Lecture 20

CIS 341: COMPILERS

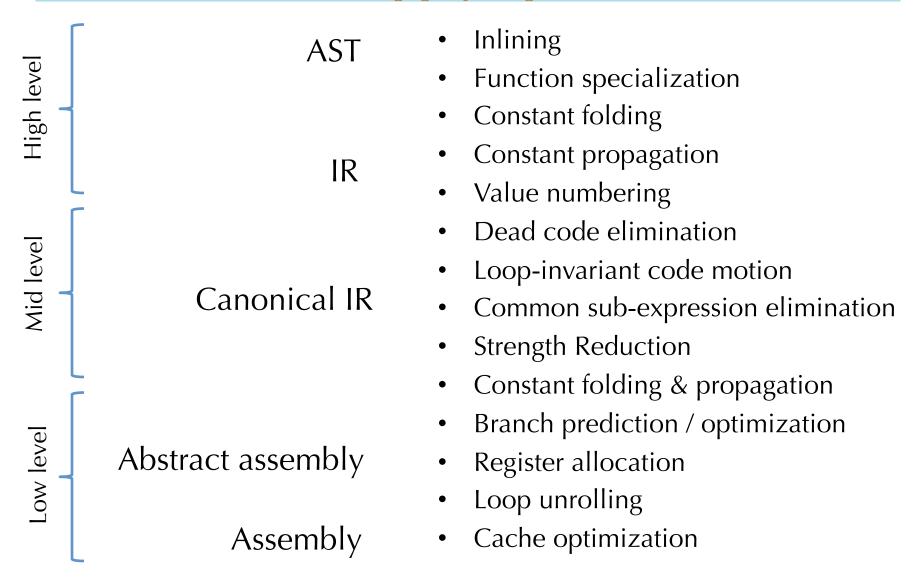
Announcements

- HW5: Full OAT: Objects & Typechecking
 - Implement (parts of) the typechecker and compiler for an OO-language
- DUE: Monday April 6th

A high-level tour of a variety of optimizations.

OPTIMIZATIONS

When to apply optimization



Inlining

- Replace a call to a function with the body of the function itself with arguments rewritten to be local variables:
- Example in OAT code:

```
int g(int x) { return x + pow(x); }
int pow(int a) { int b = 1; int n = 0;
   while (n < a) {b = 2 * b}; return b; }</pre>
```

>

```
int g(int x) { int a = x; int b = 1; int n = 0;
    while (n < a) {b = 2 * b}; tmp = b; return x + tmp;
}</pre>
```

- May need to rename variable names to avoid name capture
 - Example of what can go wrong?
- Best done at the AST or relatively high-level IR.
- When is it profitable?
 - Eliminates the stack manipulation, jump, etc.
 - Can increase code size.
 - Enables further optimizations

Code Specialization

- Idea: create specialized versions of a function that is called from different places with different arguments.
- Example: specialize function **f** in:

```
class A implements I { int m() {...} }
class B implements I { int m() {...} }
int f(I x) { x.m(); } // don't know which m
A a = new A(); f(a); // know it's A.m
B b = new B(); f(b); // know it's B.m
```

- f_A would have code specialized to dispatch to A.m.
- f_B would have code specialized to dispatch to B.m
- You can also inline methods when the run-time type is known statically
 - Often just one class implements a method.

Common Subexpression Elimination

- In some sense it's the opposite of inlining: fold redundant computations together
- Example:

```
a[i] = a[i] + 1 compiles to:

[a + i*4] = [a + i*4] + 1
```

Common subexpression elimination removes the redundant add and multiply:

```
t = a + i*4; [t] = [t] + 1
```

• For safety, you must be sure that the shared expression always has the same value in both places!

Unsafe Common Subexpression Elimination

• Example: consider this OAT function:

```
unit f(int[] a, int[] b, int[] c) {
  int j = ...; int i = ...; int k = ...;
  b[j] = a[i] + 1; c[k] = a[i]; return;
}
```

• The following optimization that shares the expression a[i] is unsafe... why?

```
unit f(int[] a, int[] b, int[] c) {
  int j = ...; int i = ...; int k = ...;
  t = a[i];
  b[j] = t + 1; c[k] = t; return;
}
```

LOOP OPTIMIZATIONS

Loop Optimizations

- Program hot spots often occur in loops.
 - Especially inner loops
 - Not always: consider operating systems code or compilers vs. a computer game or word processor
- Most program execution time occurs in loops.
 - The 90/10 rule of thumb holds here too. (90% of the execution time is spent in 10% of the code)
- Loop optimizations are very important, effective, and numerous
 - Also, concentrating effort to improve loop body code is usually a win

Loop Invariant Code Motion (revisited)

- Another form of redundancy elimination.
- If the result of a statement or expression does not change during the loop and it's pure, it can be hoisted outside the loop body.
- Often useful for array element addressing code
 - Invariant code not visible at the source level

```
for (i = 0; i < a.length; i++) {
    /* a not modified in the body */
}

t = a.length;

for (i = 0; i < t; i++) {
    /* same body as above */
}</pre>
Hoisted loop-
invariant
expression
```

Strength Reduction (revisited)

- Strength reduction can work for loops too
- Idea: replace expensive operations (multiplies, divides) by cheap ones (adds and subtracts)
- For loops, create a dependent induction variable:

```
• Example:
for (int i = 0; i<n; i++) { a[i*3] = 1; } // stride
    by 3

int j = 0;
for (int i = 0; i<n; i++) {
    a[j] = 1;
    j = j + 3; // replace multiply by add
}</pre>
```

Loop Unrolling (revisited)

Branches can be expensive, unroll loops to avoid them.

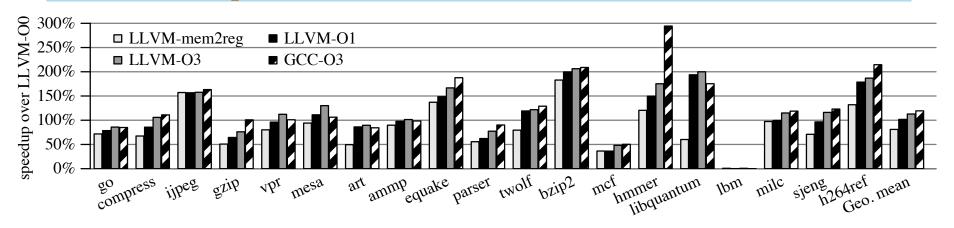
```
for (int i=0; i<n; i++) { S }
```



- With k unrollings, eliminates (k-1)/k conditional branches
 - So for the above program, it eliminates ¾ of the branches
- Space-time tradeoff:
 - Not a good idea for large S or small n
- Interacts with instruction caching, branch prediction

EFFECTIVENESS?

Optimization Effectiveness?



%speedup =
$$\frac{\text{base time}}{\text{optimized time}} - 1$$
 x 100%

Example:

base time = 2s

optimized time = 1s

 \Rightarrow

100% speedup

Example:

base time = 1.2s

optimized time = 0.87s

 \Rightarrow

38% speedup

Graph taken from:

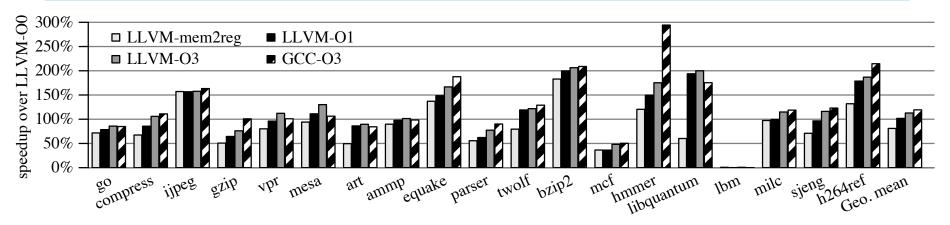
Jianzhou Zhao, Santosh Nagarakatte, Milo M. K. Martin, and Steve Zdancewic.

Formal Verification of SSA-Based Optimizations for LLVM.

In Proc. 2013 ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Programming Languages Design and Implementation (PLDI), 2013

Zdancewic CIS 341: Compilers

Optimization Effectiveness?



- mem2reg: promotes alloca'ed stack slots to temporaries to enable register allocation
- Analysis:
 - mem2reg alone (+ back-end optimizations like register allocation) yields
 ~78% speedup on average
 - -O1 yields ~100% speedup (so all the rest of the optimizations
 - O3 yields ~120% speedup
- Hypothetical program that takes 10 sec. (base time):
 - Mem2reg alone: expect ~5.6 sec
 - O1: expect ~5 sec
 - -O3: expect ~4.5 sec

CODE ANALYSIS

Motivating Code Analyses

- There are lots of things that might influence the safety/applicability of an optimization
 - What algorithms and data structures can help?

- How do you know what is a loop?
- How do you know an expression is invariant?
- How do you know if an expression has no side effects?
- How do you keep track of where a variable is defined?
- How do you know where a variable is used?
- How do you know if two reference values may be aliases of one another?

Moving Towards Register Allocation

- The OAT compiler currently generates as many temporary variables as it needs
 - These are the **%uids** you should be very familiar with by now.
- Current compilation strategy:
 - Each %uid maps to a stack location.
 - This yields programs with many loads/stores to memory.
 - Very inefficient.
- Ideally, we'd like to map as many %uid's as possible into registers.
 - Eliminate the use of the alloca instruction?
 - Only 16 max registers available on 64-bit X86
 - %rsp and %rbp are reserved and some have special semantics, so really only 10 or 12 available
 - This means that a register must hold more than one slot
- When is this safe?

Liveness

- Observation: **%uid1** and **%uid2** can be assigned to the same register if their values will not be needed at the same time.
 - What does it mean for an %uid to be "needed"?
 - Ans: its contents will be used as a source operand in a later instruction.
- Such a variable is called "live"
- Two variables can share the same register if they are *not* live at the same time.

Scope vs. Liveness

- We can already get some coarse liveness information from variable scoping.
- Consider the following OAT program:

```
int f(int x) {
  int a = 0;
  for (int b = 0; b < 10; b=b+1;) {
    a = a+b*x;
  }
  int c = a * x; return c;
)</pre>
```

- Note that due to OAT's scoping rules, variables **b** and **c** can never be live at the same time.
 - c's scope is disjoint from b's scope
- So, we could assign **b** and **c** to the same alloca'ed slot and potentially to the same register.

But Scope is too Coarse

Consider this program:

```
int f(int x) {
    int a = x + 2;
    int b = a * a;
    int c = b + x;
    return c;
    c = b + x;
    c = b + x;
```

- The scopes of a,b,c,x all overlap they're all in scope at the end of the block.
- But, a, b, c are never live at the same time.
 - So they can share the same stack slot / register

Live Variable Analysis

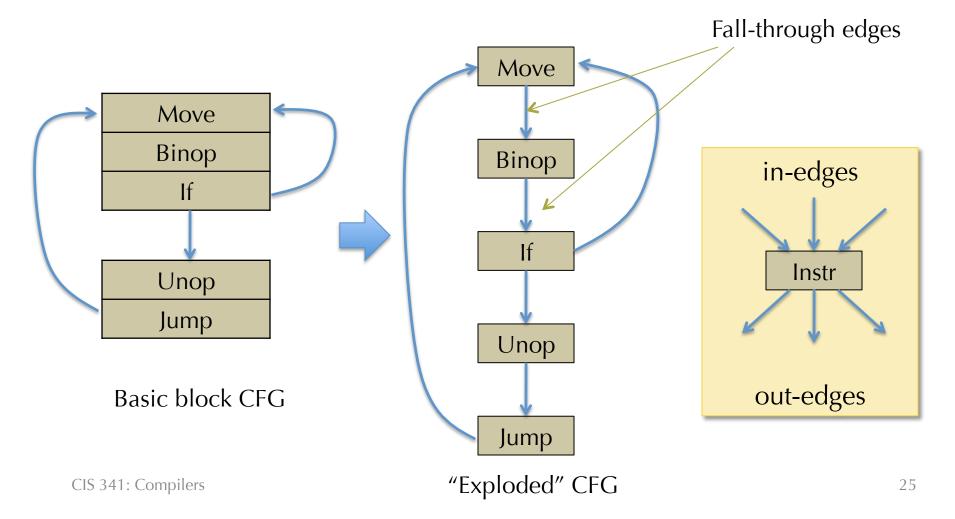
- A variable v is *live* at a program point if v is defined before the program point and used after it.
- Liveness is defined in terms of where variables are defined and where variables are used
- Liveness analysis: Compute the live variables between each statement.
 - May be conservative (i.e. it may claim a variable is live when it isn't) so because that's a safe approximation
 - To be useful, it should be more precise than simple scoping rules.
- Liveness analysis is one example of dataflow analysis
 - Other examples: Available Expressions, Reaching Definitions, Constant-Propagation Analysis, ...

Control-flow Graphs Revisited

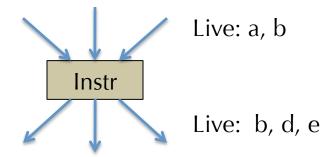
- For the purposes of dataflow analysis, we use the *control-flow graph* (CFG) intermediate form.
- Recall that a basic block is a sequence of instructions such that:
 - There is a distinguished, labeled entry point (no jumps into the middle of a basic block)
 - There is a (possibly empty) sequence of non-control-flow instructions
 - The block ends with a single control-flow instruction (jump, conditional branch, return, etc.)
- A control flow graph
 - Nodes are blocks
 - There is an edge from B1 to B2 if the control-flow instruction of B1 might jump to the entry label of B2
 - There are no "dangling" edges there is a block for every jump target.
- Note: the following slides are intentionally a bit ambiguous about the exact nature of the code in the control flow graphs:
 - at the x86 assembly level
 - an "imperative" C-like source level
 - at the LLVM IR level
 - Same general idea, but the exact details will differ
 - e.g. LLVM IR doesn't have "imperative" update of %uid temporaries.
 - In fact, the SSA structure of the LLVM IR makes some of these analyses simpler.

Dataflow over CFGs

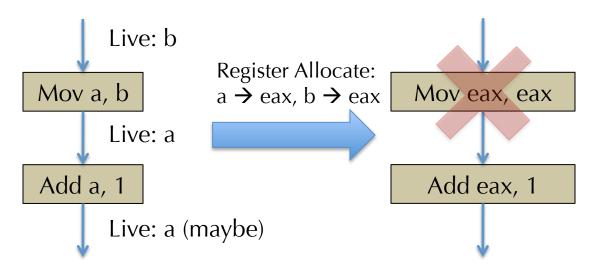
- For precision, it is helpful to think of the "fall through" between sequential instructions as an edge of the control-flow graph too.
 - Different implementation tradeoffs in practice...



Liveness is Associated with Edges



- This is useful so that the same register can be used for different temporaries in the same statement.
- Example: a = b + 1
- Compiles to:



Uses and Definitions

- Every instruction/statement *uses* some set of variables
 - i.e. reads from them
- Every instruction/statement *defines* some set of variables
 - i.e. writes to them
- For a node/statement s define:
 - use[s] : set of variables used by s
 - def[s] : set of variables defined by s
- Examples:

$$- a = b + c$$
 $use[s] = {b,c} def[s] = {a}$

$$- a = a + 1$$
 $use[s] = {a} def[s] = {a}$

Liveness, Formally

- A variable v is *live* on edge e if: There is
 - a node n in the CFG such that use[n] contains v, and
 - a directed path from e to n such that for every statement s' on the path,
 def[s'] does not contain v
- The first clause says that v will be used on some path starting from edge e.
- The second clause says that v won't be redefined on that path before the use.
- Questions:
 - How to compute this efficiently?
 - How to use this information (e.g. for register allocation)?
 - How does the choice of IR affect this? (e.g. LLVM IR uses SSA, so it doesn't allow redefinition ⇒ simplify liveness analysis)

Simple, inefficient algorithm

- "A variable v is live on an edge e if there is a node n in the CFG using it and a directed path from e to n pasing through no def of v."
- Backtracking Algorithm:
- For each variable v...
- Try all paths from each use of v, tracing backwards through the control-flow graph until either v is defined or a previously visited node has been reached.
- Mark the variable v live across each edge traversed.

• Inefficient because it explores the same paths many times (for different uses and different variables)

Dataflow Analysis

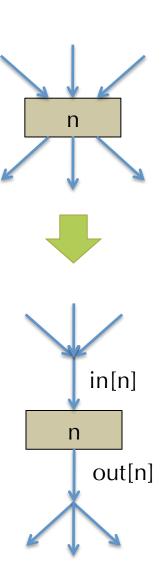
- *Idea*: compute liveness information for all variables simultaneously.
 - Keep track of sets of information about each node
- Approach: define equations that must be satisfied by any liveness determination.
 - Equations based on "obvious" constraints.
- Solve the equations by iteratively converging on a solution.
 - Start with a "rough" approximation to the answer
 - Refine the answer at each iteration
 - Keep going until no more refinement is possible: a fixpoint has been reached
- This is an instance of a general framework for computing program properties: dataflow analysis

Dataflow Value Sets for Liveness

- Nodes are program statements, so:
- use[n]: set of variables used by n
- def[n] : set of variables defined by n
- in[n]: set of variables live on entry to n
- out[n]: set of variables live on exit from n
- Associate in[n] and out[n] with the "collected" information about incoming/outgoing edges
- For Liveness: what constraints are there among these sets?
- Clearly:

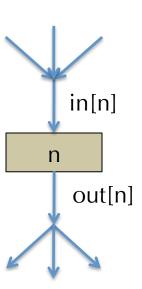
 $in[n] \supseteq use[n]$

What other constraints?



Other Dataflow Constraints

- We have: in[n] ⊇ use[n]
 - "A variable must be live on entry to n if it is used by n"
- Also: in[n] ⊇ out[n] def[n]
 - "If a variable is live on exit from n, and n doesn't define it, it is live on entry to n"
 - Note: here '-' means "set difference"
- And: out[n] ⊇ in[n'] if n' ⊆ succ[n]
 - "If a variable is live on entry to a successor node of n, it must be live on exit from n."



Iterative Dataflow Analysis

- Find a solution to those constraints by starting from a rough guess.
- Start with: $in[n] = \emptyset$ and $out[n] = \emptyset$
- They don't satisfy the constraints:
 - $in[n] \supseteq use[n]$
 - $in[n] \supseteq out[n] def[n]$
 - out[n] \supseteq in[n'] if n' ∈ succ[n]
- Idea: iteratively re-compute in[n] and out[n] where forced to by the constraints.
 - Each iteration will add variables to the sets in[n] and out[n]
 (i.e. the live variable sets will increase monotonically)
- We stop when in[n] and out[n] satisfy these equations: (which are derived from the constraints above)
 - in[n] = use[n] \cup (out[n] def[n])
 - out[n] = $U_{n' \in succ[n]}in[n']$

Complete Liveness Analysis Algorithm

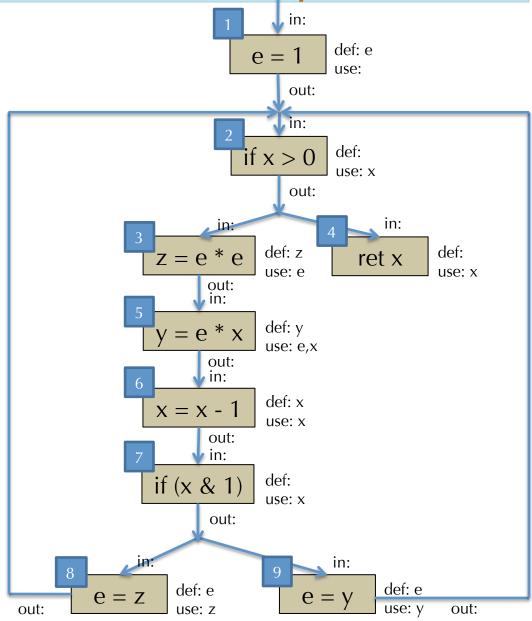
```
for all n, in[n] := \emptyset, out[n] := \emptyset
repeat until no change in 'in' and 'out'
for all n

out[n] := U_{n' \in succ[n]} in[n']
in[n] := use[n] U (out[n] - def[n])
end
end
```

- Finds a fixpoint of the in and out equations.
 - The algorithm is guaranteed to terminate... Why?
- Why do we start with Ø?

• Example flow graph:

```
e = 1;
while(x>0) {
   z = e * e;
   y = e * x;
   x = x - 1;
   if (x & 1) {
      e = z;
   } else {
      e = y;
   }
}
return x;
```



Each iteration update:

 $out[n] := \bigcup_{n' \in succ[n]} in[n']$ $in[n] := use[n] \cup (out[n] - def[n])$

• Iteration 1:

$$in[2] = x$$

$$in[3] = e$$

$$in[4] = x$$

$$in[5] = e,x$$

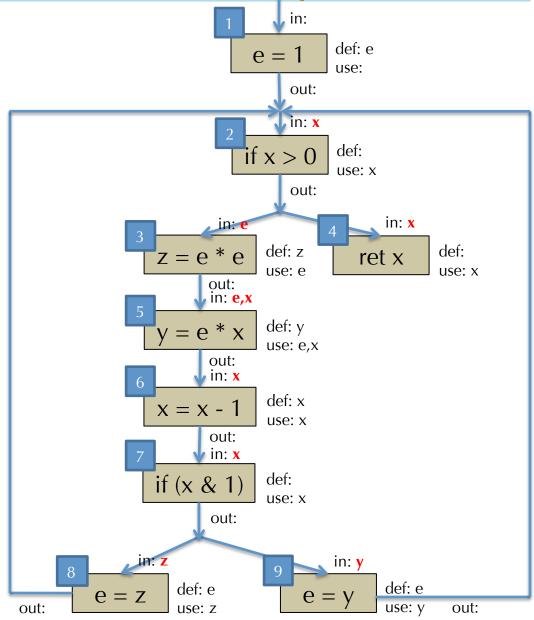
$$in[6] = x$$

$$in[7] = x$$

$$in[8] = z$$

$$in[9] = y$$

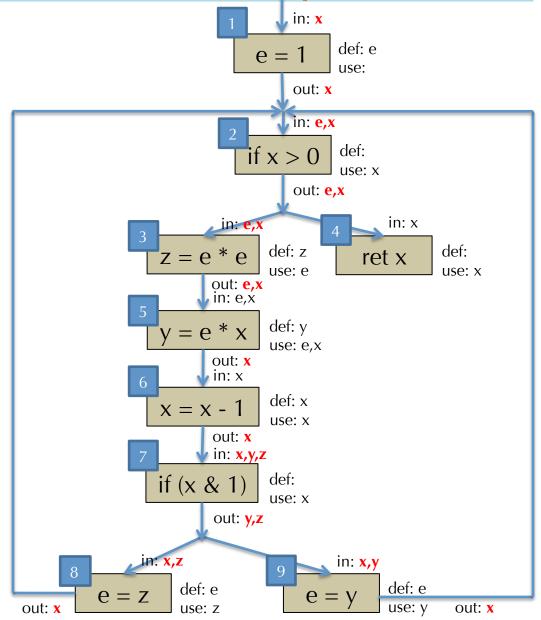
(showing only updates that make a change)



Each iteration update:

 $out[n] := \bigcup_{n' \in succ[n]} in[n']$ $in[n] := use[n] \cup (out[n] - def[n])$

• Iteration 2:



Each iteration update:

 $out[n] := \bigcup_{n' \in succ[n]} in[n']$ $in[n] := use[n] \cup (out[n] - def[n])$

• Iteration 3:

$$out[1] = e,x$$

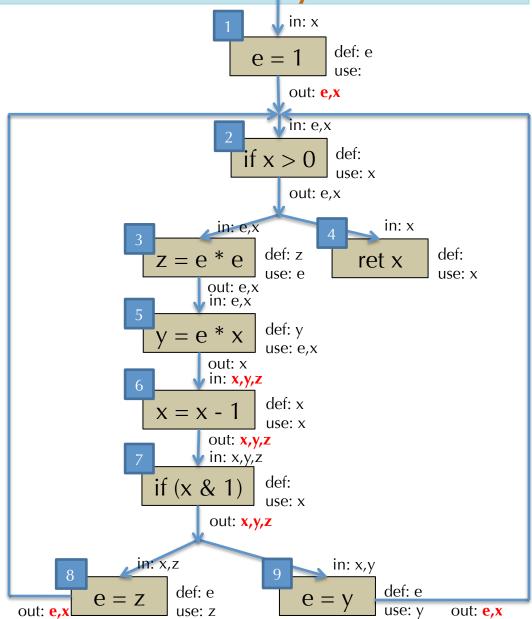
$$out[6] = x,y,z$$

$$in[6] = x, y, z$$

$$out[7] = x,y,z$$

$$out[8] = e_x$$

$$out[9] = e,x$$



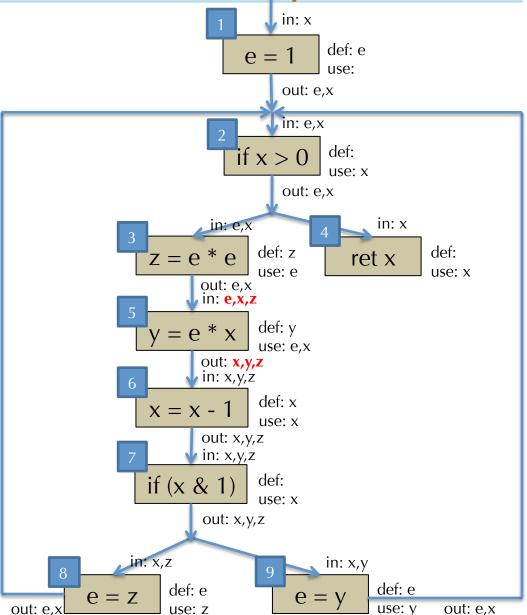
Each iteration update:

 $out[n] := U_{n' \in succ[n]} in[n']$ $in[n] := use[n] \ U \ (out[n] - def[n])$

• Iteration 4:

out[5]=
$$x,y,z$$

in[5]= e,x,z



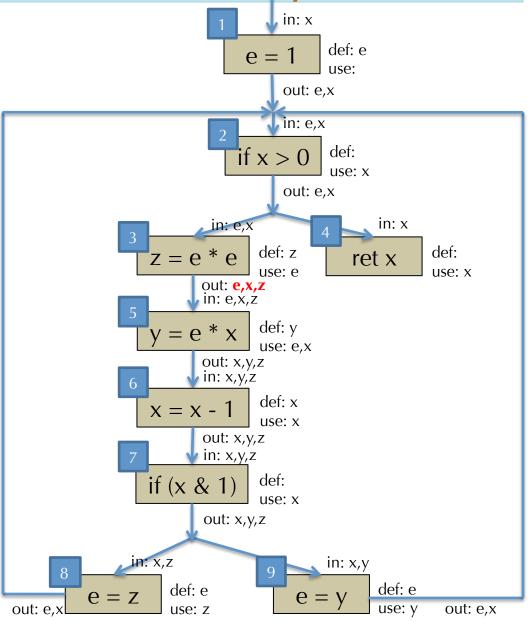
Each iteration update:

 $out[n] := \bigcup_{n' \in succ[n]} in[n']$ $in[n] := use[n] \cup (out[n] - def[n])$

• Iteration 5:

out[3] = e,x,z

Done!



Improving the Algorithm

- Can we do better?
- Observe: the only way information propagates from one node to another is using: $out[n] := \bigcup_{n' \in succ[n]} in[n']$
 - This is the only rule that involves more than one node
- If a node's successors haven't changed, then the node itself won't change.
- Idea for an improved version of the algorithm:
 - Keep track of which node's successors have changed

A Worklist Algorithm

Use a FIFO queue of nodes that might need to be updated.