([^2]T), called_2(Y), called_3([^1]H), called_3([^2]Z)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Normalized $APS$-Approximation (Cont.)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{app}_1([[]]_1 X) & \leftarrow q_1(X) & \text{app}_3([[]]_1 X) & \leftarrow q_3(X) & q_4([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_0(X) \\
\text{app}_1([[]]_1 X) & \leftarrow q_2(X) & \text{app}_3([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_0(X) & q_5([[]]_1 X) & \leftarrow q_2(X) \\
\text{app}_1([]) & \leftarrow & \text{app}_3([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_4(X) & q_6([[]]_1 X) & \leftarrow q_3(X) \\
\text{app}_1([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_4(X) & \text{app}_3([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_6(X) & q_7([[]]_1 X) & \leftarrow q_1(X) \\
\text{app}_1([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_0(X) & \text{app}_3([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_7(X) & q_7([[]]_1 X) & \leftarrow q_2(X) \\
\text{app}_1([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_5(X) & \text{app}_3([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_8(X) & q_8([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_4(X) \\
\text{app}_2([[]]_1 X) & \leftarrow q_3(X) & q_0([]) & \leftarrow & q_8([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_7(X) \\
\text{app}_2([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_0(X) & q_1(1) & \leftarrow & q_8([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_8(X) \\
\text{app}_3([[]]_1 X) & \leftarrow q_1(X) & q_2(2) & \leftarrow & q_8([[]]_2 X) & \leftarrow q_6(X) \\
\text{app}_3([[]]_1 X) & \leftarrow q_2(X) & q_3(3) & \leftarrow
\end{align*}
\]
Discussion

- The result now is amazingly precise!!
- The correct values for the second parameter is inferred.
- For the result parameter, a list containing 1, 2 and 3 is inferred.

- It only fails to infer that this list is finite and of length 3.
Perspective: Normal Horn Clauses

- Prolog may no longer be the sexiest programming language..
- Horn clauses, though, are very well suited for the specification of analysis problems.
- It is a separate problem then to solve the stated analysis problem.
- If the least solution cannot be computed exactly, approximate solutions may at least yield approximative answers ...

Example: Cryptographic Protocols
Rules for the Exchange of Messages

\{Alice, Na\}_{pub(Bob)}

\{Na, Nb\}_{pub(Alice)}

\{Nb\}_{pub(Bob)}

Properties to be verified

secrecy, authenticity, ...
The Dolev-Yao Model

- Messages are terms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Representation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>${m}_k$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\langle m_1, m_2 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>encrypt$(m, k)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pair$(m_1, m_2)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\Rightarrow$ Distinct terms represent distinct messages

$\Rightarrow$ perfect cryptography. Therefore, we have:

$\{m\}_k = \{m'\}_{k'}$ iff $m = m'$ and $k = k'$

- The attacker has full control over the network:
  All messages are exchanged with the attacker.
Example: The Needham-Schroeder Protocol

1. \( A \rightarrow B : \{a, n_a\}_{k_b} \)
2. \( B \rightarrow A : \{n_a, n_b\}_{k_a} \)
3. \( A \rightarrow B : \{n_b\}_{k_b} \)

Abstraction

- Unbounded number of sessions !!
- Nonces are not necessarily fresh ??
Idea

Characterize the knowledge of the attacker by means of Horn clauses ...

1. $A \rightarrow B : \{a, n_a\}_{k_b} \quad \text{known}(\{a, n_a\}_{k_b}) \leftarrow$

2. $B \rightarrow A : \{n_a, n_b\}_{k_a} \quad \text{known}(\{X, n_b\}_{k_a}) \leftarrow \text{known}(\{a, X\}_{k_b})$

3. $A \rightarrow B : \{n_b\}_{k_b} \quad \text{known}(\{X\}_{k_b}) \leftarrow \text{known}(\{n_a, X\}_{k_a})$

Secrecy of $N_b : \quad \leftarrow \text{known}(n_b)$. 
Discussion

- We have abstracted all nonces with finitely many.
- Less restrictive (though still correct) abstractions are still possible ...

1. \( A \rightarrow B : \{a, n_a\}^{k_b} \) ... 
2. \( B \rightarrow A : \{n_a, n_b\}^{k_a} \) known(\( \{X, n_b(X)\}^{k_a} \)) \leftarrow \text{known}(\{a, X\}^{k_b}) 
3. \( A \rightarrow B : \{n_b\}^{k_b} \) ... 

The fresh nonce is a function of the received nonce.

Blanchet 2001
Further capabilities of the attacker

\[
\text{known(} \{X\}_Y \) \leftarrow \text{known}(X), \text{known}(Y) \\
\quad \text{// The attacker can encode}
\]

\[
\text{known(} \langle X, Y \rangle \) \leftarrow \text{known}(X), \text{known}(Y) \\
\quad \text{// The attacker can construct pairs}
\]

\[
\text{known}(X) \leftarrow \text{known(} \{X\}_Y \), \text{known}(Y) \\
\quad \text{// The attacker can decode}
\]

\[
\text{known}(X) \leftarrow \text{known(} \langle X, Y \rangle \) \\
\text{known}(Y) \leftarrow \text{known(} \langle X, Y \rangle \) \\
\quad \text{// The attacker can project}
\]
Discussion

• Type inference for Prolog computed a regular abstraction of the set of paths of the denotational semantics.
• Sometimes, this is too imprecise!
• Instead, we now approximate the denotational semantics directly ...

• This, however, can be quite expensive
  ➔ not well suited for compilers
  ➔ in general, much more precise
Simplification

We only consider clauses whose heads are of the form:

\[ p(f(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) \quad \text{or} \quad p(b) \quad \text{or} \quad p(X_1, \ldots, X_k) \]

Such clauses are called H1.

Theorem

- Every finite set of H1-clauses is equivalent to a finite set of simple H1-clauses of the form:

\[
\begin{align*}
p(f(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) & \leftarrow p_1(X_{i_1}), \ldots, p_r(X_{i_1}) \\ p(X_1, \ldots, X_k) & \leftarrow p_1(X_{i_1}), \ldots, p_r(X_{i_1}) \\ p(b) & \leftarrow 
\end{align*}
\]

- ... or even to a finite set of normal H1-clauses.
Idea

We successively introduce simpler clauses until the complicated ones become superfluous ...

Rule 1: Splitting

We separate independent parts from the pre-conditions:

\[ head \leftarrow rest, p_1(X), \ldots, p_m(X) \]

\((X \text{ does not occur in } head, rest)\)

is replaced with

\[ head \leftarrow rest, q() \]

\[ q() \leftarrow p_1(X), \ldots, p_m(X) \]

for a new predicate \( q/0 \).
Rule 2  Simplification

We introduce simpler derived clauses:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{head} & \quad \leftarrow \quad p(f(t_1, \ldots, t_k)), \text{rest} \\
p(f(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) & \quad \leftarrow \quad p_1(X_{i_1}), \ldots, p_r(X_{i_r}), \text{implies} \\
\text{head} & \quad \leftarrow \quad p_1(t_{i_1}), \ldots, p_r(t_{i_r}), \text{rest}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{head} & \quad \leftarrow \quad p(t_1, \ldots, t_k), \text{rest} \\
p(X_1, \ldots, X_k) & \quad \leftarrow \quad p_1(X_{i_1}), \ldots, p_r(X_{i_r}), \text{implies} \\
\text{head} & \quad \leftarrow \quad p_1(t_{i_1}), \ldots, p_r(t_{i_r}), \text{rest}
\end{align*}
\]
Rule 3 (Cont.): Simplification

\[ p(X) \leftarrow p_1(X), \ldots, p_m(X) \]
\[ p_i(f(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_{i1}(X_{i1}), \ldots, p_{ir_i}(X_{ir_i}) \]
implies
\[ p(f(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_{11}(X_{11}), \ldots, p_{mr_m}(X_{mr_m}) \]

\[ \text{head} \leftarrow p(b), \text{rest} \]
\[ p(b) \leftarrow \text{implies} \]
\[ \text{head} \leftarrow \text{rest} \]
Rule 4: Guard Simplification

\[ p(()) \leftarrow p_1(X), \ldots, p_m(X) \]

\[ p_i(f(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_{i1}(X_{i1}), \ldots, p_{ir_i}(X_{ir_i}) \]

implies

\[ p(()) \leftarrow p_{11}(X_{11}), \ldots, p_{mr_m}(X_{mr_m}) \]

\[ p(()) \leftarrow p_1(X), \ldots, p_m(X) \]

\[ p_i(b) \leftarrow \text{implies} \]

\[ p(()) \leftarrow \]
Theorem

Assume that \( C \) is a finite set of clauses which is closed under splitting and simplification and guard simplification.

Let \( C_0 \subseteq C \) denote the subset of simple clauses of \( C \). Then for all occurring predicates \( p \),

\[
[p]c_0 = [p]c
\]

Proof

Induction on the depth of terms in tuples of \([p]c\).
Transformation into normal clauses

Introduce fresh predicates for *conjunctions* of unary predicates.

Assume $A = \{p_1, \ldots, p_m\}$. Then:

$$[A](b) \leftarrow \text{whenever } p_i(b) \leftarrow \text{for all } i.$$  
$$[A](f(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) \leftarrow [B_1](X_1), \ldots, [B_k](X_k)$$

whenever $B_i = \{p_{jl} \mid X_{ijl} = X_i\}$ for

$p_j(f(X_1, \ldots, X_k)) \leftarrow p_{j1}(X_{ij1}), \ldots, p_{jr_j}(X_{ijr_j})$
Caveat

• The emptiness problem for Horn clauses in H1 is DEXPTIME-complete!

• In many cases, our method still terminates quickly

• Not all Horn clauses are in H1!
  \[ \Rightarrow \text{an approximation technique is required} \ldots \]
Approximation of Horn Clauses

Step 1

Simplification of pre-conditions by splitting, simplification and guard simplification (as before)

Step 2

Introduction of copies of variables $X$. Every copy receives all literals of $X$ as pre-condition.

\[ p(f(X, X)) \leftarrow q(X) \quad \text{yields:} \]

\[ p(f(X, X')) \leftarrow q(X), q(X') \]
Step 3

Introduction of an auxiliary predicate for every non-variable subterm of the head.

\[
p(f(g(X, Y), Z)) \leftarrow q_1(X), q_2(Y), q_3(Z) \quad \text{yields :}
\]

\[
p_1(g(X, Y)) \leftarrow q_1(X), q_2(Y), q_3(Z)
\]
\[
p(f(H, Z)) \leftarrow p_1(H), q_1(X), q_2(Y), q_3(Z)
\]