Formal Languages and Compilers Lecture XI—Principles of Code Optimization

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Formal Languages and Compilers - BSc course

2017/18 - First Semester

Summary of Lecture XI

• Code Optimization

- Basic Blocks and Flow Graphs
- Sources of Optimization
 - Common Subexpression Elimination
 - Copy Propagation
 - Oead-Code Elimination
 - Constant Folding
 - Loop Optimization

- Intermediate Code undergoes various transformations—called Optimizations—to make the resulting code running faster and taking less space.
- Optimization *never* guarantees that the resulting code is the best possible.
- We will consider only *Machine-Independent Optimizations*—i.e., they don't take into consideration any property of the target machine.
- The techniques used are a combination of *Control-Flow* and *Data-Flow* analysis.
 - *Control-Flow Analysis.* Identifies loops in the flow graph of a program since such loops are usually good candidates for improvement.
 - *Data-Flow Analysis.* Collects information about the way variables are used in a program.

Criteria for Code-Improving Transformations

- The best transformations are those that yield the most benefit for the least effort.
 - A transformation must preserve the meaning of a program. It's better to miss an opportunity to apply a transformation rather than risk changing what the program does.
 - A transformation must, on the average, speed up a program by a measurable amount.
 - Avoid code-optimization for programs that run occasionally or during debugging.
 - Remember! Dramatic improvements are usually obtained by improving the source code: The programmer is always responsible in finding the best possible data structures and algorithms for solving a problem.

Quicksort: An Example Program

• We will use the sorting program *Quicksort* to illustrate the effects of the various optimization techniques.

```
void quicksort(m,n)
int m,n;
ł
    int i,j,v,x;
    if (n <= m) return;</pre>
    i = m-1; j = n; v = a[n]; /* fragment begins here */
    while (1) {
          do i = i+1; while (a[i] < v);
          do j = j-1; while (a[j]>v);
          if (i>=j) break;
          x = a[i]; a[i] = a[j]; a[j] = x;
    }
    x = a[i]; a[i] = a[n]; a[n] = x; /* fragment ends here */
    quicksort(m,j); quicksort(i+1,n);
}
```

Quicksort: An Example Program (Cont.)

• The following is the three-address code for a fragment of Quicksort.

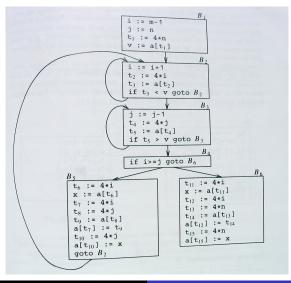
(1)	i	:=	m-1		(16)	t7	:=	4*i
(2)	j	:=	n		(17)	t_8	:=	4*j
(3)	t ₁	: =	4 *n		(18)	t9	:=	$a[t_8]$
(4)	v	:=	$a[t_1]$		(19)	$a[t_7]$:=	t9
(5)	i	:=	i+1		(20)	t ₁₀	:=	4*j
(6)	t_2	:=	4*i		(21)	$a[t_{10}]$:=	х
(7)	t ₃	:=	$a[t_2]$		(22)	go	to	(5)
(8)	if	t_3	< v goto	(5)	(23)	t11	:=	4*i
(9)	j	:=	j-1		(24)	х	:=	$a[t_{11}]$
(10)	t_4	:=	4*j		(25)	t ₁₂	:=	4*i
(11)	t ₅	:=	$a[t_4]$		(26)	t ₁₃	:=	4*n
(12)	if	t_5	> v goto	(9)	(27)	t14	:=	$a[t_{13}]$
(13)	if	i	>= j goto	(23)	(28)	$a[t_{12}]$:=	t ₁₄
(14)	t ₆	:=	4*i		(29)	t ₁₅	:=	4*n
(15)	x	:=	$a[t_6]$		(30)	$a[t_{15}]$:=	х

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- The Machine-Independent Code-Optimization phase consists of *control-flow* and *data-flow* analysis followed by the application of transformations.
- During control-flow analysis, a program is represented as a *Flow Graph* where:
 - Nodes represent Basic Blocks: Sequence of consecutive statements in which flow-of-control enters at the beginning and leaves at the end without halt or branches;
 - Edges represent the flow of control.

Flow Graph: An Example

• Flow graph for the three-address code fragment for quicksort. Each *B_i* is a basic block.



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The Principal Sources of Optimization

- After the *control-flow* analysis we can individuate the basic transformations as the result of *data-flow* analysis.
- We distinguish *local* transformations—involving only statements in a single basic block—from *global* transformations.
- A basic block computes a set of expressions: A number of transformations can be applied to a basic block without changing the expressions computed by the block.
 - Common Subexpressions elimination;
 - Opy Propagation;
 - Oead-Code elimination;
 - Constant Folding.

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Common Subexpressions Elimination

- Frequently a program will include calculations of the same value.
- **Definition.** An occurrence of an expression *E* is called a Common Subexpression if *E* was previously computed, and the values of variables in *E* did not change since the previous computation.
- **Common Subexpression Elimination:** Assignments to temporary variables involving common subexpressions can be eliminated.
- **Example.** Assignments to both t_7 and t_{10} in block B_5 have common subexpressions and can be eliminated. B_5 is transformed as:

$$t_{6} := 4 * i$$

$$x := a[t_{6}]$$

$$t_{8} := 4 * j$$

$$t_{9} := a[t_{8}]$$

$$a[t_{6}] := t_{9}$$

$$a[t_{8}] := x$$

goto B_{2}

Common Subexpressions Elimination (Cont.)

- **Example (Cont.)** After local elimination, *B*₅ still evaluates 4 * *i* and 4 * *j* which are *global* common subexpressions.
- 4 * j is evaluated in B_3 by t_4 . Then, the statements

 $t_8 := 4 * j; t_9 := a[t_8]; a[t_8] := x$

can be replaced by

 $t_9 := a[t_4]; a[t_4] := x$

• Now, *a*[*t*₄] is also a common subexpression, computed in *B*₃ by *t*₅. Then, the statements

```
t_9 := a[t_4]; a[t_6] := t_9
```

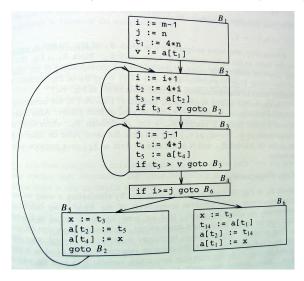
can be replaced by

 $a[t_6] := t_5.$

• Analogously, t_6 can be eliminated and replaced by t_2 ; while the value of $a[t_2]$ is the same as the value assigned to t_3 in block B_2 .

Common Subexpressions Elimination (Cont.)

• **Example.** The following flow graph shows the result of eliminating both local and global common subexpressions from basic blocks B_5 and B_6 .

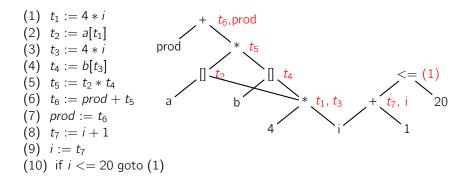


DAGs for Determining Common Subexpressions

- To individuate common subexpressions we represent a basic block as a DAG showing how expressions are re-used in a block.
- A DAG for a Basic Block has the following labels and nodes:
 - Leaves contain unique identifiers, either variable names or constants.
 - Interior nodes contain an operator symbol.
 - Nodes can optionally be associated to a list of variables representing those variables having the value computed at the node.

DAGs for Blocks: An Example

• The following shows both a three-address code of a basic block and its associated DAG.



• When a node contains more temporary variables we can eliminate all but one.

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- **Copy Propagation Rule**: Given the *copy statement*, **x** := **y**, use **y** for **x** whenever possible after the copy statement.
- Copy Propagation applied to Block B₅ yields:

 $x := t_3$ $a[t_2] := t_5$ $a[t_4] := t_3$ goto B_2

 This transformation together with Dead-Code Elimination (see next slide) will give us the opportunity to eliminate the assignment x := t₃ altogether.

- Intuition: A variable is *live* at a point in a program if its value can be used subsequently, otherwise it is *dead*.
- **Dead Code.** A piece of code is *dead* if data computed is never used elsewhere and can be eliminated.
- Dead-Code may appear as the result of previous transformation. Dead-Code works well together with Copy Propagation.
- **Example.** Considering the Block B_5 after Copy Propagation we can see that **x** is never reused all over the code. Thus, **x** is a dead variable and we can eliminate the assignment $\mathbf{x} := \mathbf{t}_3$ from B_5 .

- Intuition: Based on deducing at compile-time that the value of an expression (and in particular of a variable) is a constant.
- **Constant Folding** is the transformation that substitutes an expression with a constant.
- Constant Folding is useful to discover Dead-Code.
- **Example.** Consider the conditional statement: if (x) goto L. If, by Constant Folding, we discover that x is always false we can eliminate both the if-test and the jump to L.

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- The running time of a program can be improved if we decrease the amount of instructions in an inner loop.
- Three techniques are useful:
 - Code Motion
 - 2 Reduction in Strength
 - Induction-Variable elimination

- If the computation of an expression is *loop-invariant* this transformation places such computation before the loop.
- Example. Consider the following while statement:

while (i \leq limit - 2) do

The expression limit - 2 is loop invariant. Code motion transformation will result in:

t := limit -2;while (i <= t) do

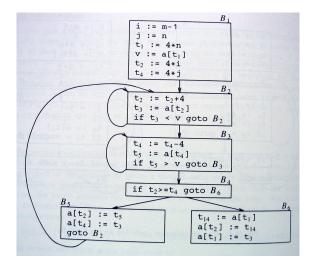
- It is based on the replacement of a computation with a less expensive one.
- Example. Consider the assignment t₄ := 4 * j in Block B₃.
 j is decremented by 1 each time, then t₄ := 4 * j 4.
 Thus, we may replace t₄ := 4 * j by t₄ := t₄ 4. *Problem*: We need to initialize t₄ to t₄ := 4 * j before entering the Block B₃.
 - *Result.* The substitution of a multiplication by a subtraction will speed up the resulting code.

- A variable x is an Induction Variable of a loop if every time the variable x changes values, it is incremented or decremented by some constant.
- A common situation is the one in which an induction variable, say i, indexes an array, and some other induction variable, say t, is the actual offset to access the array:
 - Often we can get rid of i.
 - In general, when there are two or more Induction Variables it is possible to get rid of all but one.

- **Example.** Consider the loop of Block *B*₃. The variables j and t₄ are Induction Variables. The same applies for variables i and t₂ in Block *B*₂.
- After Reduction in Strength is applied to both t₂ and t₄, the only use of i and j is to determine the test in B₄.
- Since $t_2 := 4 * i$ and $t_4 := 4 * j$, the test i > j is equivalent to $t_2 > t_4$.
- After this replacement in the test, both i (in Block *B*₂) and j (in Block *B*₃) become dead-variables and can be eliminated! (see next slide for the new optimized code).

Induction Variables Elimination: An Example (Cont.)

• Flow Graph after Reduction in Strength and Induction-Variables elimination.



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