Lecture 21

CIS 341: COMPILERS

#### **Announcements**

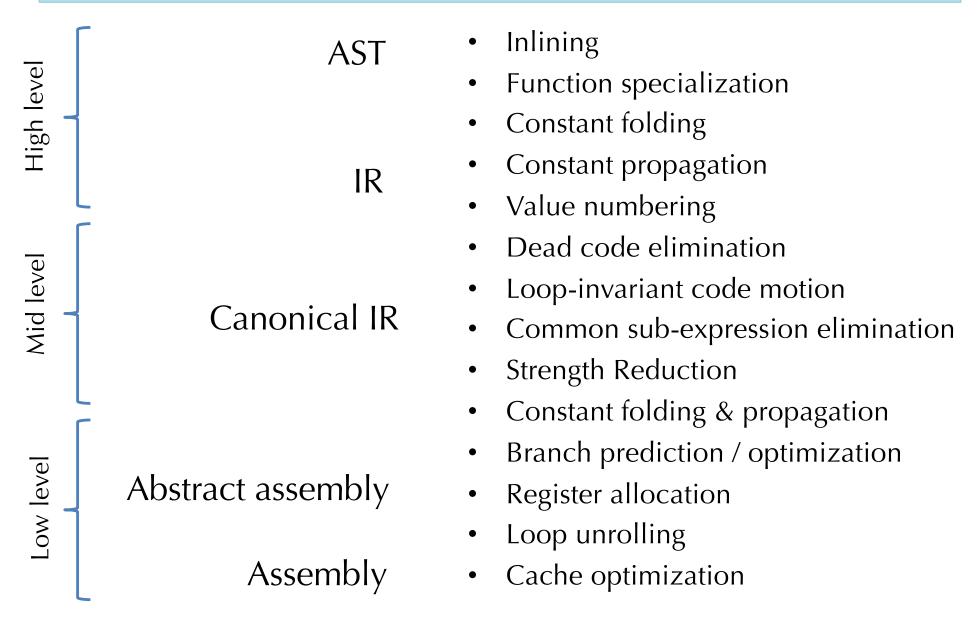
- HW5: Oat v. 2.0
  - records, function pointers, type checking, array-bounds checks, etc.
  - typechecker & safety
  - Due: Wednesday, April 13<sup>th</sup>

Why optimize?

# OPTIMIZATIONS, GENERALLY

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# When to apply optimization



# **Safety**

- Whether an optimization is safe depends on the programming language semantics.
  - Languages that provide weaker guarantees to the programmer permit more optimizations but have more ambiguity in their behavior.
  - e.g., In C, loading from initialized memory is undefined, so the compiler can do anything if a program reads uninitalized data.
  - e.g., In Java tail-call optimization (which turns recursive function calls into loops) is not valid because of "stack inspection".
- Example: *loop-invariant code motion* 
  - Idea: hoist invariant code out of a loop

```
while (b) { z = y/x; z = y/x; while (b) { ... // y, x not updated } ... // y, x not updated }
```

- Is this more efficient?
- Is this safe?

A high-level tour of a variety of optimizations.

#### **BASIC OPTIMIZATIONS**

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## **Constant Folding**

 Idea: If operands are known at compile type, perform the operation statically.

int 
$$x = (2 + 3) * y$$
 int  $x = 5 * y$   
b & false  $\rightarrow$  false

- Performed at every stage of optimization...
- Why?
  - Constant expressions can be created by translation or earlier optimizations

Example: A[2] might be compiled to:

 $MEM[MEM[A] + 2 * 4] \rightarrow MEM[MEM[A] + 8]$ 

# **Constant Folding Conditionals**

# **Algebraic Simplification**

- More general form of constant folding
  - Take advantage of mathematically sound simplification rules
- Mathematical identities:

• Reassociation & commutativity:

```
- (a + 1) + 2 \rightarrow a + (1 + 2) \rightarrow a + 3
- (2 + a) + 4 \rightarrow (a + 2) + 4 \rightarrow a + (2 + 4) \rightarrow a + 6
```

• **Strength reduction**: (replace expensive op with cheaper op)

- *Note 1:* must be careful with floating point (due to rounding) and integer arithmetic (due to overflow/underflow)
- *Note 2:* iteration of these optimizations is useful... how much?
- *Note 3:* must be sure that rewrites terminate:
  - commutativity apply like:  $(x + y) \rightarrow (y + x) \rightarrow (x + y) \rightarrow (y + x) \rightarrow ...$

#### **Constant Propagation**

- If a variable is known to be a constant, replace the use of the variable by the constant
- Value of the variable must be propagated forward from the point of assignment
  - This is a *substitution* operation

#### Example:

```
int x = 5;

int y = x * 2;

int z = a[y];

int z = a[y];

int z = a[y];

int z = a[y];
```

 To be most effective, constant propagation should be interleaved with constant folding

#### **Copy Propagation**

- If one variable is assigned to another, replace uses of the assigned variable with the copied variable.
- Need to know where copies of the variable propagate.
- Interacts with the scoping rules of the language.
- Example:

```
x = y;
if (x > 1) {
    x = x * f(x - 1);
}

x = y;
if (y > 1) {
    x = y * f(y - 1);
}
```

Can make the first assignment to x dead code (that can be eliminated).

#### **Dead Code Elimination**

• If a side-effect free statement can never be observed, it is safe to eliminate the statement.

```
x = y * y // x \text{ is dead!}
...
// x \text{ never used}
x = z * z
x = z * z
```

- A variable is dead if it is never used after it is defined.
  - Computing such *definition* and *use* information is an important component of program analysis
- Dead variables can be created by other optimizations...

#### Unreachable/Dead Code

- Basic blocks not reachable by any trace leading from the starting basic block are *unreachable* and can be deleted.
  - Performed at the IR or assembly level
  - Improves cache, TLB performance
- Dead code: similar to unreachable blocks.
  - A value might be computed but never subsequently used.
- Code for computing the value can be dropped
- But only if it's *pure*, i.e., it has no externally visible side effects
  - Externally visible effects: raising an exception, modifying a global variable, going into an infinite loop, printing to standard output, sending a network packet, launching a rocket
  - Note: Pure functional languages (e.g., Haskell) make reasoning about the safety of optimizations (and code transformations in general) easier!

# **Inlining**

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

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

int g(int x) {
   int a = x;
   int b = 1; int x2 = 0;
   while (x2 < a) {b = 2 * b; x2 = x2 + 1};
   tmp = b;
   return x + tmp;
}</pre>
```

- May need to rename variables to avoid capture
  - See lecture about capture avoiding substitution for lambda calculus
- 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**

- fold redundant computations together
  - in some sense, it's the opposite of inlining
- 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) {
  var j = ...; var i = ...; var k = ...;
  b[j] = a[i] + 1;
  c[k] = a[i];
  return;
}
```

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

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

#### LOOP OPTIMIZATIONS

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#### **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 */
}</pre>
```

```
t = a.length;
for (i =0; i < t; i++) {
  /* same body as above */
}</pre>
```

Hoisted loopinvariant 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 }
```



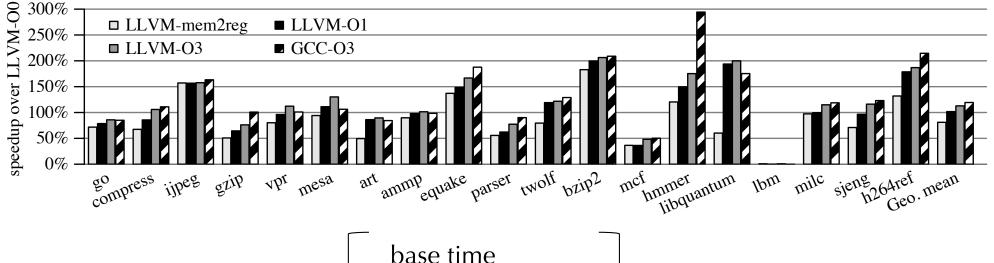
```
for (int i=0; i<n-3; i+=4) {S;S;S;S};
for (     ; i<n; i++) { S } // left over iterations</pre>
```

- 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?**

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#### **Optimization Effectiveness?**



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

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:

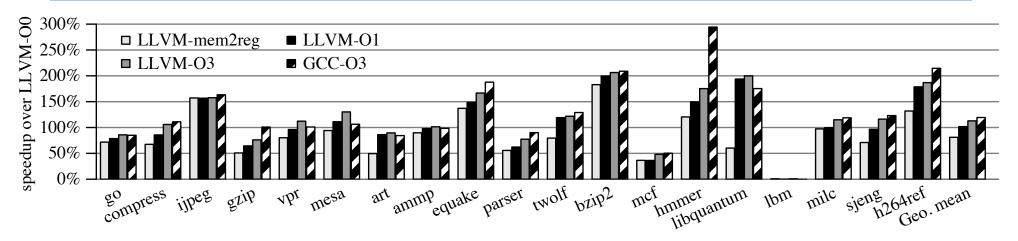
Jianzhou Zhao, Santosh Nagarakatte, Milo M. K. Martin, and Steve Zdancewic.

Formal Verification of SSA-Based Optimizations for LLVM.

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

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# **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 combined account for ~22%)
  - 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**

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# **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) {
   var a = 0;
   if (x > 0) {
      var b = x * x;
      a = b + b;
   }
   var c = a * x;
   return c;
}
```

- 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;

    x is live
    a and x are live
    b and x are live
    c is live
```

- 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**

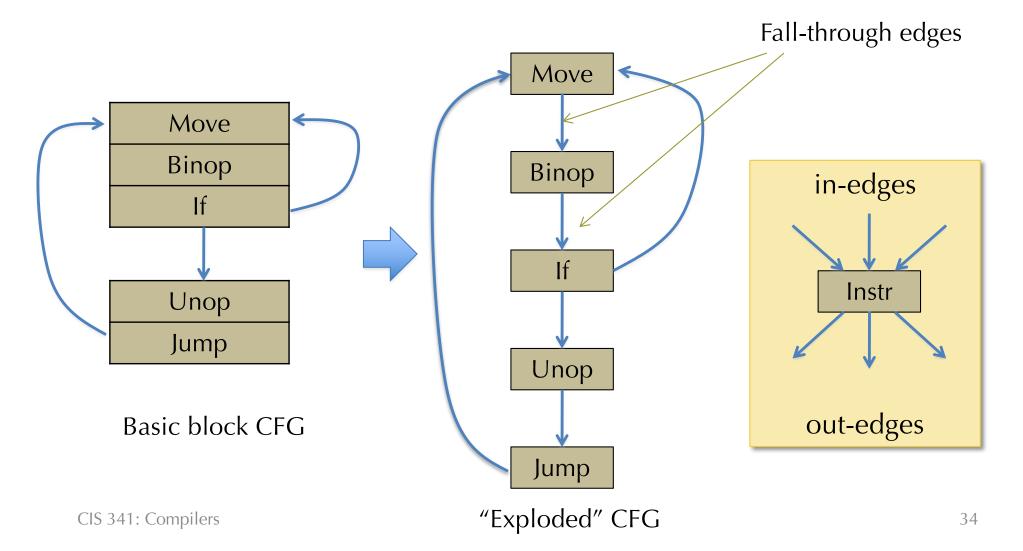
- A variable v is *live* at a program point if v is defined before the program point and used after it.
- Liveness is defined in terms of where variables are *defined* and where variables are *used*
- Liveness analysis: Compute the live variables between each statement.
  - May be conservative (i.e. 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**

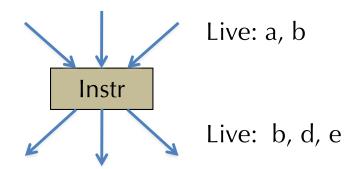
- For the purposes of dataflow analysis, we use the control-flow graph (CFG) intermediate form.
- Recall that a basic block is a sequence of instructions such that:
  - There is a distinguished, labeled entry point (no jumps into the middle of a basic block)
  - There is a (possibly empty) sequence of 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**

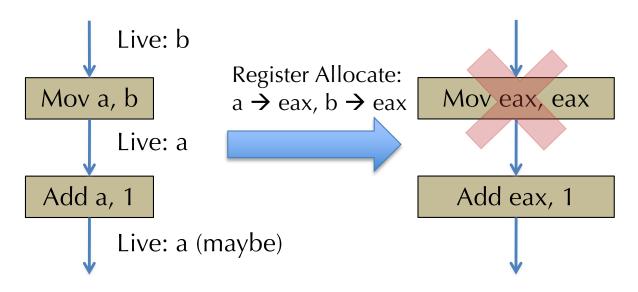
- For precision, it is helpful to think of the "fall through" between sequential instructions as an edge of the control-flow graph too.
  - Different implementation tradeoffs in practice...



## 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 controlflow 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)