

Lecture 18: Alias analysis

Unification

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Type Systems and Static Analysis

Based on slides by Jeff Foster



Introduction

- *Aliasing* occurs when different names refer to the same thing
 - ▶ Typically, we only care for imperative programs
 - ▶ The usual culprit: pointers
- A core building block for other analyses
 - ▶ For example in `*p = 3;` what does `p` point to?
- Useful for many languages
 - ▶ C – lots of pointers all over the place
 - ▶ Java – “objects” point to updatable memory
 - ▶ ML – ML has updatable references



Alias analysis

- *Alias analysis* answers the question
Do pointers **p** and **q** alias the same address?
- Unfortunately, undecidable
 - ▶ Remember Rice's theorem: *No program can precisely decide anything interesting about arbitrary source code*
- Usual solution: allow imprecision
 - ▶ Decision problem: yes/no – undecidable
 - ▶ Approximation: yes/no/maybe – decidable



May alias analysis

- p and q *may alias* if it is possible that p and q might point to the same address
- Negative answer is precise
 - ▶ “yes” – imprecise, means p and q might alias
 - ▶ “no” – precise, means p and q never alias
- If p may *not* alias q , then a write through p does not affect memory pointed to by q
 - ▶ $*p = 3$; $x = *q$; means write through p does not affect x
- What is the most conservative may-alias analysis?



Must alias analysis

- p and q *must alias* if they do point to the same address
- Positive answer is precise
 - ▶ “yes” – precise, means p and q definitely alias
 - ▶ “no” – imprecise, means p and q might not alias
- If p must alias q , then a write through p always affects memory pointed to by q
 - ▶ $*p = 3$; $x = *q$; means x is 3
- What is the most conservative must-alias analysis?



Early alias analysis

- By Landi and Ryder
- Expressed as computing alias pairs
 - ▶ E.g., $(*p, *q)$ means p and q may point to the same memory
- Issues?
 - ▶ There could be many alias pairs
 - ★ $(*p, *q), (p \rightarrow a, q \rightarrow a), (p \rightarrow b, q \rightarrow b), \dots$
 - ▶ What about cyclic data structures?
 - ★ $(*p, p \rightarrow \text{next}), (*p, p \rightarrow \text{next} \rightarrow \text{next}), \dots$



Points-to analysis

- Determine the set of locations that `p` may point to
 - ▶ E.g., `(p, {&x})` means `p` may point to the location of `x`
 - ▶ To decide if `p` and `q` alias, see if their points-to sets overlap
- More compact representation
 - ▶ The same aliasing information takes less memory
 - ▶ Analysis scales better
- We must name all locations in the program
 - ▶ Pick a finite set of location names
 - ★ No problem with cyclic data structures
 - ▶ `x = malloc(...);` – where does `x` point to?
 - ★ `(x, {malloc@42})` – “the `malloc()` at line 42”



Flow-sensitivity

- An analysis is *flow-sensitive* if it computes the answer *at every program point*
 - ▶ We saw that dataflow analysis is flow-sensitive
- An analysis is *flow-insensitive* if it does not depend on the order of statements
 - ▶ We saw that type systems are flow-insensitive
- Flow-sensitive alias/points-to analysis is much more precise
- ...but also much more expensive
- Flow-insensitive alias analysis is much faster



Example

- Assume the program

```
p = &x;  
p = &y;  
*p = &z;
```

- Flow-sensitive analysis – solution per program point

```
p = &x;           // (p, {&x})  
p = &y;           // (p, {&y})  
*p = &z;          // (p, {&y}), (y, {&z})
```

- Flow-insensitive analysis – one solution

```
(p, {&x, &y})  
(x, {&z})  
(y, {&z})
```



A simple calculus

T	$::=$	$T \rightarrow T \mid Nat \mid Bool \mid Unit \mid Ref\ T$	
e	$::=$	x	variables
		$ $ n	integers
		$ $ $true \mid false$	booleans
		$ $ $()$	unit
		$ $ $e; e$	sequence
		$ $ $\lambda x: T. e$	functions
		$ $ $e\ e$	application
		$ $ $let\ x = e\ in\ e$	binding
		$ $ $if\ e\ then\ e\ else\ e$	conditional
		$ $ $ref\ e$	allocation
		$ $ $!e$	dereference
		$ $ $e := e$	assignment



Type system

$$[\text{T-VAR}] \frac{x : T \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : T}$$

$$[\text{T-NAT}] \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash n : \text{Nat}}$$

$$[\text{T-TRUE}] \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \text{true} : \text{Bool}}$$

$$[\text{T-FALSE}] \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \text{false} : \text{Bool}}$$

$$[\text{T-UNIT}] \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash () : \text{Unit}}$$

$$[\text{T-SEQ}] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Unit} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1; e_2) : T}$$

$$[\text{T-LAM}] \frac{\Gamma, x : T \vdash e : T'}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T. e : T \rightarrow T'}$$

$$[\text{T-APP}] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : T \rightarrow T' \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1 \ e_2) : T'}$$



Type system (cont'd)

$$[\text{T-LET}] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : T_1 \quad \Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash e_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : T_2}$$

$$[\text{T-IF}] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{Bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_1 : T \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T}{\Gamma \vdash \text{if } e \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_2 : T}$$

$$[\text{T-REF}] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : T}{\Gamma \vdash \text{ref } e : \text{Ref } T} \quad [\text{T-DEREF}] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{Ref } T}{\Gamma \vdash !e : T}$$

$$[\text{T-ASSIGN}] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Ref } T \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 := e_2 : \text{Unit}}$$



Label flow analysis

- A way to compute points-to information
- We extend references with labels
 - ▶ $e ::= \dots \mid \text{ref}^r e \mid \dots$
 - ▶ A label r identifies this particular allocation instruction
 - ★ Like `malloc@42` identifies a point in the program
 - ★ Drawn from a finite set of labels
 - ▶ For now, the programmers add these labels
- Goal of points-to analysis: find the set of labels a pointer may refer to
 - ▶ For example:

```
let x = refRx 0 in
let y = x in
  y := 3  (* y may point to {Rx} *)
```



Type-based alias analysis

- We will build an alias analysis using the type system
 - ▶ Similar to OCaml's *type inference*
- We use *labeled types* in the analysis
 - ▶ Extend reference types with labels: $T ::= \dots \mid \text{Ref}^{\ell} T \mid \dots$
 - ▶ To find the location at a pointer dereference $!e$ or assignment $e := \dots$
 - ★ Find the type T of e (which must be a reference)
 - ★ We look at the reference type to decide which location might be accessed



Type system (with labels)

$$[\text{T-REF}] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : T}{\Gamma \vdash \text{ref}^r e : \text{Ref}^r T}$$

$$[\text{T-DEREF}] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{Ref}^r T}{\Gamma \vdash !e : T}$$

$$[\text{T-ASSIGN}] \frac{\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Ref}^r T \\ \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T \end{array}}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 := e_2 : \text{Unit}}$$



Example

- In the previous program

```
let x = refRx 0 in  
let y = x in  
  y := 3
```

- x has type $Ref^{R_x} Nat$
- y has the same type as x
- Therefore, at the assignment expression, we know which location y points to



Another example

- Consider the program

```
let x = refR 1 in
let y = refR 2 in
let w = refRw 0 in
let z = if true then x else y in
  z := 3
```

- Here, x and y both have type $Ref^R Nat$
 - They must have the same type because of the if
- At assignment, we write to location R
 - We do not know which location this is exactly, x or y
 - But we know it cannot affect w



And another example

- Another program

```
let x = refR 0 in  
let y = refRy x in  
let z = refR 2 in  
  y := z
```

- ▶ Both x and z have the same label
 - ★ They must have the same type because of the pointed type of y
- ▶ We do not know whether y points to x or z



Things to notice

- We have a finite set of labels
 - ▶ At most one label for each occurrence of a ref in the program
 - ▶ A label may represent more than one run-time locations
- Whenever two labels “meet” in the type system, they must be the same
 - ▶ Can you see where this happens in the type-rules?
- The system is flow-insensitive
 - ▶ Types don't change after assignment



Type inference

- In practice, the programmer does not write the labels
 - ▶ We need to infer them
- Given an unlabeled program that satisfies the standard type system, is there a labeling that satisfies the labeled type system?
 - ▶ That labeling is the analysis result



Checking vs. inference

- Type checking
 - ▶ The programmer annotates the program with types
 - ▶ Typing checks that the annotations are correct
 - ▶ It is “obvious” how to check
- Type inference
 - ▶ The programmer does not annotate the program
 - ▶ Typing tries to discover correct types
 - ▶ It is not “obvious”, requires more work to check
- Consider the type-system of C
 - ▶ C requires type annotations only at function types and local variable declarations
 - ★ $3 + 4$ does not need a type annotation
 - ▶ Trade-off: programmer annotations vs. computed types



A type inference algorithm

- A standard approach in type inference
 - ▶ Type the program by introducing *variables* at any point when an annotation is missing
 - ★ We will use *label variables* ρ here
 - ★ Now r may be either a constant R or a variable ρ
- Typing the unlabeled program does two things
 - ▶ Introduces label variables in all *Ref* types
 - ▶ Creates *constraints* among labels
- Solve the constraints to find a labeling
 - ▶ No solution means no valid labeling: type error
 - ▶ Alias analysis solution always exists: everything aliases



Step 1: Introduce labels

- Problem 1: What label to assign to the reference at $[T\text{-REF}]$?
- Solution: Introduce a fresh, unknown variable

$$[T\text{-REF}] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : T \quad \rho - \text{fresh}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{ref } e : \text{Ref}^\rho T}$$

- Why a variable and not a constant?



Step 1: Introduce labels (cont'd)

- Problem 2: What type to give to function arguments?
 - ▶ Type language T uses labeled reference types $Ref^p T$
 - ▶ But the programmer uses unlabeled types $Ref T$
- Solution:
 - ▶ Use two type languages
 - ★ Standard $S ::= S \rightarrow S \mid Nat \mid Bool \mid Unit \mid Ref S$
 - ★ Labeled $T ::= T \rightarrow T \mid Nat \mid Bool \mid Unit \mid Ref^p T$
 - ▶ Annotate type S with fresh labels to get a T
 - ★ We write this as $T = \text{fresh}(S)$

$$[\text{T-LAM}] \frac{\Gamma, x : T \vdash e : T' \quad T = \text{fresh}(S)}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x : S. e : T \rightarrow T'}$$



Step 2: Generate constraints

- Problem 3: Some rules implicitly require types to be equal
- Solution: Make this explicit using *equality constraints*
 - ▶ We write equality constraints as premises $T_1 = T_2$
 - ▶ Each such premise is not checked, instead produces a constraint
 - ▶ We solve all generated constraints together after typing
- Rule [T-IF] requires both branches to have the same type

$$\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e : Bool \\ \Gamma \vdash e_1 : T_1 \\ \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T_2 \\ T_1 = T_2 \\ \hline [T-IF] \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{if } e \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_2 : T_1 \end{array}$$



Step 2: Generate constraints (cont'd)

- Rule [T-ASSIGN] requires that the assigned value has the same type as the pointer

$$[T\text{-}ASSIGN] \frac{\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e_1 : Ref\ T_1 \\ \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T_2 \\ T_1 = T_2 \end{array}}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 := e_2 : Unit}$$

- We assume that e_1 always has a pointer type
 - ▶ That is always true
 - ▶ We assume the program typechecks with standard types



Step 2: Generate constraints (cont'd)

- Rule $[T\text{-APP}]$ requires the formal and actual arguments to have the same type

$$[T\text{-APP}] \frac{\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e_1 : T_1 \rightarrow T' \\ \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T_2 \\ T_1 = T_2 \end{array}}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1 \ e_2) : T'}$$

- Again, we assume e_1 has a function type
 - ▶ As before, this is always true
 - ▶ Because the program typechecks with standard types



Step 3: Solve the constraints

- After applying the type rules, we are left with a set of equality constraints
 - ▶ $T_1 = T_2$
- We solve these constraints using rewriting
- Each rewriting step simplifies a constraint into simpler constraints
- $C \Rightarrow C'$ rewrites the set C of all constraints to constraints C'



Step 3: Solve the constraints (cont'd)

- $C \cup \{Nat = Nat\} \Rightarrow C$
- $C \cup \{Bool = Bool\} \Rightarrow C$
- $C \cup \{Unit = Unit\} \Rightarrow C$
- $C \cup \{T_1 \rightarrow T_2 = T'_1 \rightarrow T'_2\} \Rightarrow C \cup \{T_1 = T'_1\} \cup \{T_2 = T'_2\}$
- $C \cup \{Ref^{\rho_1} T_1 = Ref^{\rho_2} T_2\} \Rightarrow C \cup \{T_1 = T_2\} \cup \{\rho_1 = \rho_2\}$
- $C \cup \{\text{mismatched constructors}\} \Rightarrow \text{error}$
 - ▶ Cannot happen if we start with a program that typechecks with standard types
- This algorithm always terminates
- When no further reduction applies, we have only label equalities



Last step: Use solution to add constants

- Compute the sets of labels that are equal
 - ▶ Using union-find
- Create a constant label R for each equivalence class of label variables
- Two pointers alias if their types refer to the same constant label



Example

Program

```
let x = ref 1 in
let y = ref 2 in
let z = ref 3 in
let w = if true then x else y in
  w := 42
```

Variable types:

```
x :  $Ref^a Nat$ 
y :  $Ref^b Nat$ 
z :  $Ref^c Nat$ 
w :  $Ref^a Nat$ 
```

- Typing annotates each `ref` expression with a variable a, b, c
- Typing the if creates equality constraint $Ref^a Nat = Ref^b Nat$
- Solving the constraint gives $a = b$
- Two equivalence classes: $\{a, b\}$ and $\{c\}$
 - ▶ Create two constants R_1 and R_2 for the equivalence classes



Example (cont'd)

Annotated program

```
let x = refR1 1 in
let y = refR1 2 in
let z = refR2 3 in
let w = if true then x else y in
  w := 42
```

Variable types:

```
x : RefR1 Nat
y : RefR1 Nat
z : RefR2 Nat
w : RefR1 Nat
```

- The assignment writes to one of the locations labeled by R_1
- Result: x , y and w may alias either of the first two allocated locations, but z cannot
 - ▶ May alias: their types have the same location label



Steensgaard's Analysis

- Flow-insensitive
- Inter-procedural
 - ▶ Can analyze multiple functions together
- Context-insensitive
 - ▶ Does not discriminate between different calls to the same function
- Unification-based
 - ▶ Analysis named after Bjarne Steensgaard (1996)
 - ▶ In practice: implementation for C handles type casts, etc.
- Properties
 - ▶ Very scalable
 - ★ What is its complexity?
 - ▶ Imprecise

