

 $Now f(t_1 \wedge t_2) = f(T, \perp, \perp) = (\perp, \perp, \perp)$ $f(t_1) = (4,1,3)$ $f(t_2) = (4,2,2)$ **f**(t₁)∧**f**(t₂) = (4,⊥,⊥) ≥ (⊥,⊥,⊥)

Why does it Matter if a Data Flow Problem isn't Distributive?

Consider actual program execution paths from b_0 **to (say)** b_k **.**

One path might be b₀,b_{i1},b_{i2},...,b_{in} where $b_{i n}$ = b_k .

At b_k the Data Flow information we **want is**

 f_{i_1} (... f_{i_2} (f_{i_1} (f_0 (T)))...) = $f(b_0, b_1,...,b_{i_n})$

On a different path to b_k, say **b0,bj 1 ,bj 2 ,...,bjm, where bjm=bk**

the Data Flow result we get is $f_{j_m}(...f_{j_2}(f_{j_1}(f_0(T)))...)$ = $f(b_0, b_{j_1},...,b_{j_m}).$

Since we can't know at compile time which path will be taken, we must *combine* **all possible paths:**

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$$
\bigwedge f(p)
$$

p∈ all paths to b_k

This is the *meet over all paths* **(MOP) solution. It is the** *best possible* **static solution. (Why?)**

As we shall see, the meet over all paths solution can be computed efficiently, using standard Data Flow techniques, if the problem is Distributive.

Other, non-distributive problems (like Constant Propagation) can't be solved as precisely.

Explicitly computing and meeting all paths is prohibitively expensive.

Conditional Constant Propagation

We can extend our Constant Propagation Analysis to determine that some paths in a CFG aren't executable. This is *Conditional Constant Propagation***.**

Consider

i = 1; if (i > 0) j = 1; else j = 2;

Conditional Constant Propagation can determine that the else part of the if is unreachable, and hence j must be 1.

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The idea behind Conditional Constant Propagation is simple. Initially, we mark all edges out of conditionals as "not reachable."

Starting at b₀, we propagate constant **information** *only* **along edges considered reachable.**

When a boolean expression $b(v_1, v_2,...)$ **controls a conditional branch, we** evaluate $b(v_1,v_2,...)$ using the $t(v)$ **mapping that identifies the "constant status" of variables.**

If t(v_i)=T for any v_i, we consider all **out edges unreachable (for now).**

Otherwise, we evaluate $b(v_1, v_2, ...)$ **using t(v), getting true, false or** ⊥**.**

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Note that the short-circuit properties of boolean operators may yield true or false even if t(v_i)=⊥ for some v_i.

If $b(v_1,v_2,...)$ is true or false, we mark **only one out edge as reachable.**

Otherwise, if $b(v_1,v_2,...)$ evaluates to ⊥**, we mark all out edges as reachable. We propagate constant information only along reachable edges.**

Reading Assignment

• Read pages 63-end of "Automatic Program Optimization," by Ron Cytron. (Linked from the class Web page.)

Iterative Solution of Data Flow Problems

This algorithm will use DFO numbering to determine the order in which blocks are visited for evaluation. We iterate over the nodes until convergence.

We'll do this as a set-valued problem (though it really is just three bitvalued analyses, since each analysis is independent).

- **L is the power set of Basic Blocks**
- ∧ **is set union**
- **T is** φ**;** ⊥ **is the set of all blocks**
- **a** ≤ **b** ≡ **b** ⊆ **a**

$$
f_3(in) = \{3\}
$$

$$
f_6(in) = \{6\}
$$

$$
f_7(in) = \{7\}
$$

For all other blocks,
$$
f_b(in) = in
$$

We'll track soln and ReEval across multiple passes

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Properties of Iterative Data Flow Analysis

- **• If the height of the lattice (the maximum distance from T to** ⊥**) is finite, then termination is** *guaranteed***. Why? Recall that transfer functions are** assumed monotone $(a ≤ b ⇒ f(a) ≤ f(b))$. **Also,** ∧ **has the property that a**∧**b** ≤ **a and a**∧**b** ≤ **b. At each iteration, some solution value must change, else we halt. If something changes it must "move down" the lattice (we start at T). If the lattice has finite height, each block's value can change only a bounded number of times. Hence termination is guaranteed.**
- **• If the iterative data flow algorithm terminates, a valid solution** *must* **have been computed. (This is because data flow values flow forward, and any change along a backedge forces another iteration.)**

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Needed?

How Many Iterations are

Can we bound the number of iterations needed to compute a data flow solution?

In our example, 3 passes were needed, but why?

In an "ideal" CFG, with no loops or backedges, only 1 pass is needed.

With backedges, it can take several passes for a value computed in one block to reach a block that depends upon the value.

Let p be the maximum number of backedges in any acyclic path in the CFG.

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Then (p+1) passes suffice to propagate a data flow value to any other block that uses it.

Recall that any block's value can change only a bounded number of times. In fact, the height of the lattice (maximum distance from top to bottom) is that bound.

Thus the maximum number of passes in our iterative data flow evaluator =

(p+1) * Height of Lattice

In our example, p = 2 and lattice height really was 1 (we did 3 independent bit valued problems).

So passes needed = $(2+1)^*1 = 3$.

Rapid Data Flow Frameworks

We still have the concern that it may take many passes to traverse a solution lattice that has a significant height.

Many data flow problems are *rapid***. For rapid data flow problems, extra passes to feed back values along cyclic paths aren't needed.**

For a data flow problem to be rapid we require that:

(∀**a** ∈ **A)(**∀**f** ∈ **F) a** ∧ **f(T)** ≤ **f(a)**

This is an odd requirement that states that using f(T) as a very crude approximation to a value computed by F is OK when joined using the ∧ **operator. In effect the term "a" rather than f(T) is dominant).**

(Recall that a ∧ **f(a)** ≤ **f(a) always holds.)**

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How does the Rapid Data Flow Property Help?

Consider a direct feedback loop (the idea holds for indirect loops too):

f a

a is an input from outside the loop. Our concern is how often we'll need to reevaluate f, as new values are computed and fed back into f.

Initially, we'll use T to model the value on the backedge.

Iteration 1: Input = $a \wedge T = a$ **Output = f(a) Iteration 2:** Input = $a \wedge f(a)$ $Output = f(a \wedge f(a))$ **Iteration 3:** Input = $a \wedge f(a \wedge f(a))$ **Now we'll exploit the rapid data flow property:** $b \wedge f(T) \leq f(b)$ Let $b = a$ ∧ $f(a)$ **Then a** ∧ **f(a)** ∧ **f(T)** ≤ **f(a**∧**f(a)) (*) Note that x** ≤ **y** ⇒ **a** ∧ **x** ≤ **a** ∧ **y (**) To prove this, recall that (1) p** ∧ **q = p** ⇒ **p** ≤ **q (2) x** ≤ **y** ⇒ **x** ∧ **y = x Thus (a**∧**x)**∧**(a**∧**y) = a**∧**(x**∧**y) = (a**∧**x) (by 2)** ⇒ **(a**∧**x)** ≤ **(a**∧**y) (by 1).**

Many Important Data Flow Problems are Rapid

Consider reaching definitions, done as sets. We may have many definitions to the same variable, so the height of the lattice may be large.

L is the power set of Basic Blocks

∧ **is set union**

T is φ**;** ⊥ **is the set of all blocks**

a ≤ **b** ≡ **a** ⊇ **b**

 $f_h(in) = (In - Kill_h)$ U Gen_h

where Gen_b is the last definition to a **variable in b,**

Kill_b is all defs to a variable except **the last one in b,**

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Kill_b is empty if there is no def to a **variable in b. The Rapid Data Flow Property is a** ∧ **f(T)** ≤ **f(a) In terms of Reaching Definitions this is a U f(**φ**)** ⊇ **f(a)** ≡ **aU(**φ **- Kill) U Gen** ⊇ **(a - Kill) U Gen Simplifying, a U Gen** ⊇ **(a - Kill) U Gen which always holds.**

f(t) = t' where $t'(v) = case(v)$ **k: t(j); j: t(i); i: 2; }** Let $a = (\perp, 1, 1)$. **f(T) = (2,T,T) a** ∧ **f(T) = (**⊥**,1,1)** ∧ **(2,T,T) = (**⊥**,1,1)** $f(a) = f(\perp, 1, 1) = (2, \perp, 1).$ **Now (**⊥**,1,1) is not** ≤ **(2,**⊥**,1) so this problem isn't rapid.**

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Let's follow the iterations: Pass 1: In = (1,1,1)∧**(T,T,T) = (1,1,1) Out = (2,1,1) Pass 2: In = (1,1,1)**∧**(2,1,1) = (**⊥**,1,1) Out = (2,**⊥**,1) Pass 3: In = (1,1,1)**∧**(2,**⊥**,1) = (**⊥**,**⊥**,1) Out = (2,**⊥**,**⊥**) This took 3 passes. In general, if we had N variables, we could require N passes, with each pass resolving the constant status of one variable.**

How Good Is Iterative Data Flow Analysis?

A single execution of a program will follow some path b_0 , b_{i_1} , b_{i_2} ,..., b_{i_n} .

The Data Flow solution along this path is

 f_{i_1} (... f_{i_2} (f_{i_1} (f_0 (T)))...) = $f(b_0, b_1,...,b_{i_n})$

The best possible static data flow solution at some block b is computed over all possible paths from b_0 to b.

Let P_b = The set of all paths from b_0 **to b.**

$$
MOP(b) = \bigwedge_{p \in P_b} f(p)
$$

Any particular path p_i from b_0 to b is **included in P_b.**

 $\text{Thus MOP(b)} \wedge \text{f}(p_i) = \text{MOP(b)} \leq \text{f}(p_i).$

This means MOP(b) is *always* **a safe approximation to the "true" solution f(pi).**

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The paths in P end with b. $MOP(b) = f_b(f(P_1)) \wedge f_b(f(P_2)) \wedge ...$

where P₁, P₂, ... are the prefixes (of **length n or less) of paths in P with b removed.**

Using the distributive property,

$$
f_b(f(P_1)) \wedge f_b(f(P_2) \wedge \dots =
$$

$$
f_b(f(P_1)\wedge f(P_2)\wedge \ldots).
$$

But note that $f(P_1) \wedge f(P_2) \wedge ...$ is just the input to f_b in our iterative algorithm, which then applies f_b.

Thus MOP(b) for paths of length n+1 is computed.

If we have the distributive property for transfer functions,

 $f(a \wedge b) = f(a) \wedge f(b)$

then our iterative algorithm *always* **computes the MOP solution, the best static solution possible.**

To prove this, note that for trivial path of length 1, containing only the start block, b_0 , the algorithm computes $f_0(T)$ which is MOP(b_0) **(trivially).**

Now assume that the iterative algorithm for paths of length n or less to block c *does* **compute MOP(c).**

We'll show that for paths to block b of length n+1, MOP(b) is computed. Let P be the set of all paths to b of length n+1 or less.

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For data flow problems that aren't distributive (like constant propagation), the iterative solution is ≤ **the MOP solution.**

This means that the solution is a safe approximation, but perhaps not as "sharp" as we might wish.