

Control-Flow Analysis

Chapter 8, Section 8.4

Chapter 9, Section 9.6

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Control-Flow Graphs

- Control-flow graph (CFG) for a procedure/method
 - A node is a **basic block**: a single-entry-single-exit sequence of three-address instructions
 - An edge represents the potential flow of control from one basic block to another
- Uses of a control-flow graph
 - Inside a basic block: **local code optimizations**; done as part of the code generation phase
 - Across basic blocks: **global code optimizations**; done as part of the code optimization phase
 - Aspects of code generation: e.g., **global register allocation**

Control-Flow Analysis

- Part 1: Constructing a CFG
- Part 2: Finding **dominators** and **post-dominators**
- Part 3: Finding **loops** in a CFG
 - What exactly is a loop? We cannot simply say “whatever CFG subgraph is generated by *while*, *do-while*, and *for* statements” – need a general graph-theoretic definition
- Part 4: **Static single assignment form** (SSA)
- Part 5: Finding **control dependences**
 - Necessary as part of constructing the **program dependence graph** (PDG), a popular IR for software tools for slicing, refactoring, testing, and debugging

Part 1: Constructing a CFG

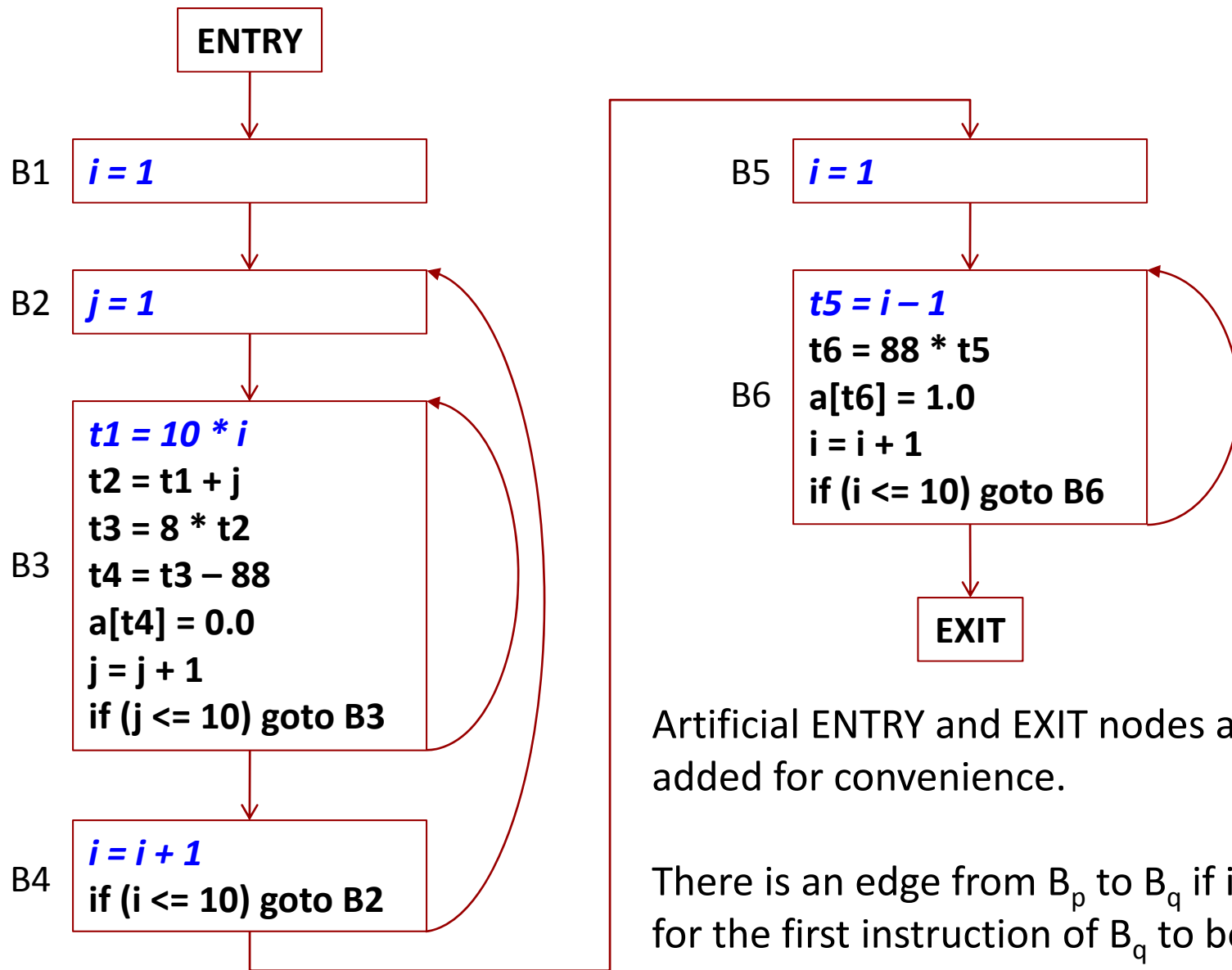
- Basic block: maximal sequence of consecutive three-address instructions such that
 - The flow of control can enter only through the first instruction (i.e., no jumps into the middle of the block)
 - The flow of control can exit only at the last instruction
- Given: the entire sequence of instructions
- First, find the **leaders** (starting instructions of all basic blocks)
 - The first instruction
 - The target of any conditional/unconditional jump
 - Any instruction that immediately follows a conditional or unconditional jump

Constructing a CFG

- Next, find the basic blocks: for each leader, its basic block contains itself and all instructions up to (but not including) the next leader

1. <i>i</i> = 1	➡ First instruction
2. <i>j</i> = 1	➡ Target of 11
3. <i>t</i> 1 = 10 * <i>i</i>	➡ Target of 9
4. <i>t</i> 2 = <i>t</i> 1 + <i>j</i>	
5. <i>t</i> 3 = 8 * <i>t</i> 2	
6. <i>t</i> 4 = <i>t</i> 3 – 88	
7. <i>a</i> [<i>t</i> 4] = 0.0	
8. <i>j</i> = <i>j</i> + 1	
9. if (<i>j</i> <= 10) goto (3)	
10. <i>i</i> = <i>i</i> + 1	➡ Follows 9
11. if (<i>i</i> <= 10) goto (2)	
12. <i>i</i> = 1	➡ Follows 11
13. <i>t</i> 5 = <i>i</i> – 1	➡ Target of 17
14. <i>t</i> 6 = 88 * <i>t</i> 5	
15. <i>a</i> [<i>t</i> 6] = 1.0	
16. <i>i</i> = <i>i</i> + 1	
17. if (<i>i</i> <= 10) goto (13)	

Note: this example sets array elements *a*[*i*][*j*] to 0.0, for $1 \leq i, j \leq 10$ (instructions 1-11). It then sets *a*[*i*][*i*] to 1.0, for $1 \leq i \leq 10$ (instructions 12-17). The array accesses in instructions 7 and 15 are done with offsets computed as described in Section 6.4.3, assuming row-major order, 8-byte array elements, and array indexing that starts from 1, not from 0.



Artificial ENTRY and EXIT nodes are often added for convenience.

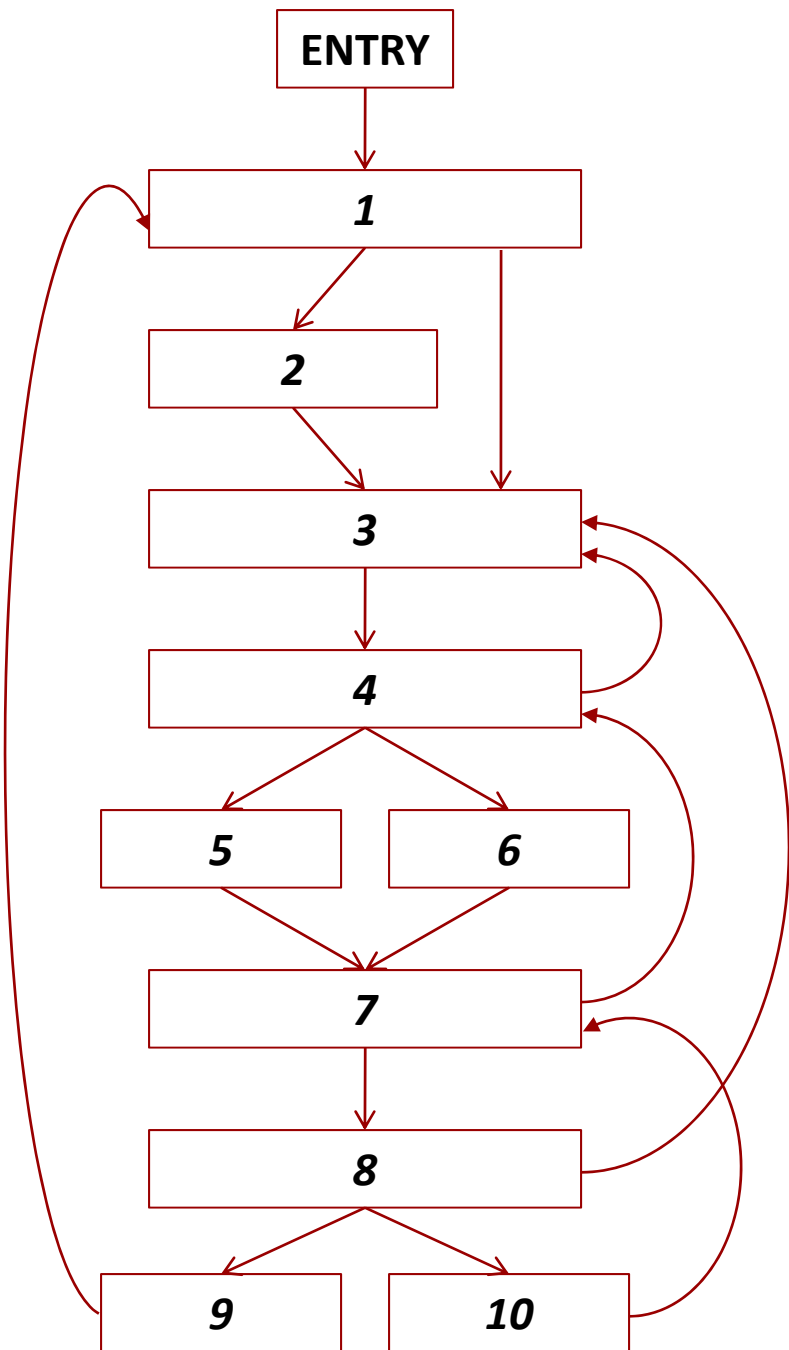
There is an edge from B_p to B_q if it is possible for the first instruction of B_q to be executed immediately after the last instruction of B_p . This is **conservative**: e.g., **if** ($3.14 > 2.78$) still generates two edges.

Practical Considerations

- The usual data structures for graphs can be used
 - The graphs are sparse (i.e., have relatively few edges), so an **adjacency list** representation is the usual choice
 - Number of edges is at most $2 * \text{number of nodes}$
- Nodes are basic blocks; edges are between basic blocks, not between instructions
 - Inside each node, some additional data structures for the sequence of instructions in the block (e.g., a linked list of instructions)
 - Often convenient to maintain both a list of **successors** (i.e., outgoing edges) and a list of **predecessors** (i.e., incoming edges) for each basic block

Part 2: Dominance

- A CFG node d **dominates** another node n if every path from ENTRY to n goes through d
 - Implicit assumption: every node is reachable from ENTRY (i.e., there is no dead code)
 - A dominance relation $dom \subseteq \text{Nodes} \times \text{Nodes}$: $d \text{ dom } n$
 - The relation is trivially reflexive: $d \text{ dom } d$
- Node m is the **immediate dominator** of n if
 - $m \neq n$
 - $m \text{ dom } n$
 - For any $d \neq n$ such $d \text{ dom } n$, we have $d \text{ dom } m$
- Every node has a unique immediate dominator
 - Except ENTRY, which is dominated only by itself



This example is artificial: it does not have an EXIT node; nodes 4 and 8 have more than 2 outgoing edges

ENTRY *dom* n for any n

1 *dom* n for any n except ENTRY

2 does not dominate any other node

3 *dom* 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

4 *dom* 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

5 does not dominate any other node

6 does not dominate any other node

7 *dom* 7, 8, 9, 10

8 *dom* 8, 9, 10

9 does not dominate any other node

10 does not dominate any other node

Immediate dominators:

1 \rightarrow ENTRY

2 \rightarrow 1

3 \rightarrow 1

4 \rightarrow 3

5 \rightarrow 4

6 \rightarrow 4

7 \rightarrow 4

8 \rightarrow 7

9 \rightarrow 8

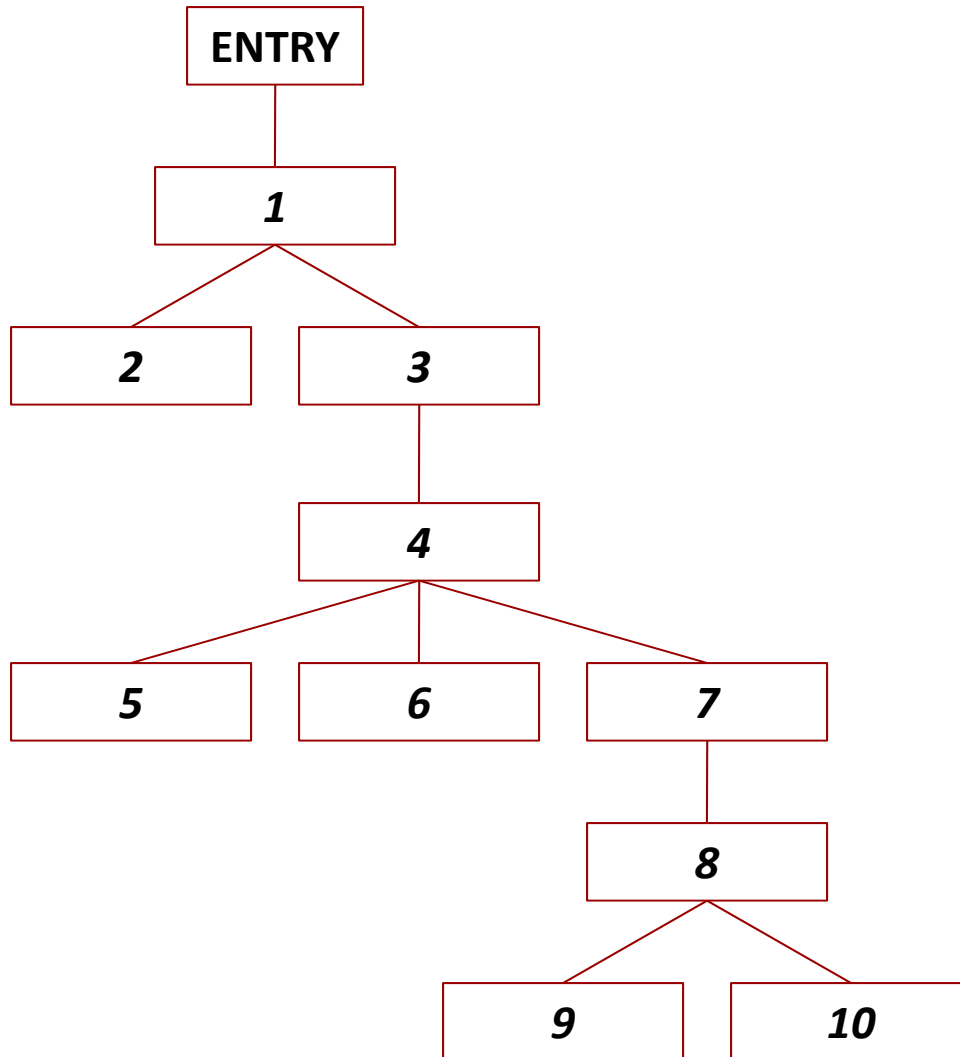
10 \rightarrow 8

A Few Observations

- For any acyclic path from ENTRY to n , all dominators of n appear along the path, always in the same order (for all such paths)
- Dominance is a **transitive** relation: $a \text{ dom } b$ and $b \text{ dom } c$ means $a \text{ dom } c$
- Dominance is an **anti-symmetric** relation: $a \text{ dom } b$ and $b \text{ dom } a$ means that a and b must be the same
 - Reflexive, anti-symmetric, transitive: **partial order**
- If a and b are two dominators of some n , either $a \text{ dom } b$ or $b \text{ dom } a$

Dominator Tree

- The parent of n is its immediate dominator



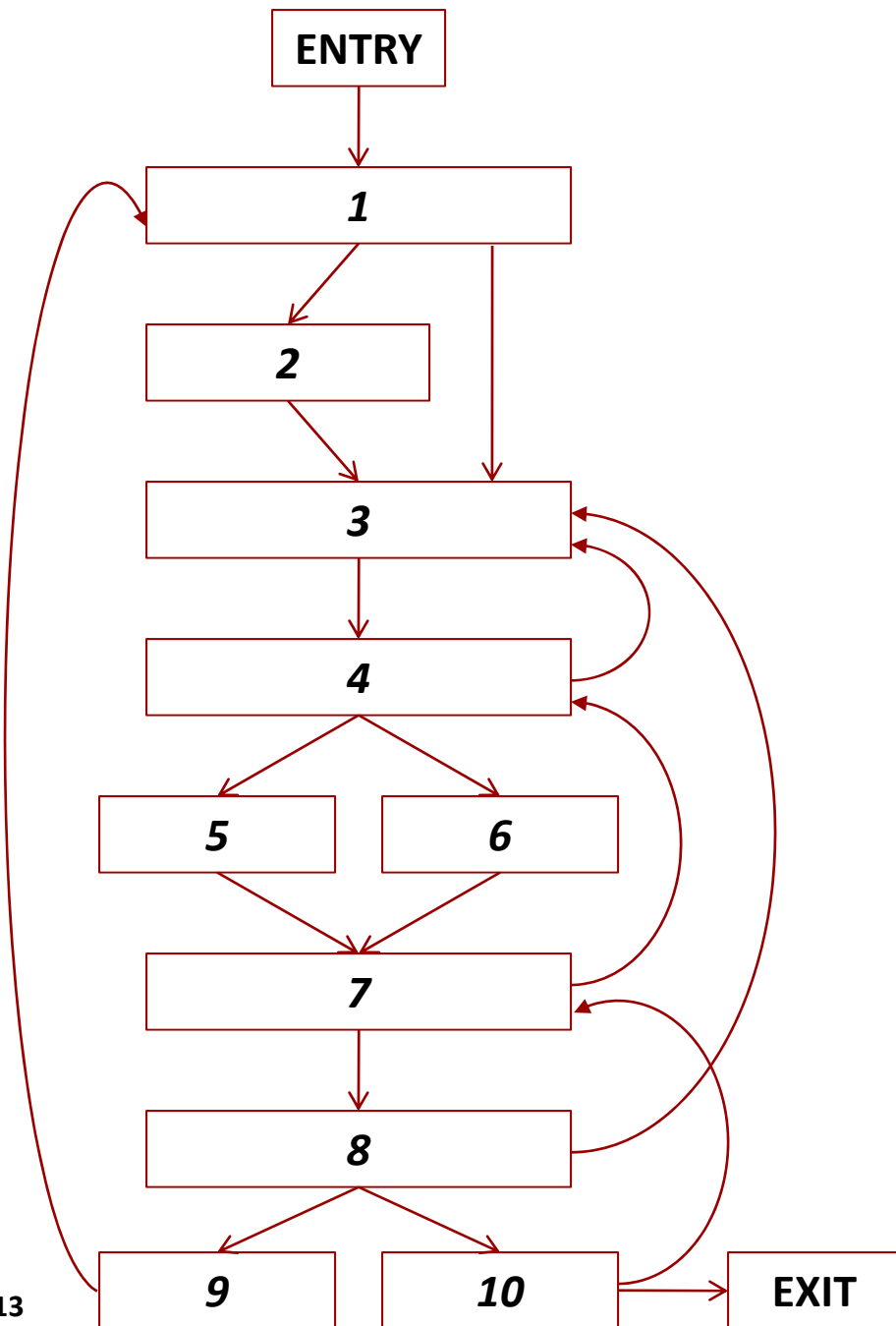
The path from n to the root contains all and only dominators of n

Constructing the dominator tree: the classic $O(N\alpha(N))$ approach is from *T. Lengauer and R. E. Tarjan. A fast algorithm for finding dominators in a flowgraph. ACM Transactions on Programming Languages and Systems, 1(1): 121–141, July 1979.*

Many other algorithms: e.g., see *K. D. Cooper, T. J. Harvey and K. Kennedy. A simple, fast dominance algorithm. Software – Practice and Experience, 4:1–10, 2001.*

Post-Dominance

- A CFG node d **post-dominates** another node n if every path from n to EXIT goes through d
 - Implicit assumption: EXIT is reachable from every node
 - A relation $pdom \subseteq \text{Nodes} \times \text{Nodes}$: $d \text{ } pdom \text{ } n$
 - The relation is trivially reflexive: $d \text{ } pdom \text{ } d$
- Node m is the **immediate post-dominator** of n if
 - $m \neq n$; $m \text{ } pdom \text{ } n$; $\forall d \neq n. d \text{ } pdom \text{ } n \Rightarrow d \text{ } pdom \text{ } m$
 - Every n has a unique immediate post-dominator
- Post-dominance on a CFG is equivalent to dominance on the reverse CFG (all edges reversed)
- **Post-dominance tree**: the parent of n is its immediate post-dominator; root is EXIT



Extend the previous example with EXIT

ENTRY does not post-dominate any other n

1 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 9

2 does not post-dominate any other n

3 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 2, 3, 9

4 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 2, 3, 4, 9

5 does not post-dominate any other n

6 does not post-dominate any other n

7 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9

8 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9

9 does not post-dominate any other n

10 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

EXIT $pdom$ n for any n

Immediate post-dominators:

ENTRY \rightarrow 1 1 \rightarrow 3

2 \rightarrow 3 3 \rightarrow 4

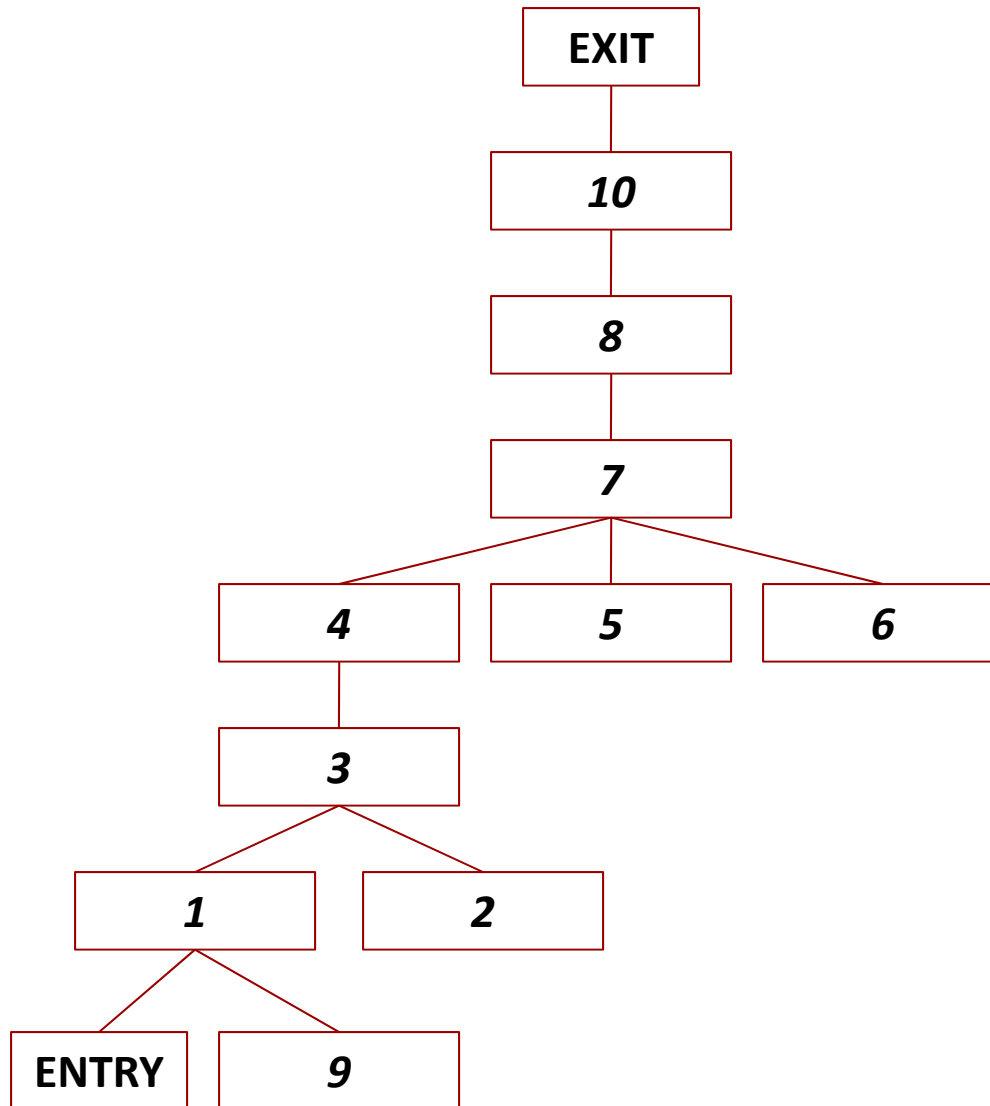
4 \rightarrow 7 5 \rightarrow 7

6 \rightarrow 7 7 \rightarrow 8

8 \rightarrow 10 9 \rightarrow 1

10 \rightarrow EXIT

Post-Dominator Tree



The path from n to the root contains all and only post-dominators of n

Constructing the post-dominator tree: use any algorithm for constructing the dominator tree; just “pretend” that the edges are reversed

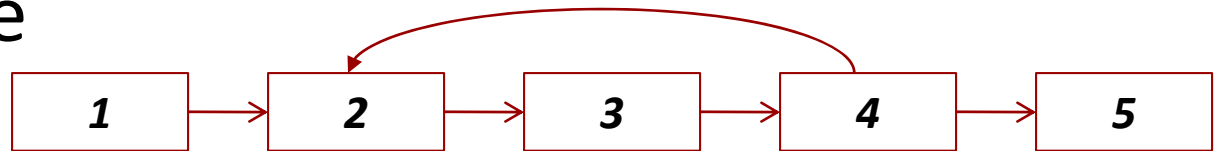
Computing the Dominator Tree

- Theoretically superior algorithms are not necessarily the most desirable in practice
- Our choice (for the default project): Cooper et al.,
- Formulation and algorithm based on insights from dataflow analysis
 - Essentially, solving a system of mutually-recursive equations – more later ...
- I expect you to read the paper carefully and to implement the algorithm for computing the dominator tree

Part 3: Loops in CFGs

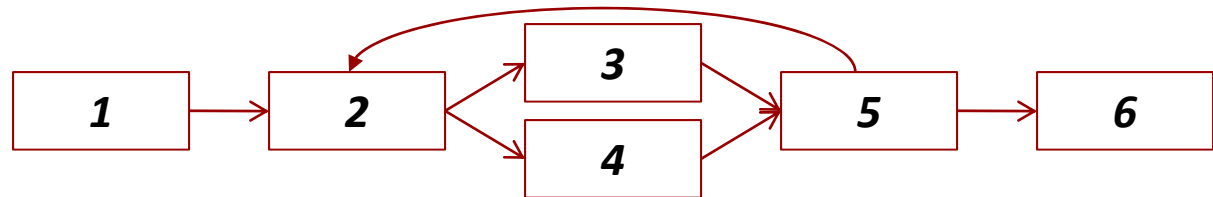
- **Cycle**: sequence of edges that starts and ends at the same node

– Example:



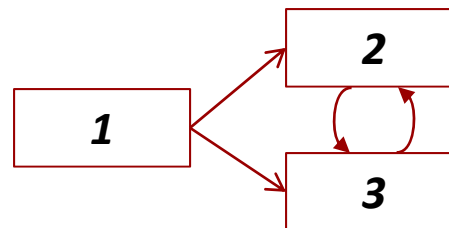
- **Strongly-connected component (SCC)**: a maximal set of nodes such as each node in the set is reachable from every other node in the set

– Example:



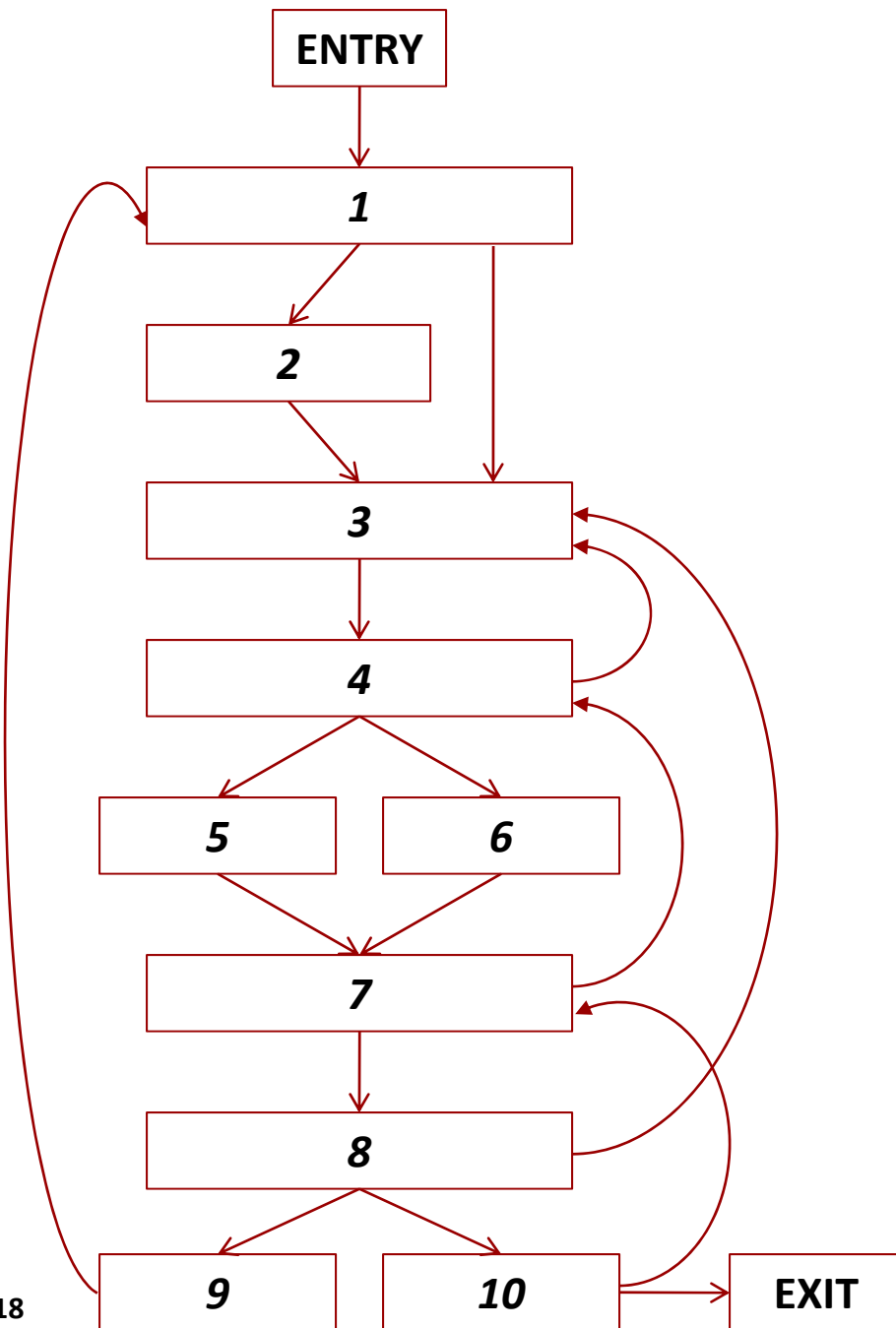
- **Loop**: informally, a strongly-connected component with a single entry point

– An SCC that is not a loop:



Back Edges and Natural Loops

- Back edge: a CFG edge (n, h) where h dominates n
 - Easy to see that n and h belong to the same SCC
- Natural loop for a back edge (n, h)
 - The set of all nodes m that can reach node n without going through node h (trivially, this set includes h)
 - Easy to see that h dominates all such nodes m
 - Node h is the **header** of the natural loop
- Trivial algorithm to find the natural loop of (n, h)
 - Mark h as visited
 - Perform depth-first search (or breadth-first) starting from n , but follow the CFG edges in reverse direction
 - All and only visited nodes are in the natural loop



Immediate dominators:

$1 \rightarrow \text{ENTRY}$	$2 \rightarrow 1$	$3 \rightarrow 1$
$4 \rightarrow 3$	$5 \rightarrow 4$	$6 \rightarrow 4$
$7 \rightarrow 4$	$8 \rightarrow 7$	$9 \rightarrow 8$
$10 \rightarrow 8$	$\text{EXIT} \rightarrow 10$	

Back edges: $4 \rightarrow 3$, $7 \rightarrow 4$, $8 \rightarrow 3$, $9 \rightarrow 1$, $10 \rightarrow 7$

Loop($10 \rightarrow 7$) = { 7, 8, 10 }

Loop($7 \rightarrow 4$) = { 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10 }

Note: Loop($10 \rightarrow 7$) \subseteq Loop($7 \rightarrow 4$)

Loop($4 \rightarrow 3$) = { 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10 }

Note: Loop($7 \rightarrow 4$) \subseteq Loop($4 \rightarrow 3$)

Loop($8 \rightarrow 3$) = { 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10 }

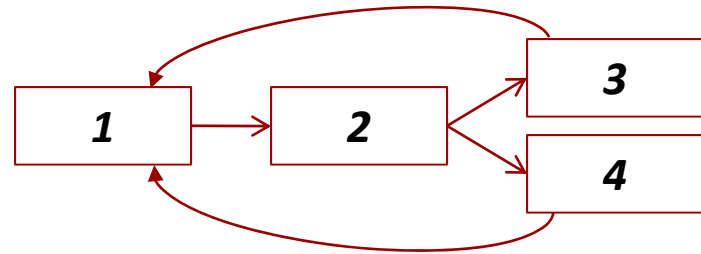
Note: Loop($8 \rightarrow 3$) = Loop($4 \rightarrow 3$)

Loop($9 \rightarrow 1$) = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 }

Note: Loop($4 \rightarrow 3$) \subseteq Loop($9 \rightarrow 1$)

Loops in the CFG

- Find all back edges; each target h of at least one back edge defines a loop L with $header(L) = h$
- $body(L)$ is the union of the natural loops of all back edges whose target is $header(L)$
 - Note that $header(L) \in body(L)$
- Example: this is a single loop with header node 1
- For two CFG loops L_1 and L_2
 - $header(L_1)$ is different from $header(L_2)$
 - $body(L_1)$ and $body(L_2)$ are either disjoint, or one is a proper subset of the other (nesting – inner/outer)

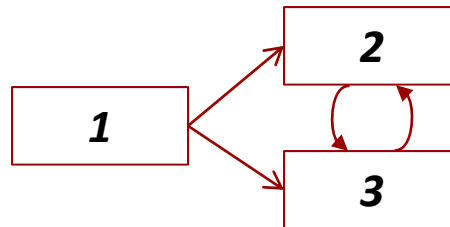


Flashback to Graph Algorithms

- Depth-first search in the CFG [Cormen et al. book]
 - Set each node's color as *white*
 - Call DFS(ENTRY)
 - DFS(*n*)
 - Set the color of *n* to *grey*
 - For each successor *m*: if color is *white*, call DFS(*m*)
 - Set the color of *n* to *black*
- Inside DFS(*n*), seeing a grey successor *m* means that (*n*,*m*) is a *retreating edge*
 - Note: *m* could be *n* itself, if there is an edge (*n*,*n*)
- The order in which we consider the successors matters: the set of retreating edges depends on it

Reducible Control-Flow Graphs

- For **reducible** CFGs, the **retreating** edges discovered during DFS are all and only **back** edges
 - The order during DFS traversal is irrelevant: all DFS traversals produce the same set of retreating edges
- For **irreducible** CFGs: a DFS traversal may produce retreating edges that are not back edges
 - Each traversal may produce different retreating edges
 - Example:



- No back edges
- One traversal produces the retreating edge $3 \rightarrow 2$
- The other one produces the retreating edge $2 \rightarrow 3$

Reducibility (1/2)

- A number of equivalent definitions
 - One of them we already saw
- The graph can be **reduced to a single node** with the application of the following two rules
 - Given a node n with a single predecessor m , merge n into m ; all successors of n become successors of m
 - Remove an edge $n \rightarrow n$
- Try this on the graphs from slides 18, 17, and 20

Reducibility (2/2)

- The essence of irreducibility: a SCC with multiple possible entry points
 - If the original program was written using **if-then**, **if-then-else**, **while-do**, **do-while**, **break**, and **continue**, the resulting CFG is always reducible
 - If **goto** was used by the programmer, the CFG could be irreducible (but, in practice, it typically is reducible)
- Optimizations of the intermediate code, done by the compiler, could introduce irreducibility
- Code obfuscation: e.g., Java bytecode can be transformed to be irreducible, making it impossible to reverse-engineer a valid Java source program

Part 4: Static Single Assignment (SSA) Form

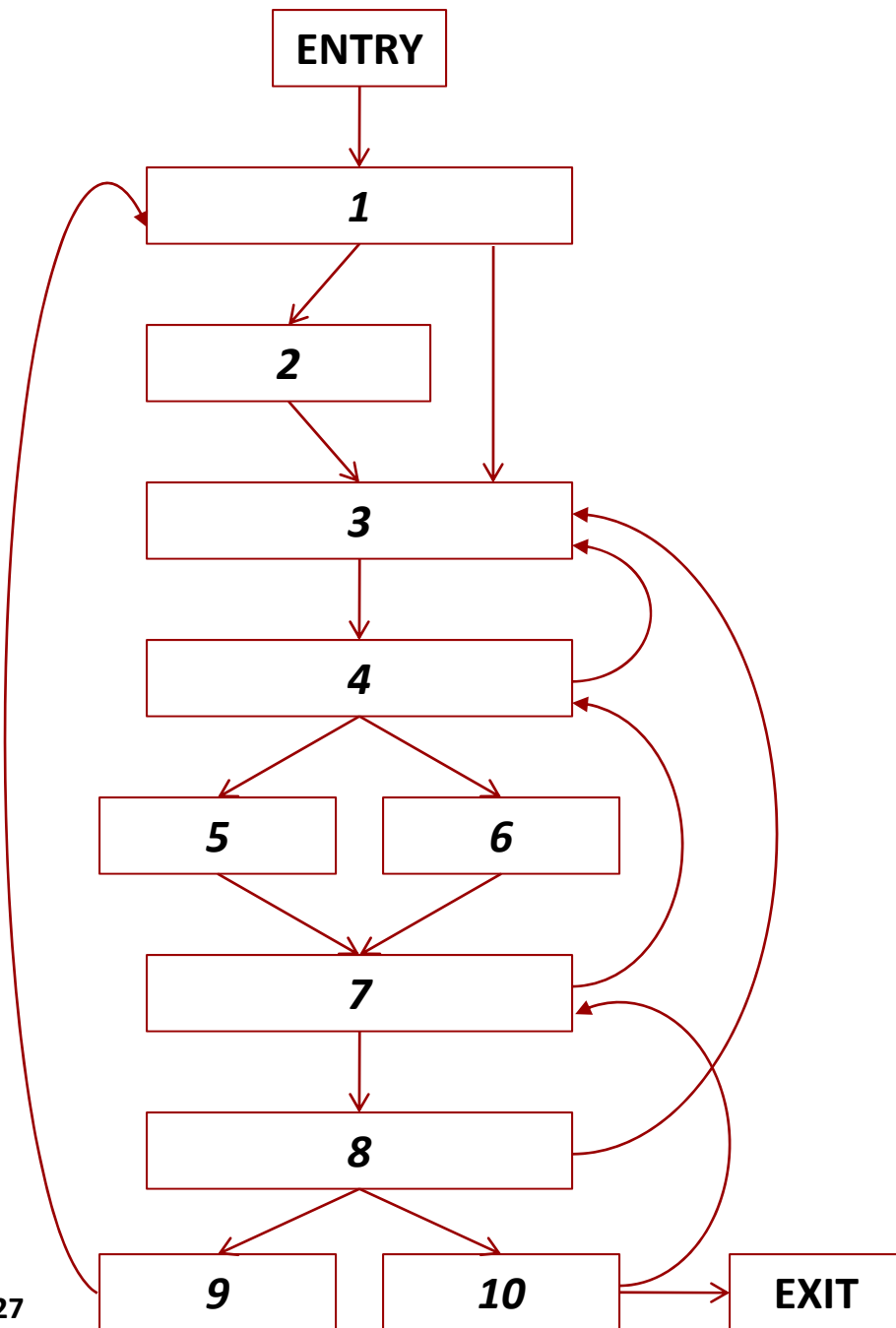
- Source: Cytron et al., ACM TOPLAS, Oct. 1991
 - Section 1 (ignore Section 1.1)
 - Section 2
 - Section 3 (ignore Section 3.1)
 - Section 4 (ignore the detailed proofs in Section 4.3)
- The key issues
 - Insert ϕ -functions at join points (Sections 3 and 4)
 - Rename the variables so that **each use (read)** of a variable is reached by **exactly one definition (write)** of that variable – i.e., by a **single assignment**
 - Section 5.2 discusses this issue, but we will not
- Alternative for dom. frontiers: Cooper et al. 2001

Part 5: Control Dependence: Informally

- A node n is control dependent on a node c if
 - There exists an edge e_1 coming out of c that definitely causes n to execute
 - There exists some edge e_2 coming out of c that is the start of some path that avoids the execution of n
- The decision made at c affects whether n gets executed: if e_1 is followed, n definitely is executed; if e_2 is followed, there is the possibility that n is not executed at all
 - Thus, n is **control dependent** on c – the control-flow leading to n depends on what c does

Control Dependence: Formally

- (part 1) n is control dependent on c if
 - $n \neq c$
 - n does **not** post-dominate c
 - there exists a path from c to n such that n post-dominates every node on the path except c
- (part 2) n is control dependent on n if
 - there exists a path from n to n (with at least one edge) such that n post-dominates every node on the path
 - this implies that n has two outgoing edges
 - this case applies to the header of a loop
- See Cytron et al., 1991, Section 6 for more details
 - c belongs to $DF(n)$ but computed on the **reverse** CFG



Consider all branch nodes c : 1, 4, 7, 8, 10

ENTRY does not post-dominate any other n

1 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 9

2 does not post-dominate any other n

3 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 2, 3, 9

4 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 2, 3, 4, 9

5 does not post-dominate any other n

6 does not post-dominate any other n

7 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9

8 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9

9 does not post-dominate any other n

10 $pdom$ ENTRY, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

EXIT $pdom$ n for any n

2 is control dependent on 1

3, 4, 5, 6 are control dependent on 4

4, 7 are control dependent on 7

9, 1, 3, 4, 7, 8 are control dependent on 8

7, 8, 10 are control dependent on 10

Finding All Control Dependences

- Consider all CFG edges (c, x) such that x does **not** post-dominate c (therefore, c is a branch node)
- Traverse the post-dominator tree bottom-up
 - $n = x$
 - while ($n \neq \text{parent of } c$ in the post-dominator tree)
 - report that n is control dependent on c
 - $n = \text{parent of } n$ in the post-dominator tree
 - Example: for CFG edge (8,9) from the previous slide, traverse and report 9, 1, 3, 4, 7, 8 (stop before 10)
- Other algorithms exist, but this one is simple and works quite well [Cooper et al., 2001]