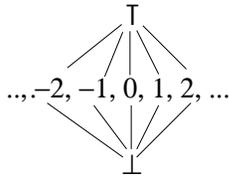


## Constant Propagation

We can model *constant propagation* as a data flow problem. For each scalar integer variable, we will determine whether it is known to hold a particular constant value at a particular basic block.

The value lattice is



T represents a variable holding a constant, whose value is not yet known.

i represents a variable holding a known constant value.

$\perp$  represents a variable whose value is non-constant.

This analysis is complicated by the fact that variables interact, so we can't just do a series of independent one variable analyses.

Instead, the solution lattice will contain functions (or vectors) that map each variable in the program to its constant status (T,  $\perp$ , or some integer).

Let V be the set of all variables in a program.

Let  $t : V \rightarrow N \cup \{T, \perp\}$

t is the set of all total mappings from V (the set of variables) to  $N \cup \{T, \perp\}$  (the lattice of "constant status" values).

For example,  $t_1 = (T, 6, \perp)$  is a mapping for three variables (call them A, B and C) into their constant status.  $t_1$  says A is considered a constant, with value as yet undetermined. B holds the value 6, and C is non-constant.

We can create a lattice composed of t functions:

$t_T(V) = T$  ( $\forall V$ ) ( $t_T = (T, T, T, \dots)$ )

$t_\perp(V) = \perp$  ( $\forall V$ ) ( $t_\perp = (\perp, \perp, \perp, \dots)$ )

$t_a \leq t_b \Leftrightarrow \forall v t_a(v) \leq t_b(v)$

Thus  $(1, \perp) \leq (T, 3)$   
since  $1 \leq T$  and  $\perp \leq 3$ .

The meet operator  $\wedge$  is applied *componentwise*:

$t_a \wedge t_b = t_c$   
where  $\forall v t_c(v) = t_a(v) \wedge t_b(v)$

Thus  $(1, \perp) \wedge (T, 3) = (1, \perp)$   
since  $1 \wedge T = 1$  and  $\perp \wedge 3 = \perp$ .

The lattice axioms hold:

$t_a \leq t_b \Leftrightarrow t_a \wedge t_b = t_a$  (since this axiom holds for each component)

$t_a \wedge t_a = t_a$  (trivially holds)

$(t_a \wedge t_b) \leq t_a$  (per variable def of  $\wedge$ )

$(t_a \wedge t_b) \leq t_b$  (per variable def of  $\wedge$ )

$(t_a \wedge t_\top) = t_a$  (true for all components)

$(t_a \wedge t_\perp) = t_\perp$  (true for all components)

## The Transfer Function

Constant propagation is a forward flow problem, so  $\text{Cout} = f_b(\text{Cin})$

$\text{Cin}$  is a function,  $t(v)$ , that maps variables to  $T, \perp$ , or an integer value  
 $f_b(t(v))$  is defined as:

(1) Initially, let  $t'(v) = t(v)$  ( $\forall v$ )

(2) For each assignment statement  
 $v = e(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$

in  $b$ , in order of execution, do:

If any  $t'(w_i) = \perp$  ( $1 \leq i \leq n$ )

Then set  $t'(v) = \perp$  (strictness)

Elsif any  $t'(w_i) = T$  ( $1 \leq i \leq n$ )

Then set  $t'(v) = T$  (delay eval of  $v$ )

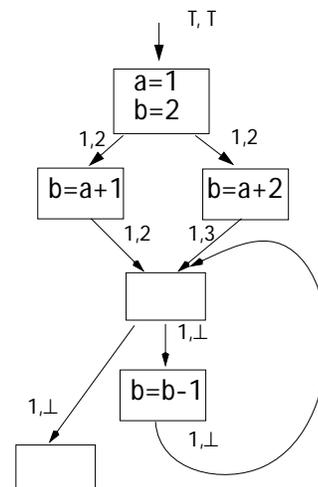
Else  $t'(v) = e(t'(w_1), t'(w_2), \dots)$

(3)  $\text{Cout} = t'(v)$

Note that in valid programs, we don't use uninitialized variables, so variables mapped to  $T$  should only occur prior to initialization.

Initially, all variables are mapped to  $T$ , indicating that initially their constant status is unknown.

## Example



## Distributive Functions

From the properties of  $\wedge$  and  $f$ 's monotone property, we can show that

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

To see this note that

$$a \wedge b \leq a, a \wedge b \leq b \Rightarrow$$

$$f(a \wedge b) \leq f(a), f(a \wedge b) \leq f(b) \quad (*)$$

Now we can establish that

$$x \leq y, x \leq z \Rightarrow x \leq y \wedge z \quad (**)$$

To see that  $(**)$  holds, note that

$$x \leq y \Rightarrow x \wedge y = x$$

$$x \leq z \Rightarrow x \wedge z = x$$

$$(y \wedge z) \wedge x \leq y \wedge z$$

$$(y \wedge z) \wedge x = (y \wedge z) \wedge (x \wedge x) =$$

$$(y \wedge x) \wedge (z \wedge x) = x \wedge x = x$$

Thus  $x \leq y \wedge z$ , establishing  $(**)$ .

Now substituting  $f(a \wedge b)$  for  $x$ ,  $f(a)$  for  $y$  and  $f(b)$  for  $z$  in  $(**)$  and using  $(*)$  we get

$$f(a \wedge b) \leq f(a) \wedge f(b).$$

Many Data Flow problems have flow equations that satisfy the *distributive property*:

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

For example, in our formulation of dominators:

$$\text{Out} = f_b(\text{In}) = \text{In} \cup \{b\}$$

where

$$\text{In} = \bigcap_{p \in \text{Pred}(b)} \text{Out}(p)$$

In this case,  $\wedge = \cap$ .

$$\text{Now } f_b(S_1 \cap S_2) = (S_1 \cap S_2) \cup \{b\}$$

$$\text{Also, } f_b(S_1) \cap f_b(S_2) =$$

$$(S_1 \cup \{b\}) \cap (S_2 \cup \{b\}) =$$

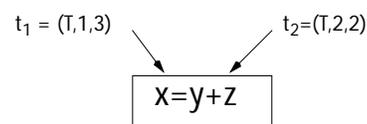
$$(S_1 \cap S_2) \cup \{b\}$$

So dominators are distributive.

## Not all Data Flow Problems are Distributive

Constant propagation is *not* distributive.

Consider the following (with variables  $(x,y,z)$ ):



Now  $f(t) = t'$  where

$$t'(y) = t(y), t'(z) = t(z),$$

$$t'(x) = \text{if } t(y) = \perp \text{ or } t(z) = \perp$$

then  $\perp$

elseif  $t(y) = T$  or  $t(z) = T$

then  $T$

else  $t(y) + t(z)$

Now  $f(t_1 \wedge t_2) = f(T, \perp, \perp) = (\perp, \perp, \perp)$

$f(t_1) = (4, 1, 3)$

$f(t_2) = (4, 2, 2)$

$f(t_1) \wedge f(t_2) = (4, \perp, \perp) \geq (\perp, \perp, \perp)$

## 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  $b_0, b_{i_1}, b_{i_2}, \dots, b_{i_n}$  where  $b_{i_n} = b_k$ .

At  $b_k$  the Data Flow information we want is

$f_{i_n}(\dots f_{i_2}(f_{i_1}(f_0(T)))) \equiv f(b_0, b_{i_1}, \dots, b_{i_n})$

On a different path to  $b_k$ , say  $b_0, b_{j_1}, b_{j_2}, \dots, b_{j_m}$ , where  $b_{j_m} = b_k$

the Data Flow result we get is

$f_{j_m}(\dots f_{j_2}(f_{j_1}(f_0(T)))) \equiv f(b_0, b_{j_1}, \dots, b_{j_m})$ .

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

$$\bigwedge_{p \in \text{all paths to } b_k} f(p)$$

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.

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

Starting at  $b_0$ , we propagate constant information *only* along edges considered reachable.

When a boolean expression  $b(v_1, v_2, \dots)$  controls a conditional branch, we evaluate  $b(v_1, v_2, \dots)$  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  $b(v_1, v_2, \dots)$  using  $t(v)$ , getting true, false or  $\perp$ .

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

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

Otherwise, if  $b(v_1, v_2, \dots)$  evaluates to  $\perp$ , we mark all out edges as reachable.

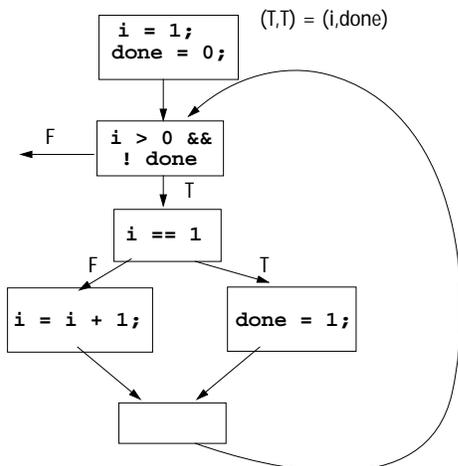
We propagate constant information only along reachable edges.

### Example

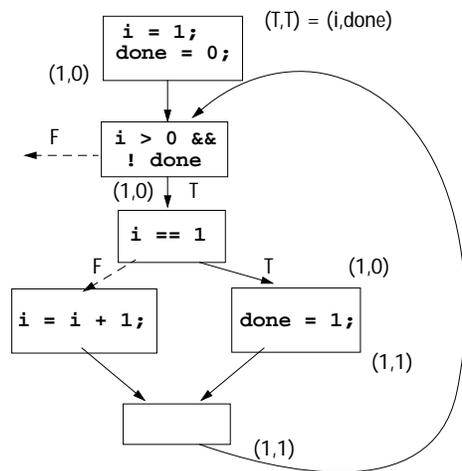
```

i = 1;
done = 0;
while ( i > 0 && ! done ) {
  if ( i == 1 )
    done = 1;
  else i = i + 1;
}

```



### Pass 1:



Pass 2:

