# PDGs and Slicing

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#### References

- Our primary reference: "The Semantics of Program Slicing". Thomas Reps and Wuu Yang. Technical Report, 1988. (Available on course web page.
- More detailed references:
  - PDGs, their construction, and their applications: "The program dependence graph and its use in optimization". J. Ferrante, K. J. Ottenstein, and J. D. Warren. 1987.
  - Semantics of PDGs: "On the adequacy of program dependence graphs for representing programs". S. Horwitz, J. Prins, and T. Reps. 1988.
  - Survey articles on different techniques for program slicing, and applications: (1) "A survey of program slicing techniques". F. Tip. 1995. (2) "A brief survey of program slicing". B. Xu, J. Qian, X. Zhang, Z. Wu, and L. Chen. 2005.

#### The language under consideration

#### Language features that we consider

- Scalar variables only.
  - No pointers, arrays, structures, and dynamic memory allocation.
- Assignments; sequences of statements; "while" loops; "if then else" statements.
  - No gotos, breaks, continues, and "return" statements. No exceptions (except terminating exceptions).
- We ignore procedure calls
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# Program Dependence Graph (PDG)

- A program representation.
- Originally proposed by Ottenstein and Ottenstein in 1984. Fully described in their 1987 paper by Ferrante, Ottenstein, and Warren.
- Originally proposed applications
  - Slicing. [O and O, 1984]
  - Compiler optimizations, such as detection of parallelism, code motion, loop fusion, branch deletion, loop peeling and unrolling. [F, O, and W, 1987]

#### Initial step: pre-process the CFG

First, add the following nodes to the CFG:

- An initial definition vertex "x := InitialState(x)", for each variable x that is used in the program before being defined.
  - Insert all these vertices sequentially right after the entry point
  - These vertices are to be treated as assignment statements
  - These variables can be thought of as parameters to the program
- A final use vertex "FinalUse(x)" for each variable x whose final value is of interest to the user.
  - Insert these vertices sequentially just before the exit of the CFG
  - Each such vertex is to be treated as an assignment statement that reads the mentioned variable and writes to a dummy variable.

## Nodes and edges in a PDG

- Nodes in a PDG are nothing but nodes in CFG: assignments and conditionals. Plus one extra node: an entry node.
- Edges are of two kinds: control dependence and data dependence.
  - Data dependence edges, in turn, are of two kinds: flow dependences, and def-order dependences.

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- Nodes in a PDG are nothing but nodes in CFG: assignments and conditionals. Plus one extra node: an entry node.
- Edges are of two kinds: control dependence and data dependence.
  - Data dependence edges, in turn, are of two kinds: flow dependences, and def-order dependences.

(This part of the lecture is based on Section 2.1 in our primary reference.)

## Control dependence edges

- We have a control-dependence edge  $v_1 \rightarrow_c v_2$  if
  - $v_1$  is a conditional node.
  - $v_2$  is encountered in all paths from one of the edges out of  $v_1$  to the program exit, but not in all paths from the other edge out of  $v_1$ .
    - Paths are wrt the CFG.

The edge is labeled *true* or *false*, depending on the edge out of  $v_1$  along which  $v_2$  is guaranteed to be encountered. Also, we say that  $v_2$  is control-dependent on  $v_1$ .

 There is also a control-dependence edge (labeled true) from the entry vertex to every vertex that is present in all paths from the entry of the program to the exit of the program.

# Properties of control dependence edges

Under our simplified assumptions about the language, control dependences edgessimply reflect the nesting structure.

- All nodes that are top-level assignments or conditionals within a 'while' loop are true control dependent on this loop conditional
- Every 'while' loop conditional is true control dependent on itself
- Every top-level assignment or conditional within the 'then' branch of an 'if' conditional is true control dependent on this conditional
- Every top-level assignment or conditional within the 'else' branch of an 'if' conditional is false control dependent on this conditional

#### Flow dependences

A program dependence graph contains a flow dependence edge from vertex  $v_1$  to vertex  $v_2$  iff all of the following hold:

- i)  $v_1$  is a vertex that defines variable x.
- ii)  $v_2$  is a vertex that uses x.
- iii) Control can reach  $v_2$  after  $v_1$  via an execution path along which there is no intervening definition of x. That is, there is a path in the standard control-flow graph for the program [1] by which the definition of x at  $v_1$  reaches the use of x at  $v_2$ . (Initial definitions of variables are considered to occur at the beginning of the control-flow graph, and final uses of variables are considered to occur at its end.)

A flow dependence that exists from vertex  $v_1$  to vertex  $v_2$  will be denoted by  $v_1 \longrightarrow_f v_2$ .

(This text, as well as several others that follow, copied from primary reference.)

#### Two types of flow dependence edges

Flow dependences are further classified as *loop independent* or *loop carried*. A flow dependence  $v_1 \longrightarrow_{f} v_2$  is carried by loop L, denoted by  $v_1 \longrightarrow_{lc(L)} v_2$ , if in addition to i), ii), and iii) above, the following also hold:

- There is an execution path that both satisfies the conditions of iii) above and includes a backedge to the predicate of loop L; and
- v) Both  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are enclosed in loop L.

A flow dependence  $v_1 \longrightarrow_f v_2$  is loop independent, denoted by  $v_1 \longrightarrow_{li} v_2$ , if in addition to i), ii), and iii) above, there is an execution path that satisfies iii) above and includes *no* backedge to the predicate of a loop that encloses both  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ . It is possible to have both  $v_1 \longrightarrow_{lc(L)} v_2$  and  $v_1 \longrightarrow_{li} v_2$ .

## Need for making the distinction

#### Consider two different fragments:

```
v_1: while (..) {

v_2: sum = sum + x;

v_4: if (..)

v_3: x = x + 1;

}
```

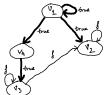
```
 \begin{array}{ll} v_1 \colon \mbox{ while (..) } \{ \\ v_4 \colon \mbox{ if (..)} \\ v_3 \colon \mbox{ } x = x+1; \\ v_2 \colon \mbox{ sum } = \mbox{sum} + x; \\ \} \end{array}
```

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```

• If there was no distinction, both fragments would yield the PDG:



- Two non-equivalent programs yield same PDG, which is bad!
- With distinction, first fragment yields  $v_3 \rightarrow_{lc(L)} v_2$ , where L is the loop in the fragment, while second fragment yields  $v_3 \rightarrow_{li} v_2$  and

#### Def-order dependences

A program dependence graph contains a def-order dependence edge from vertex  $v_1$  to vertex  $v_2$  iff all of the following hold:

- i)  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  both define the same variable.
- ii)  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are in the same branch of any conditional statement that encloses both of them.
- iii) There exists a program component  $v_3$  such that  $v_1 \rightarrow_f v_3$  and  $v_2 \rightarrow_f v_3$ .
- iv)  $v_1$  occurs to the left of  $v_2$  in the program's abstract syntax tree.

A def-order dependence from  $v_1$  to  $v_2$  is denoted by  $v_1 \longrightarrow_{do(v_3)} v_2$ .

 $v_3$  is said to be the "witness" of the def-order edge.

#### Need for def-order dependences

#### Consider two different fragments:

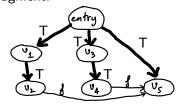
```
\begin{array}{lll} v_1 \colon \text{if (p)} & v_2 \colon \text{if (q)} \\ v_2 \colon & x = 1; & v_4 \colon & x = 2; \\ v_3 \colon \text{if (q)} & v_1 \colon \text{if (p)} \\ v_4 \colon & x = 2; & v_2 \colon & x = 1; \\ v_5 \colon & y = x + 3; & v_5 \colon & y = x + 3; \end{array}
```

#### Need for def-order dependences

#### Consider two different fragments:

```
v_1: if (p) v_2: x = 1; v_4: x = 2; v_3: if (q) v_4: x = 2; v_5: if (q) v_4: v_5: v_7: if (p) v_8: v
```

 If there were no def-order edges, both fragments would yield the PDG fragment:



- Two non-equivalent programs yield same PDG, which is bad!
- Otherwise, we get the edge  $v_2 \rightarrow_{do(v_5)} v_4$  with the first fragment and  $v_4 \rightarrow_{do(v_5)} v_2$  with the second fragment.

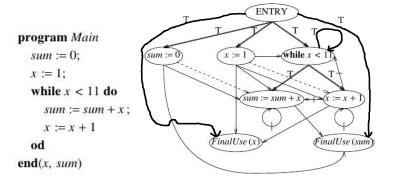
#### A PDG is a multi-graph

- From a node  $v_i$  to a node  $v_j$ , there could be multiple loop-carried edges, each one carried by a different loop.
- From a node  $v_i$  to a node  $v_j$ , there could be multiple def-order edges, each one having a different witness.

## Example PDG

```
program Main
    sum := 0;
    x := 1;
    while x < 11 do
        sum := sum + x;
        x := x + 1
    od
end(x, sum)</pre>
```

## Example PDG



 Bold arrows represent control dependence edges, dashed arrows represent def-order dependence edges, solid arrows represent loop-independent flow dependence edges, and solid arrows with a hash mark represent loop-carried flow dependence edges.

#### Definition: sequence of values at a node

Consider a run of a program P on an initial state such that the program halts.

- At any point of time in the run, if execution is at a node v, the value at v at that time point is defined to be
  - the value assigned to the lhs if v is an assignment statement
  - the boolean result if v is a condition node
  - the value in variable x if v is "FinalUse(x)"
- the sequence of values computed by P at a node v is the (finite) sequence of values at v across the entire run.

## Adequacy of PDGs

- PDGs are an abstract program representation. That is, in general they contain less information than a program's text or its CFG.
- However, they are adequate to represent the semantics of a program.
  - That is, two programs with isomorphic PDGs are equivalent.

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## Definition of PDG isomorphism

PDGs  $G_P$  and  $G_Q$  of programs P and Q are said to be isomorphic (i.e.,  $G_P \approx G_Q$ ) iff there exists a bijective function from  $V(G_P)$  to  $V(G_Q)$  such that:

- Each pair of mapped nodes have internal expressions of the same structure. That is, corresponding operators and constants must match. (Corresponding variable names need not be the same.)
- An edge  $v_1 \rightarrow v_2$  exists in  $G_P$  iff an edge exists from  $v_1'$  to  $v_2'$  in  $G_Q$ , such that:
  - Both edges are of the same kind (control/flow/def-order).
  - The edge labels (i.e., *true/false/li/lc*) match.
  - If the two edges are *lc*, then the carrying loop's headers are mapped under the bijection.
  - If the two edges are def-order, then the witnesses are mapped under the bijection.
  - If the two edges are flow dependence edges, they flow into corresponding operand positions of  $v_2/v_2'$ .

where  $v'_1$  is the vertex that  $v_1$  is mapped to and  $v'_2$  is the vertex that  $v_2$  is mapped to under the bijection.

# Matching inputs

- Consider two programs P and Q such that  $G_P \approx G_Q$ , under a given bijection between the two PDGs
- An initial state  $\sigma$  of program P is said to agree with an initial state  $\sigma'$  of Q, if for every 'x = InitialState(x)' in  $G_P$  and 'y = InitialState(y)' in  $G_Q$  such that these two nodes are mapped under the bijection,  $\sigma(x) = \sigma'(y)$ .

#### Adequacy of PDGs – formal statement

#### Theorem in Section 4.2.2:

Suppose that P and Q are programs for which  $G_P \approx G_Q$  (i.e.,  $G_P$  and  $G_Q$  are isomorphic). If  $\sigma$  is a initial state on which P halts, then for any state  $\sigma'$  that agrees with  $\sigma$ : (1) Q halts on  $\sigma'$ , (2) P and Q compute the same sequences of values at corresponding nodes, and (3) the final states agree on all variables for which there are final-use vertices in  $G_P$ .

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#### Notes:

- It is possible for two non-identical programs P and Q (i.e., with non-isomorphic CFGs) to have isomorphic PDGs.
- In this case, consider runs of P and Q on agreeing initial states  $\sigma$  and  $\sigma'$ . Also, consider two corresponding instances of any node v in these two runs:
  - The values at v in these two instances are guaranteed to be equal.
  - However, the entire memory states at these two instances may not match.

## Illustration of PDG isomorphism and program equivalence

```
\begin{split} c &= \mathsf{InitialState}(c); \\ i &= 0; \\ j &= 0; \\ \mathsf{while} \ (i < 100) \ \{ \\ i &= i + 2; \\ j &= j - 2; \\ c &= c + i + j; \\ \} \\ \mathsf{finalUse}(c); \end{split}
```

```
\begin{split} d &= \mathsf{InitialState}(\mathsf{d}); \\ a &= 0; \\ b &= 0; \\ \mathsf{while} \; (b < 100) \; \{ \\ a &= a - 2; \\ b &= b + 2; \\ d &= d + b + a; \\ \} \\ \mathsf{finalUse}(\mathsf{d}); \end{split}
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#### Illustration of PDG isomorphism and program equivalence

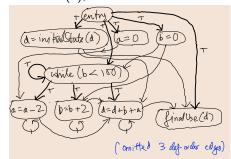
```
c = InitialState(c);
i = 0;
j = 0;
while (i < 100) {
i = i + 2;
j = j - 2;
c = c + i + j;
}
finalUse(c);
```

```
(c=in/tal/state(c)) (1=0) (5=0)

(i=i+2) (j=j-2) (c=c+i+j) (final/se(c))

(omitted 3 deg-order cdgs)
```

```
\begin{split} & d = InitialState(d); \\ & a = 0; \\ & b = 0; \\ & while \left(b < 100\right) \left\{ \\ & a = a - 2; \\ & b = b + 2; \\ & d = d + b + a; \\ & \right\} \\ & finalUse(d); \end{split}
```



#### What is a slice?

There are many different definitions of a slice in the literature. What follows in one commonly used definition. (This definition is not available in the paper.)

Let P be a program, and S be a *criterion*, namely, a subset of statements and conditions in the program. A program Q is said to be a (correct) slice of P wrt to S if

- Q consists of some subset of the nodes in P.
- Q includes all nodes in S.
- The initial definition nodes in Q are a subset of the initial definition nodes in P, and every variable that is used before being defined in Q has an initial definition node in Q.
- For any state  $\sigma$  on which P halts, and for any state  $\sigma'$  that agrees with  $\sigma$  on all variables for which there are initial-definition vertices in Q: (1) Q halts on  $\sigma'$ , and (2) For each node v in Q, P computes the same sequence of values at its copy of v as Q does at v.

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# Approach described in our primary reference to compute a slice

(This part of lecture derived from Section 2.2.)

- For a vertex s of a PDG G, the operation "/", discussed below, produces a PDG G/s which is a slice of G wrt s. G/s contains all vertices in G on which s has a transitive flow or control dependence (i.e. all vertices that can reach s via flow or control edges). That is,  $V(G/s) = \{w \mid w \in V(G), w \to_{c,f}^* s\}.$ 
  - (Here, by flow edges, we mean both kinds of flow edges.)
- The approach is extended to the setting where the criterion is a set of vertices S as follows:

$$V(G/S) = \bigcup_{s \in S} V(G/s)$$

• For any  $v \notin G$ , V(G/v) is defined as  $\emptyset$ .

#### Approach - contd.

The edges in the graph G/S are essentially those in the subgraph of G induced by V(G/S), with the exception that a def-order edge  $v \to_{do(u)} w$  is only included if, in addition to v and w, V(G/S) also contains the vertex u.

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## Feasibility of a slice

(This part of the lecture is based on Section 3.) LEMMA (FEASIBILITY): For any program P and subset S of nodes in  $G_P$ ,  $G_Q \equiv (G_P/S)$  is a feasible PDG. That is, there exists a program Q whose PDG is isomorphic to  $G_Q$ .

## Informal Proof of Feasibility Lemma

- The proof is by showing a technique to construct a sliced program Q by projecting out nodes from P, as follows. Initially, set Q be equal to P itself. Then, from Q remove
  - ullet each assignment statement whose node is not present in  $G_P/S$
  - each "if" or "while" block whose condition node is not present in  $G_P/S$ 
    - It is guaranteed that no node inside the block will be included in  $G_P/S$ .
- It can be shown that the PDG of the program Q produced above is isomorphic to  $G_P/S$ . (See proof in Section 3.)

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- It can be shown that the PDG of the program Q produced above is isomorphic to  $G_P/S$ . (See proof in Section 3.)
- A note about the construction above: Informally speaking, the relative ordering of statements in Q is guaranteed to be the same as that in P. Therefore, the approach works even if we exclude all def-order edges from  $G_P$  (and hence, from  $G_Q$ ).

#### Another way to construct a sliced program

- Say we have  $G_P$  and  $G_P/S$ , but don't have access to (the CFG of) P.
- In this setting, we would need to include def-order edges in  $G_P$  and in  $G_P/S$ .
- A naive approach to construct Q:
  - Enumerate by brute-force programs that have the same nesting structure (i.e., the same control-dependence subgraph of the PDG) as P, until a program is found whose PDG is isomorphic to  $G_P/S$ .

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#### Correctness

• Theorem 1: Any program whose PDG is isomorphic to  $G_Q \equiv (G_P/S)$  is a correct slice of P wrt S. (Proof in Section 4.)

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- Theorem 1: Any program whose PDG is isomorphic to  $G_Q \equiv (G_P/S)$  is a correct slice of P wrt S. (Proof in Section 4.)
- G<sub>Q</sub> in fact satisfies a stronger property, as follows (this property is not mentioned in the paper). Say we construct a program Q' by transforming certain nodes in P as follows:
  - Replace each assignment statement  $v \equiv "x = expr"$  in P that is not in  $G_Q$  with "x = \*", where "\*" is a non-deterministically chosen value.
  - Replace each condition node p in P that is not in  $G_Q$  with "\*", where "\*" is a non-deterministically chosen boolean value.

Then, Q' generates the same sequence of values as P does at all nodes that were *not* transformed as mentioned above, when P and Q' are run on agreeing initial states  $\sigma$  and  $\sigma'$  such that both runs terminate normally. (Note: Q' is a transformed version of P. Q' is not a slice of P wrt S.)

## Notes about the strong property

- Let Q be a correct slice of P wrt S such that Q's PDG is not isomorphic to  $G_P/S$  (i.e., Q was not constructed by the PDG-based approach presented above).
- If we produce Q' by transforming nodes in P (as discussed in the previous slide) that are not in Q, then such a Q' may not satisfy the strong property.
- In other words, the strong property is not satisfied by arbitrary slices.
   It is satisfied only by slices produced by the PDG-based approach presented above.

# An application of the strong property in the context of debugging

- Say during a run of a program P (using a test input) we are getting an unexpected value at some instance of some node v (e.g., a printf node).
- As per the strong property, the bug *cannot* be fixed by modifying any node of P that is not in  $G_P/v$ . This is because Q' (constructed as mentioned earlier, using  $G_P/v$ ) gives the same unexpected value for the same test input as does P.

# Other applications of PDGs/slicing

- Classifying changes to a program (between two versions of the program) as textual changes vs. semantic changes.
- Merging two different variants of a base version of a program.
- Identifying duplicated code fragments.
- Program testing
  - Selecting a subset of test cases (from a test suite) that still give high coverage.
  - Selecting a subset of test cases (from a test suite) to cover recently modified statements.
- To reduce the size of a program in order to analyze it more efficiently (when a criterion is known).

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## Other techniques to compute slices

- [Weiser 1981] is the original technique. It is more expensive, and no more precise than the PDG-based technique.
- There are many subsequent techniques that are more precise than the PDG-based technique.
  - They usually compute a "path sensitive" slice.
- There can be no technique that always computes the most-precise slice.

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#### Other kinds of slices

The kind of slice that we discussed so far was a static, syntactic, backward slice.

Other kinds of slices:

- A dynamic (as opposed to *static*) slice of P wrt S is a slice that is correct only wrt to a given initial state  $\sigma$ .
  - Useful during debugging, and during dynamic analysis (i.e., analysis of a program restricting attention to a specific run).
- A semantic (as opposed to syntactic) slice is a program Q that is not necessarily a projection of the given program P. It could be a arbitrarily transformed version of P. The guarantees are that (1) the nodes in S are present in Q, and (2) the same sequence of values is computed at the nodes in S by P and by Q starting from initial states  $\sigma$  and  $\sigma'$  that agree on variables that have initial-definitions in P.
- A forward (as opposed to backward) slice includes nodes in P that depend on S, and not vice versa. The semantic properties of forward slices are different from those of backward slices.