



# Principles of Compiler Construction

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掌握基本内容即可，不是重点

源代码优化太依赖人，目标代码优化太依赖机器

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# Lecture 12. Code Optimization

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1. Introduction
2. Local Optimization
3. Control-Flow Analysis and Loop Optimization
4. Data-Flow Analysis and Global Optimization

# 1. Introduction

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- Terminology
  - Code optimization vs. code improvement
- Precondition
  - Semantics-preserving transformations
- Trade-off and consequence
  - Time efficiency vs. space efficiency
  - Compiler efficiency vs. target code efficiency

开关1 debug时不优化，debug完再优化  
开关2 面对空间还是时间

# Optimization Levels

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- Three levels of optimization
  - Source code
    - Manual, but the most effective.
  - Intermediate code
    - General and automatic.
    - Necessary even you write good source code.
  - Target code
    - Machine dependent (e.g. registers and pipelines).

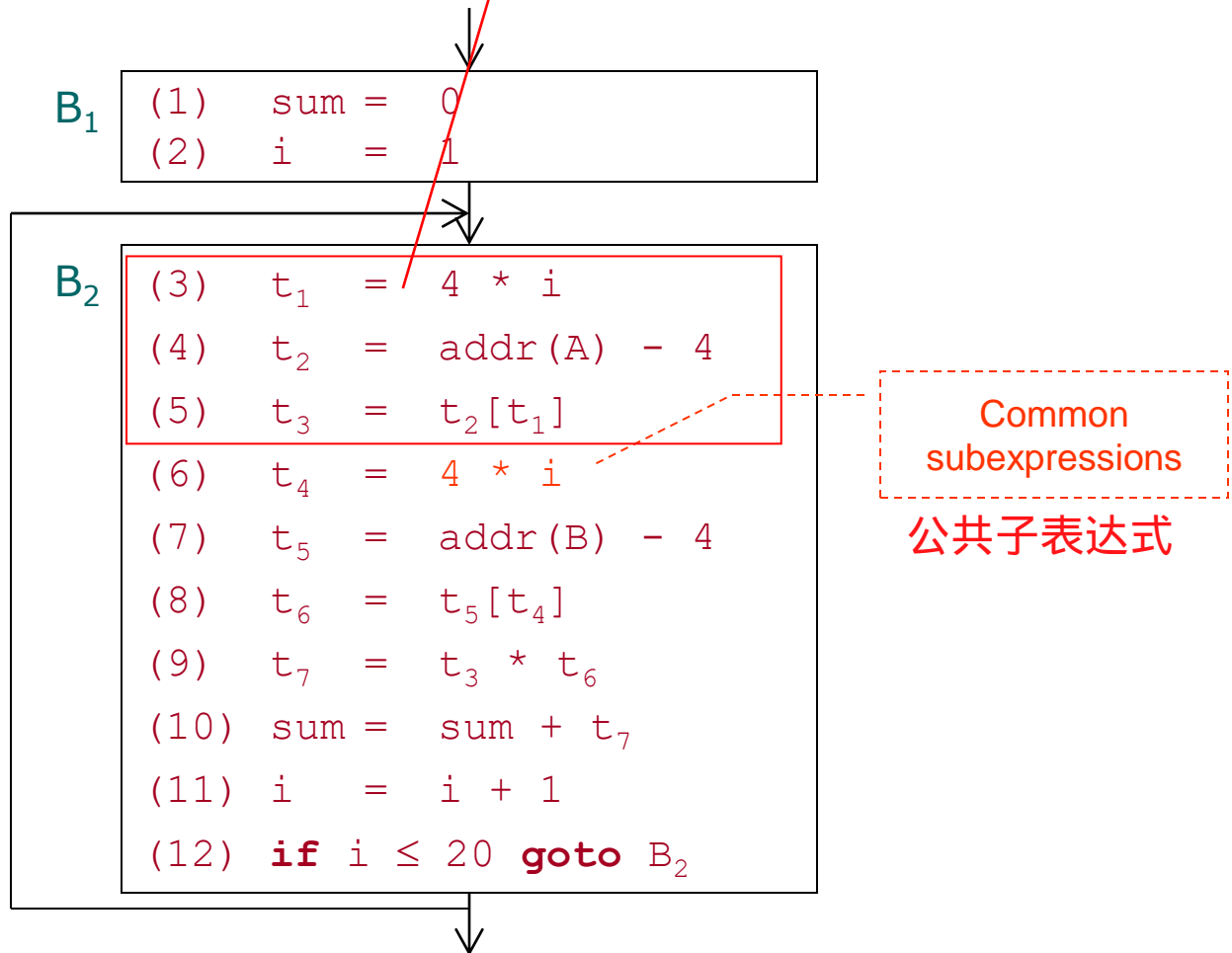
# Optimization Scopes

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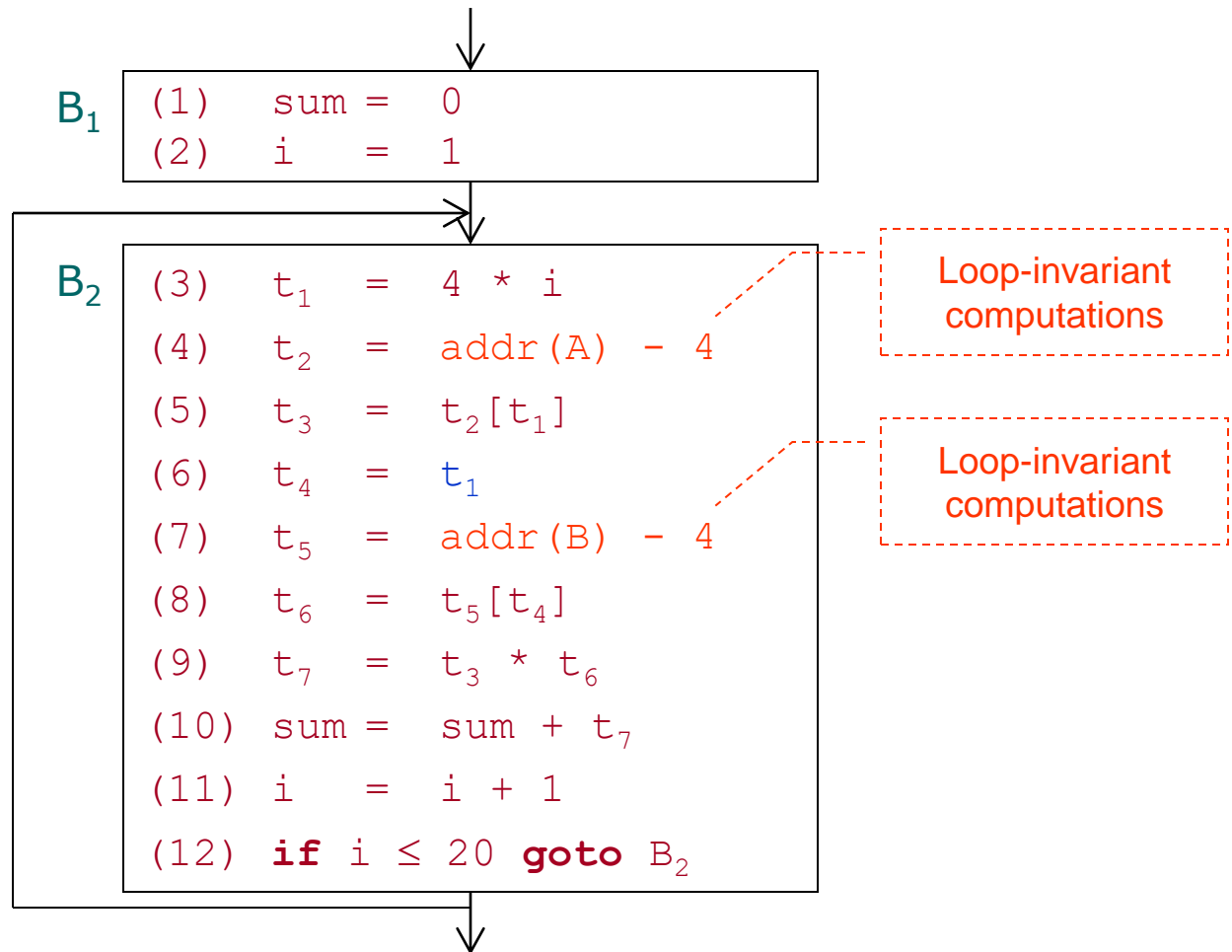
- Four scopes of optimization
  - Peephole optimization
    - Based on a sliding window, the smallest one.
  - Local optimization
    - Within a basic block.
  - Loop optimization
    - Within a loop.
  - Global optimization 研究范畴了
    - The biggest scope.
    - In-Procedure vs. Inter-Procedure

```
sum = 0;  
for (int i = 1; i <= 20; i++) sum += A[i] * B[i];
```

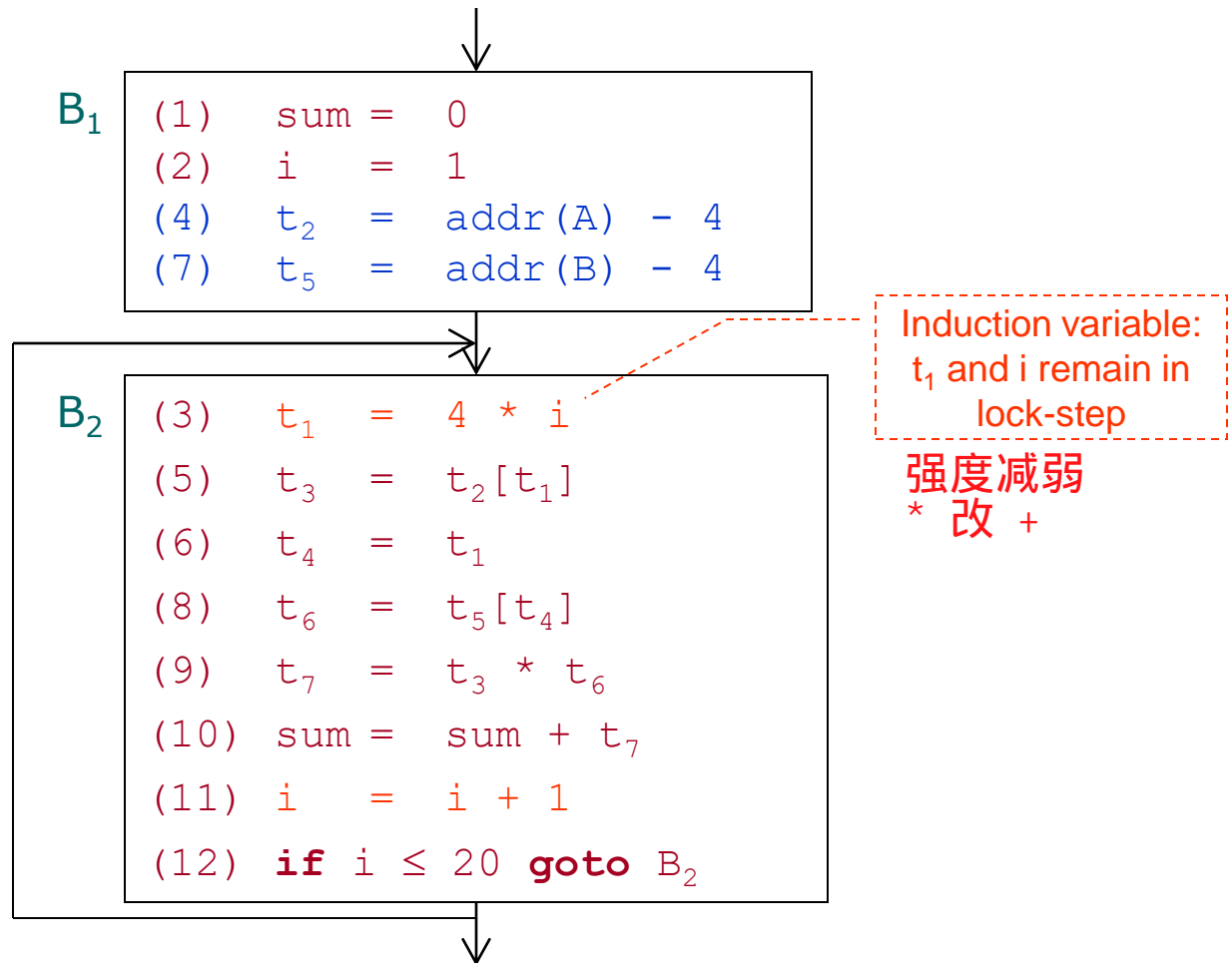
# An Example



# An Example: Eliminating Common Subexpressions

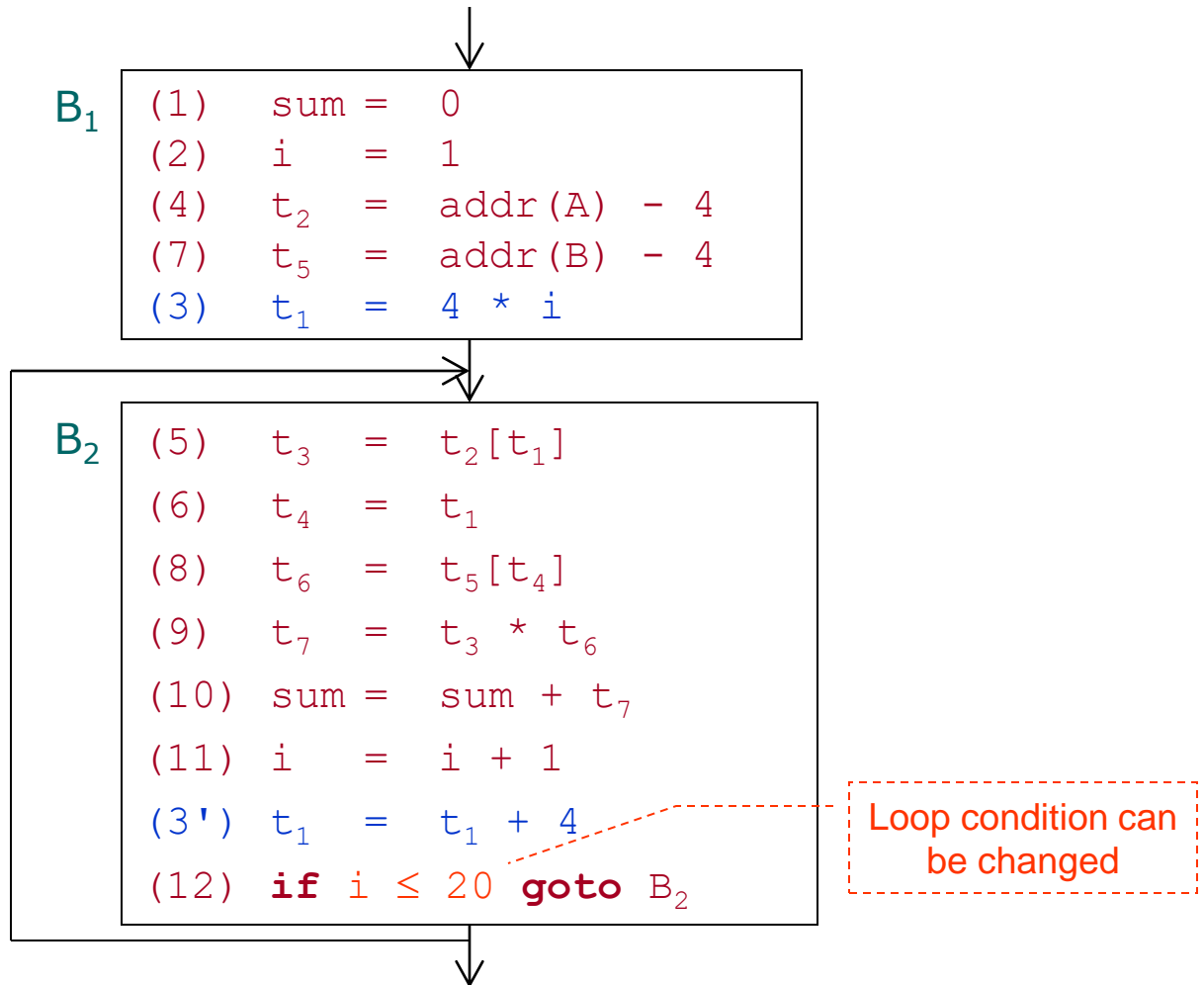


# An Example: Code Motion in Loop Optimization

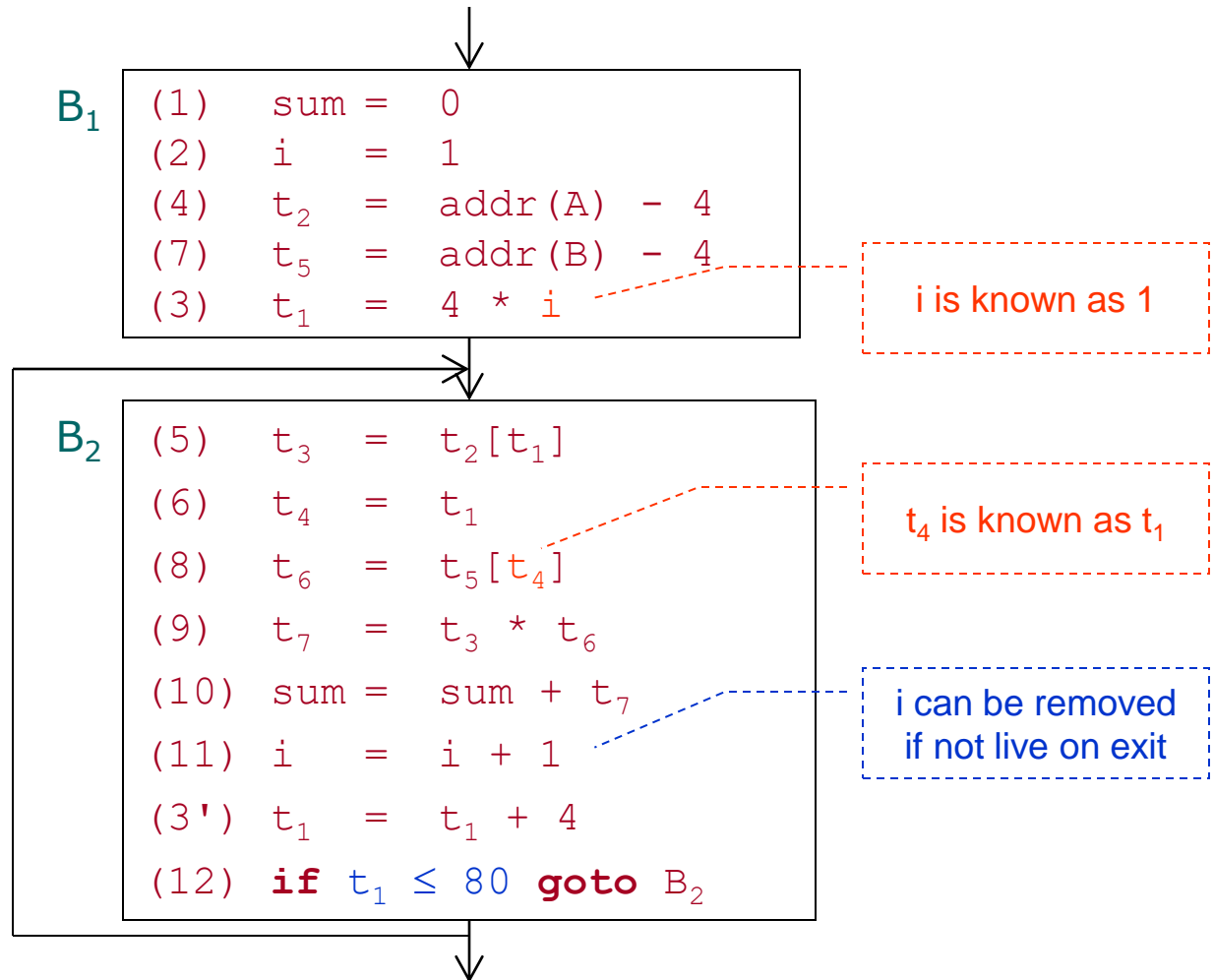




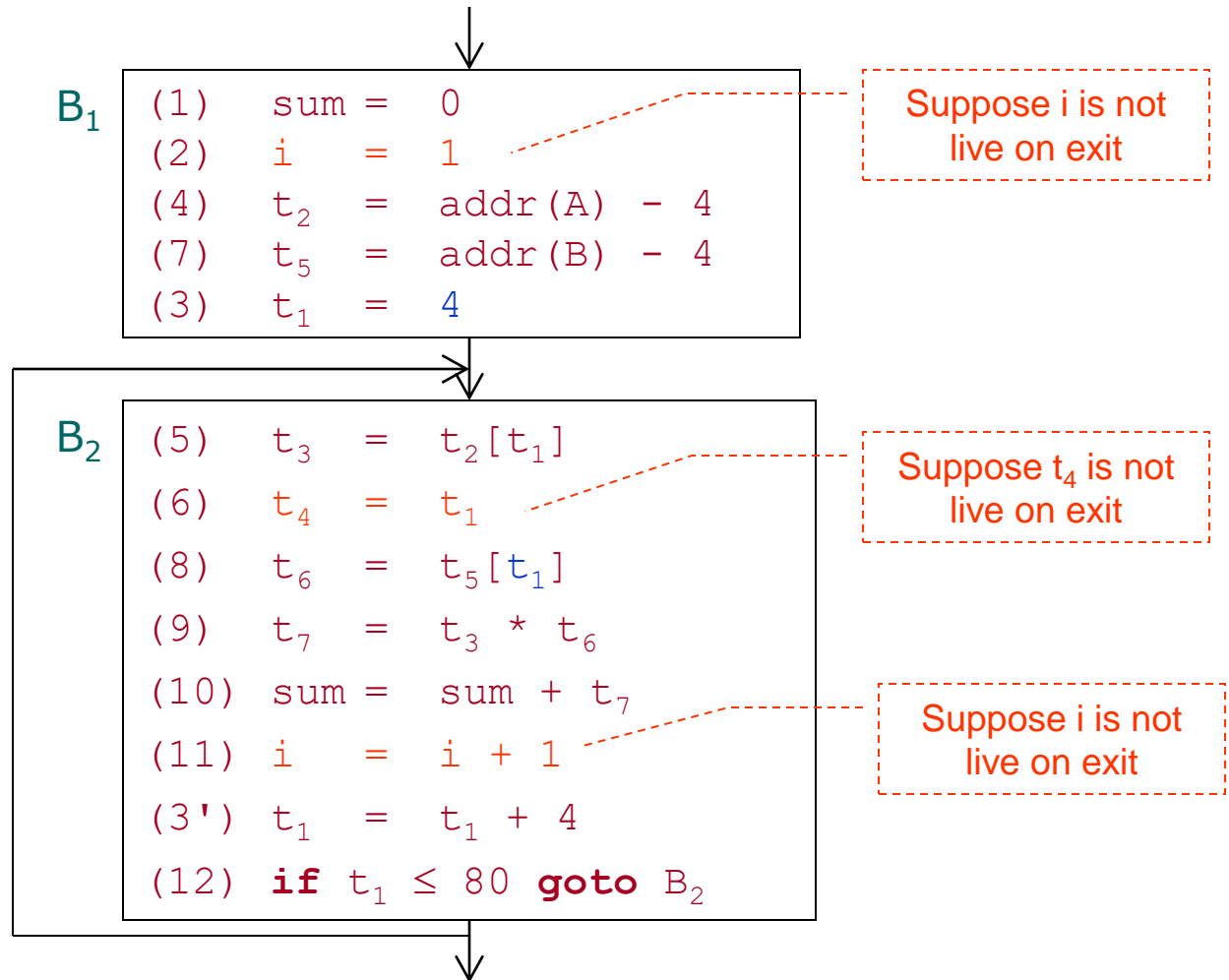
# An Example: Induction Variables and Reduction in Strength



# An Example: Loop Condition Transformation

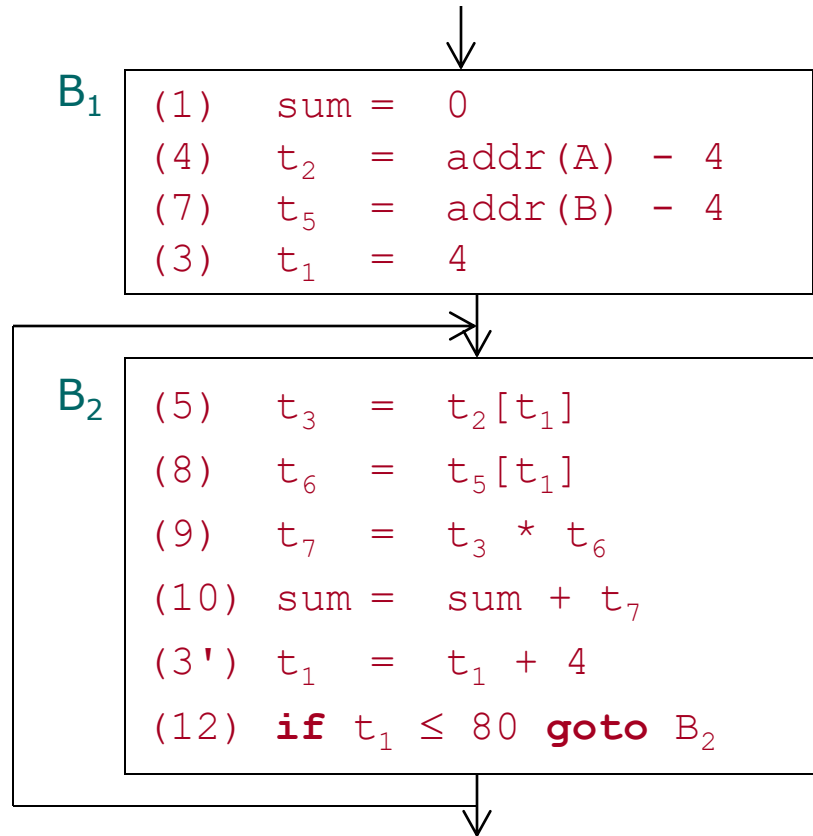


# An Example: Constant and Copy Propagation



# An Example: Eliminating Redundant Operations

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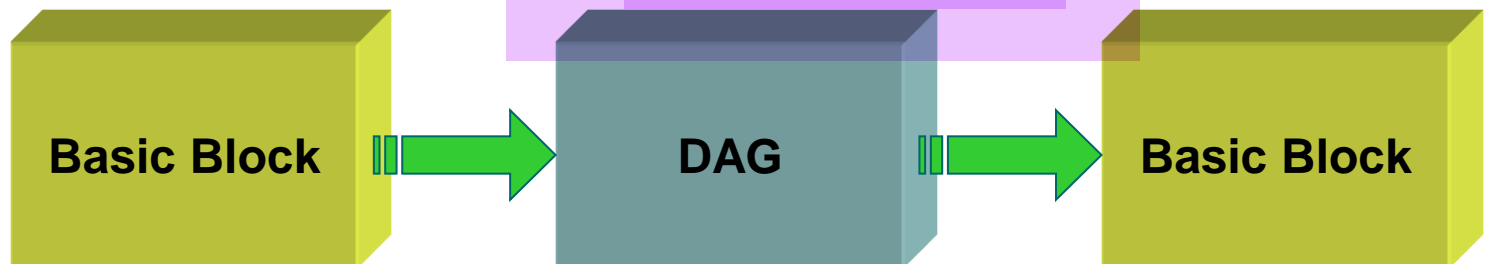
## 2. Local Optimization

### ○ Transformations

- Common subexpressions
- Constant and copy propagation
- Eliminating redundant operations

constant folding  
直接算出常量值  
constant propagation  
传播常量值

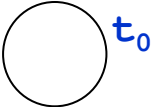
必考



必考

# One More Example (1)

- (1)  $t_0 = 3.14$
- (2)  $t_1 = 2 * t_0$
- (3)  $t_2 = R + r$
- (4)  $A = t_1 * t_2$
- (5)  $B = A$
- (6)  $t_3 = 2 * t_0$
- (7)  $t_4 = R + r$
- (8)  $t_5 = t_3 * t_4$
- (9)  $t_6 = R - r$
- (10)  $B = t_5 * t_6$

  
**3.14**

# One More Example (2)

- (1)  $t_0 = 3.14$
- (2)  $t_1 = 2 * t_0$
- (3)  $t_2 = R + r$
- (4)  $A = t_1 * t_2$
- (5)  $B = A$
- (6)  $t_3 = 2 * t_0$
- (7)  $t_4 = R + r$
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- (10)  $B = t_5 * t_6$

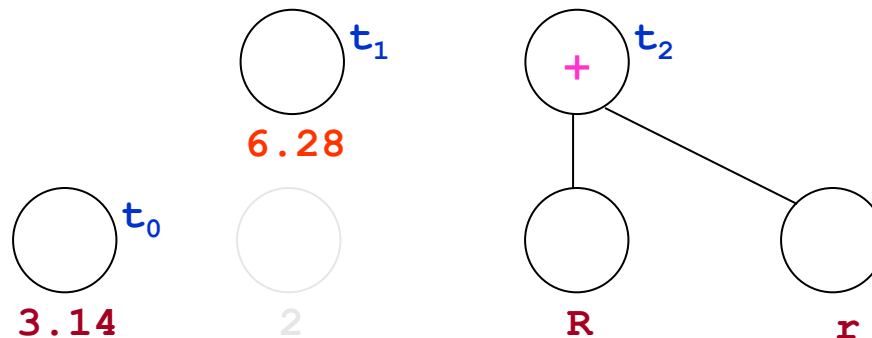
$t_0$   
3.14

$t_1$   
6.28

2

# One More Example (3)

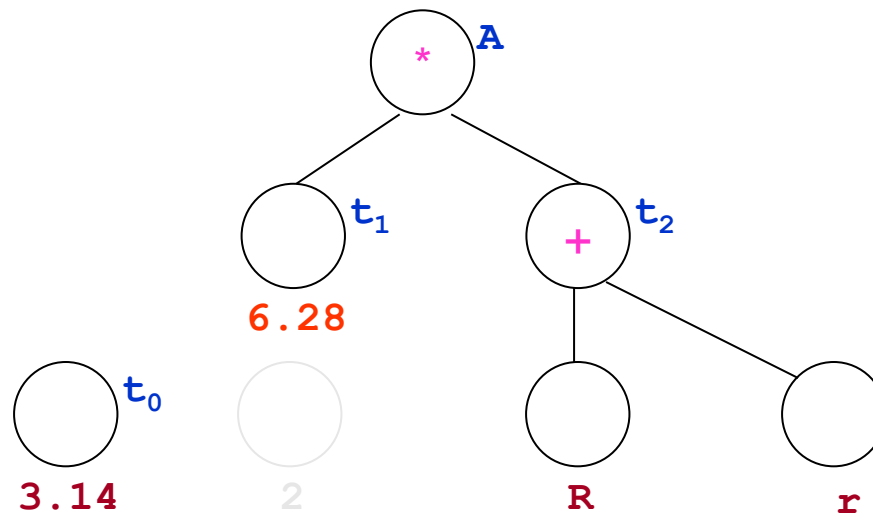
- (1)  $t_0 = 3.14$
- (2)  $t_1 = 2 * t_0$
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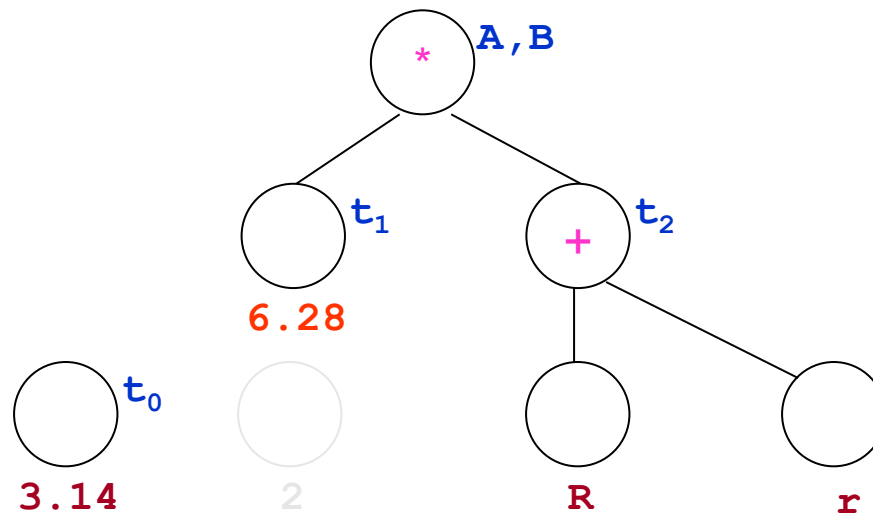
# One More Example (4)

- (1)  $t_0 = 3.14$
- (2)  $t_1 = 2 * t_0$
- (3)  $t_2 = R + r$
- (4)  $A = t_1 * t_2$
- (5)  $B = A$
- (6)  $t_3 = 2 * t_0$
- (7)  $t_4 = R + r$
- (8)  $t_5 = t_3 * t_4$
- (9)  $t_6 = R - r$
- (10)  $B = t_5 * t_6$



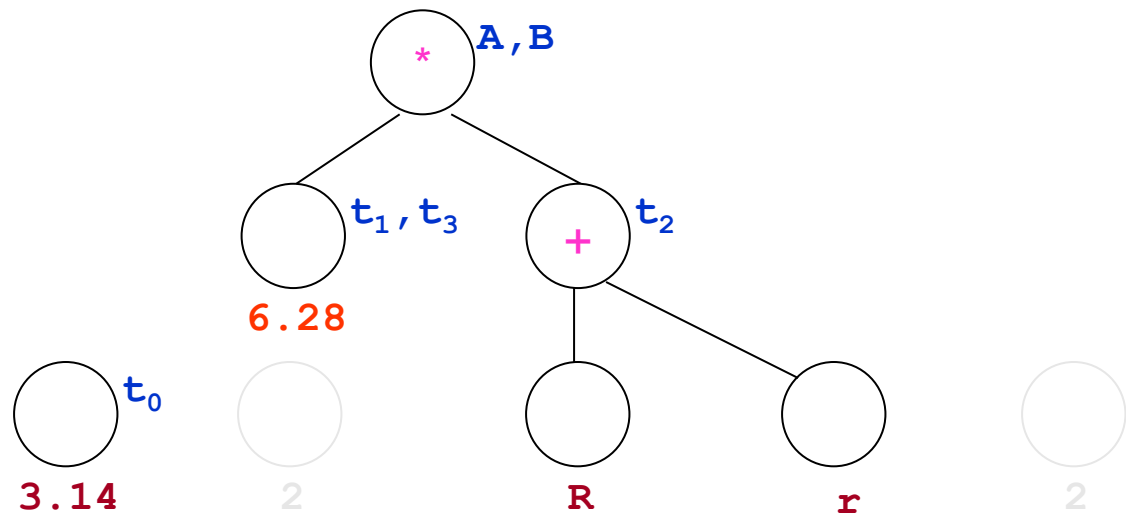
# One More Example (5)

- (1)  $t_0 = 3.14$
- (2)  $t_1 = 2 * t_0$
- (3)  $t_2 = R + r$
- (4)  $A = t_1 * t_2$
- (5)  $B = A$
- (6)  $t_3 = 2 * t_0$
- (7)  $t_4 = R + r$
- (8)  $t_5 = t_3 * t_4$
- (9)  $t_6 = R - r$
- (10)  $B = t_5 * t_6$



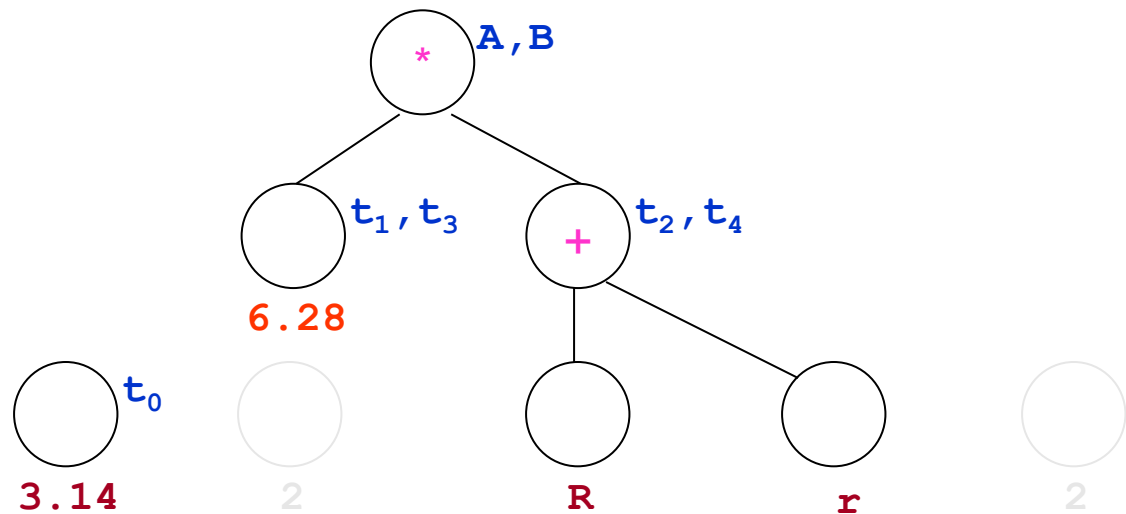
# One More Example (6)

- (1)  $t_0 = 3.14$
- (2)  $t_1 = 2 * t_0$
- (3)  $t_2 = R + r$
- (4)  $A = t_1 * t_2$
- (5)  $B = A$
- (6)  $t_3 = 2 * t_0$
- (7)  $t_4 = R + r$
- (8)  $t_5 = t_3 * t_4$
- (9)  $t_6 = R - r$
- (10)  $B = t_5 * t_6$



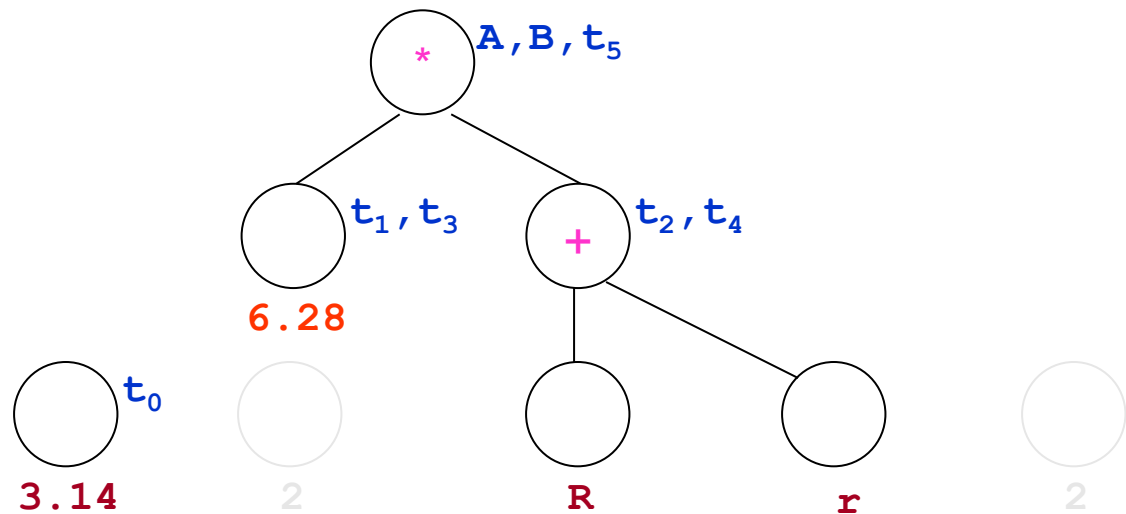
## One More Example (7)

- (1)  $t_0 = 3.14$
- (2)  $t_1 = 2 * t_0$
- (3)  $t_2 = R + r$
- (4)  $A = t_1 * t_2$
- (5)  $B = A$
- (6)  $t_3 = 2 * t_0$
- (7)  $t_4 = R + r$
- (8)  $t_5 = t_3 * t_4$
- (9)  $t_6 = R - r$
- (10)  $B = t_5 * t_6$



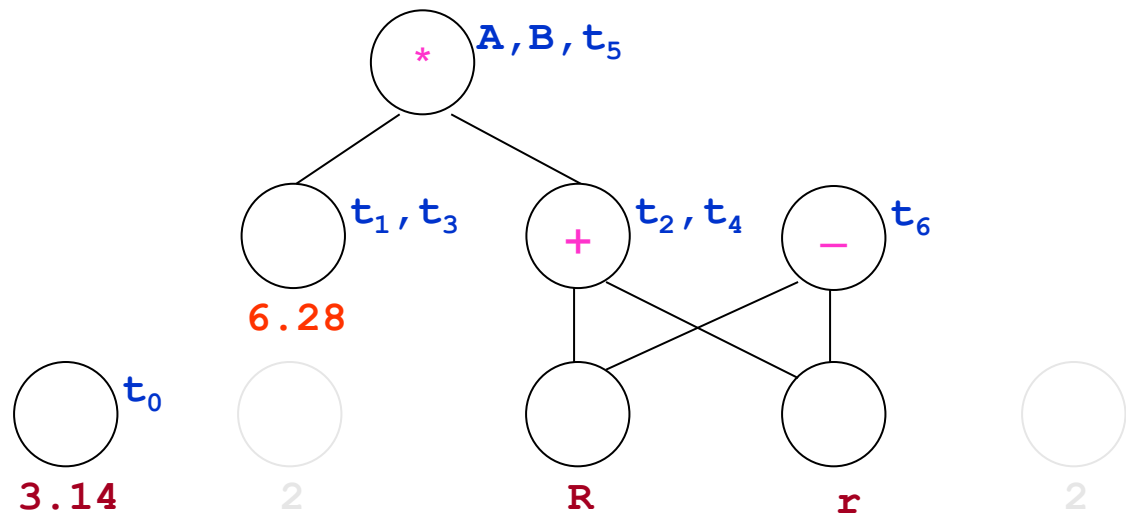
# One More Example (8)

- (1)  $t_0 = 3.14$
- (2)  $t_1 = 2 * t_0$
- (3)  $t_2 = R + r$
- (4)  $A = t_1 * t_2$
- (5)  $B = A$
- (6)  $t_3 = 2 * t_0$
- (7)  $t_4 = R + r$
- (8)  $t_5 = t_3 * t_4$
- (9)  $t_6 = R - r$
- (10)  $B = t_5 * t_6$



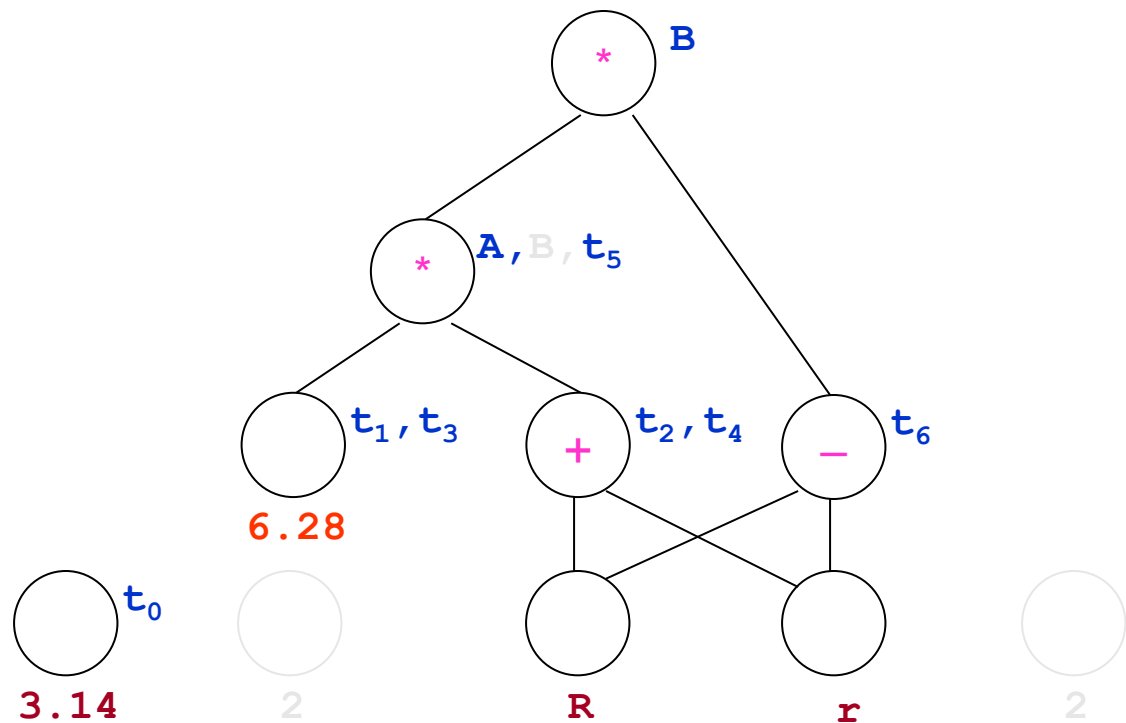
# One More Example (9)

- (1)  $t_0 = 3.14$
- (2)  $t_1 = 2 * t_0$
- (3)  $t_2 = R + r$
- (4)  $A = t_1 * t_2$
- (5)  $B = A$
- (6)  $t_3 = 2 * t_0$
- (7)  $t_4 = R + r$
- (8)  $t_5 = t_3 * t_4$
- (9)  $t_6 = R - r$
- (10)  $B = t_5 * t_6$



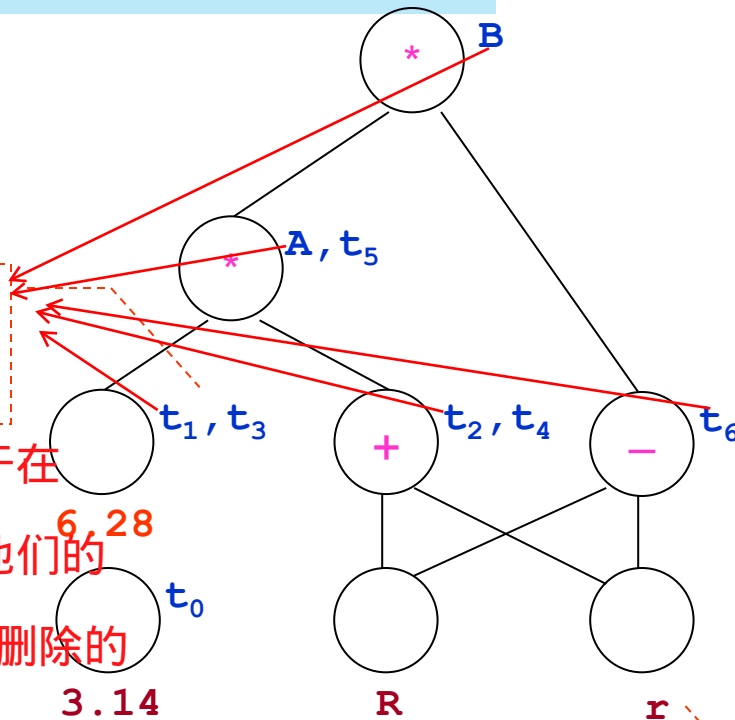
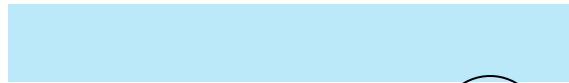
## One More Example (10)

- (1)  $t_0 = 3.14$
- (2)  $t_1 = 2 * t_0$
- (3)  $t_2 = R + r$
- (4)  $A = t_1 * t_2$
- (5)  $B = A$
- (6)  $t_3 = 2 * t_0$
- (7)  $t_4 = R + r$
- (8)  $t_5 = t_3 * t_4$
- (9)  $t_6 = R - r$
- (10)  $B = t_5 * t_6$



容易考，必考

# One More Example (end)



A label indicates a value available to other blocks

能不能删除取决于在出口处是否活着  
一般题目会假设他们的 liveness temporary 时可以删除的

考察：basic block dead 画图

- (1)  $t_0 = 3.14$
  - (2)  $t_1 = 6.28$
  - (3)  $t_3 = 6.28$
  - (4)  $t_2 = R + r$
  - (5)  $t_4 = t_2$
  - (6)  $L A = 6.28 * t_2^L$
  - (7)  $t_5 = A$
  - (8)  $t_6 = R - r$
  - (9)  $B = A * t_6$
- Live

A leaf indicates a value from outside the block





# 3. Control-Flow Analysis and Loop Optimization

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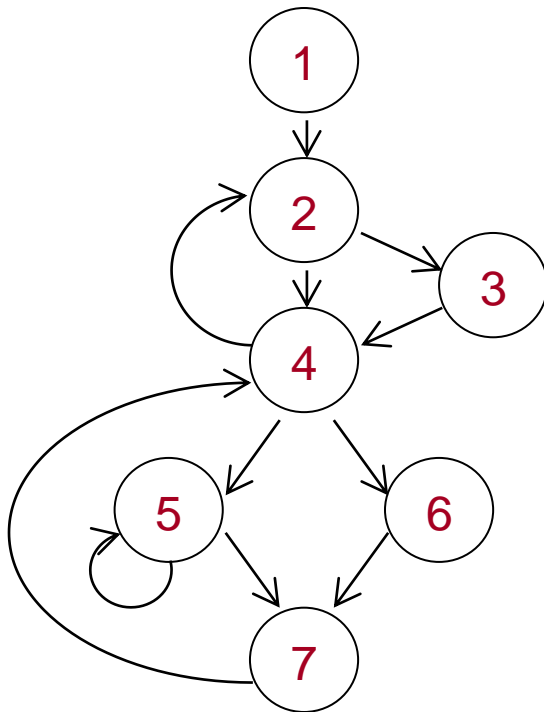
- Three important subproblems
  - How to define a loop based on a flow graph?
  - How to find a loop in a flow graph?
  - How to optimize a loop?

# Define Loops Based on Flow Graphs

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- A loop is a strongly connected subgraph with a unique entry (header).
  - Properties:
    - Strongly connected
    - Unique entry (destination of code motion)  
指的是唯一节点，不是边
    - A loop can be expressed as a sequence of nodes.

# An Example



There are 3 loops:

**{5}**      唯一入口指的是节点，不是箭头  
**{4, 5, 6, 7}**  
**{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7}**

They are NOT loops:

**{2, 4}**      Both 2 and 4 are entries  
**{2, 3, 4}** Both 2 and 4 are entries  
**{4, 5, 7}** Both 4 and 7 are entries  
**{4, 6, 7}** Both 4 and 7 are entries

# Dominators

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## ○ Notations

- $m \text{ DOM } n$  means  $m$  is a dominator of  $n$ .
- $D(n)$  is the set of all dominators of  $n$ .
  - $D(n) = \{m \mid m \text{ DOM } n\}$

## ○ Properties

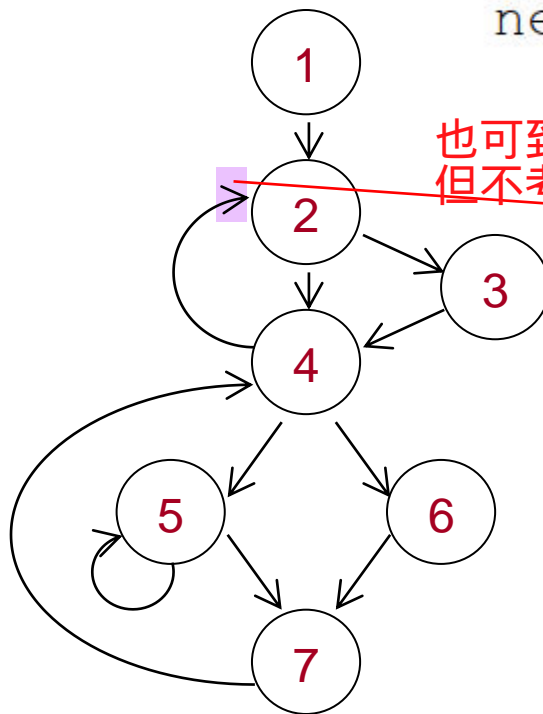
- The entry is a dominator of all nodes in the loop.
- The binary relation **DOM** is a partial order
  - Reflective, transitive, and antisymmetric.  
自反 传递 反对称

# Algorithm to Calculate $D(n)$

- Input: flow graph  $G = (N, E, n_0)$ 
  - $N$  = set of nodes;  $E$  = set of edges;  $n_0$  = entry.
- Algorithm
  1.  $D(n_0) = \{n_0\};$
  2. **foreach** ( $n \in N - \{n_0\}$ )  $D(n) = N;$
  3.  $\text{changed} = \text{true};$
  4. **while** ( $\text{changed}$ ) {
  5.      $\text{changed} = \text{false};$
  6.     **foreach** ( $n \in N - \{n_0\}$ ) {
  7.          $\text{newd} = \{n\} \cup (\bigcap_{p \in \text{PRE}(n)} D(p));$
  8.         **if** ( $D(n) \neq \text{newd}$ ) {
  9.              $D(n) = \text{newd}; \text{changed} = \text{true};$
  10.         }
  11.     }
  12. }

PRE = predecessor

# The Previous Example



$$\text{newd} = \{n\} \cup \left( \bigcap_{p \in \text{PRE}(n)} D(p) \right);$$

$$D(1) = \{1\}$$

$$D(2) = \{1, 2\}$$

$$D(3) = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$D(4) = \{1, 2, 4\}$$

$$D(5) = \{1, 2, 4, 5\}$$

$$D(6) = \{1, 2, 4, 6\}$$

$$D(7) = \{1, 2, 4, 7\}$$

也可到达  
但不考虑

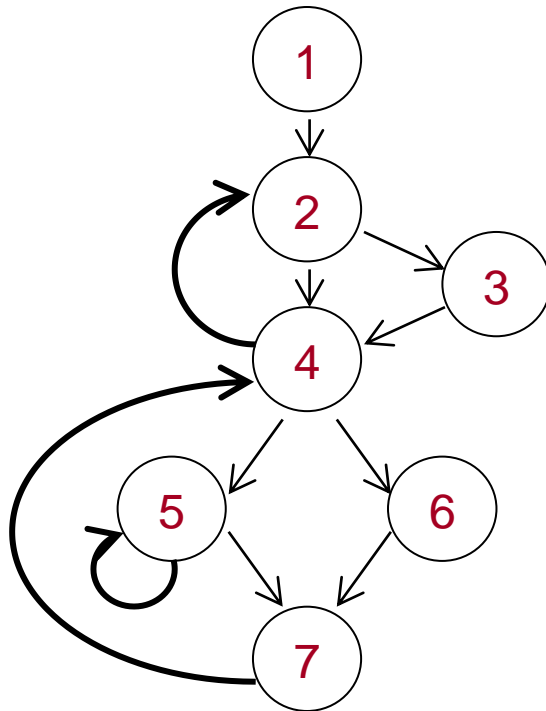
$\wedge + 4$

# Back Edges and Natural Loops

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- Back edge
  - $a \rightarrow b$  is a back edge if  $a \rightarrow b \in E \wedge b \text{ DOM } a$ .
- Natural loop
  - A natural loop defined by a back edge  $a \rightarrow b$   
=  $\{b\} \cup \{\text{nodes that can reach } a \text{ without going through } b\}$

# The Previous Example



There are 3 back edges:

**$5 \rightarrow 5$**

**$7 \rightarrow 4$**

**$4 \rightarrow 2$**

There are 3 natural loops:

**$\{5\}$  defined by  $5 \rightarrow 5$**

**$\{4, 5, 6, 7\}$  defined by  $7 \rightarrow 4$**

**$\{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$  defined by  $4 \rightarrow 2$**

不经过2可以到  
达4



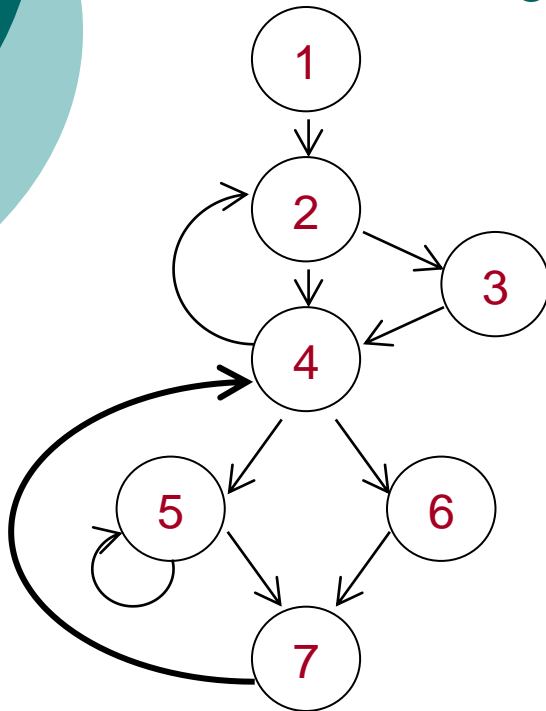
# Find Loops by Back Edges

○ Input: back edge  $n \rightarrow d$ .

○ Algorithm:

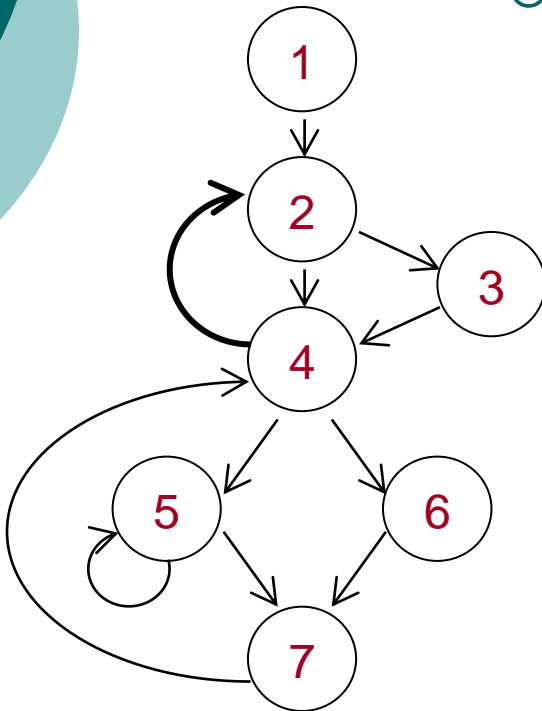
```
1. void insert(Node m) {
2.     if (m ∉ loop) { // d will not be pushed
3.         loop = loop ∪ {m};
4.         stack.push(m)
5.     }
6. }
7. void main() {
8.     Stack stack = new Stack();
9.     loop = {d}; // PRE(d) will not be added
10.    insert(n);
11.    while (stack.notEmpty()) {
12.        m = stack.pop();
13.        foreach (p ∈ PRE(m)) insert(p)
14.    }
15. }
```

# Example #1



- Given the back edge  $7 \rightarrow 4$ 
  1. initialize: loop =  $\{4, 7\}$ , stack =  $[7]$ .
  2. pop 7; insert 5 and 6;  
loop =  $\{4, 7, 5, 6\}$ , stack =  $[5, 6]$ .
  3. pop 6; insert 4 (already in loop);  
loop has no change, stack =  $[5]$ .
  4. pop 5; insert 4 and 5 (both in loop);  
loop has no change, stack =  $[\ ]$ .
  5. result: loop =  $\{4, 7, 5, 6\}$ .

## Example #2



### ○ Given the back edge $4 \rightarrow 2$

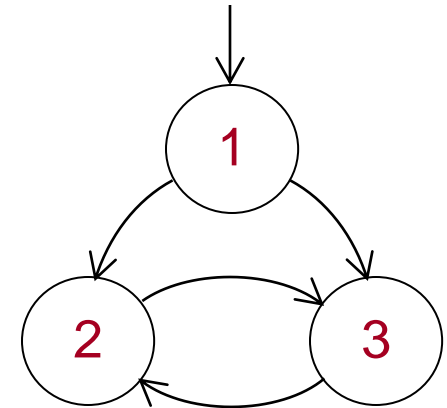
1. initialize: loop = {2, 4}, stack = [4].
2. pop 4; insert 2, 3 and 7 (2 already in loop);  
loop = {2, 4, 3, 7}, stack = [3, 7].
3. pop 7; insert 5 and 6;  
loop = {2, 4, 3, 7, 5, 6}, stack = [3, 5, 6].
4. pop 6; insert 4 (already in loop);  
loop had no change, stack = [3, 5].
5. pop 5; insert 4 and 5 (both in loop);  
loop has no change, stack = [3].
6. pop 3; insert 2 (already in loop);  
loop has no change, stack = [].
7. result: loop = {2, 4, 3, 7, 5, 6}.

# Properties of Natural Loops

- Natural loops do not cover all of loops in common sense
  - E.g. there is no back edge in the following flow graph, but it does have a loop in common sense:  $\{2, 3\}$ .
  - Only in a reducible flow graph, can the back edges find all loops.

- Reducible flow graph

- After removing all back edges, the subgraph is acyclic.
- In a reducible flow graph, the only entry to a loop is the header.
- A flow graph generated from a structured program is commonly reducible.



# Loop Optimization: Code Motion

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- Target of code motion
  - Following the header of the loop.

- What code can be moved?

For an instruction  $x = y \text{ op } z$ ,

1. It is a loop-invariant operation. 循环无关
  - All possible definitions of  $y$  and  $z$  are outside the loop, including constants, or (recursively)
  - Defined by loop-invariant values.
2. No other statement in the loop defines  $x$ .
3. All uses of  $x$  in the loop are defined by it.

# Loop Optimization: Reducing Strength and Eliminating Induction Variables

---

- Basic induction variable

19.5

- $i = i \pm C$

- Unique assignment to  $i$  in the loop.
    - $C$  is loop-invariant.

- Family of induction variables

- $j = C_1 * i \pm C_2$

- Both  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are loop-invariant.

- Motivation

- Substitute  $i$  with some  $j$  in the family.
    - The multiplication of  $j$  can be removed.
    - Then  $i$  can be eliminated.
  - Specially effective to indexing variables.

# An Example: Family of Induction Variables

Only one loop:

**{ B<sub>2</sub> }**

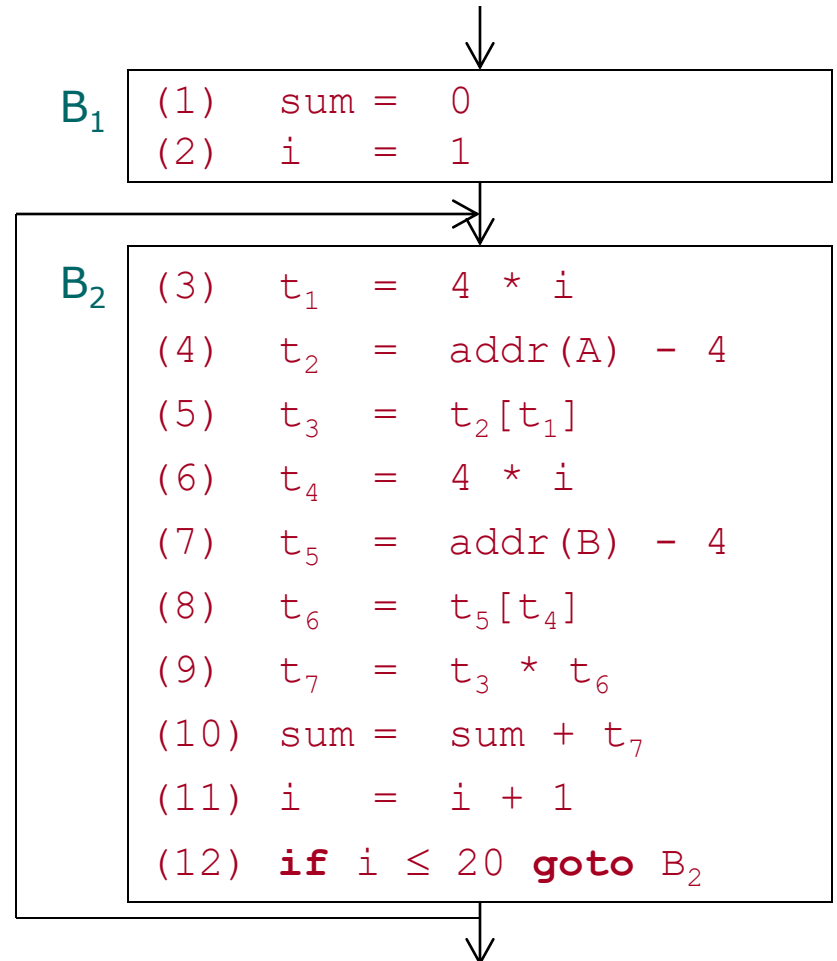
Basic induction variable:

**i** 跟着i一起变化

Family of induction variables:

**t<sub>1</sub>** = (i, 4, 0) = 4 \* i + 0

**t<sub>4</sub>** = (i, 4, 0) = 4 \* i + 0



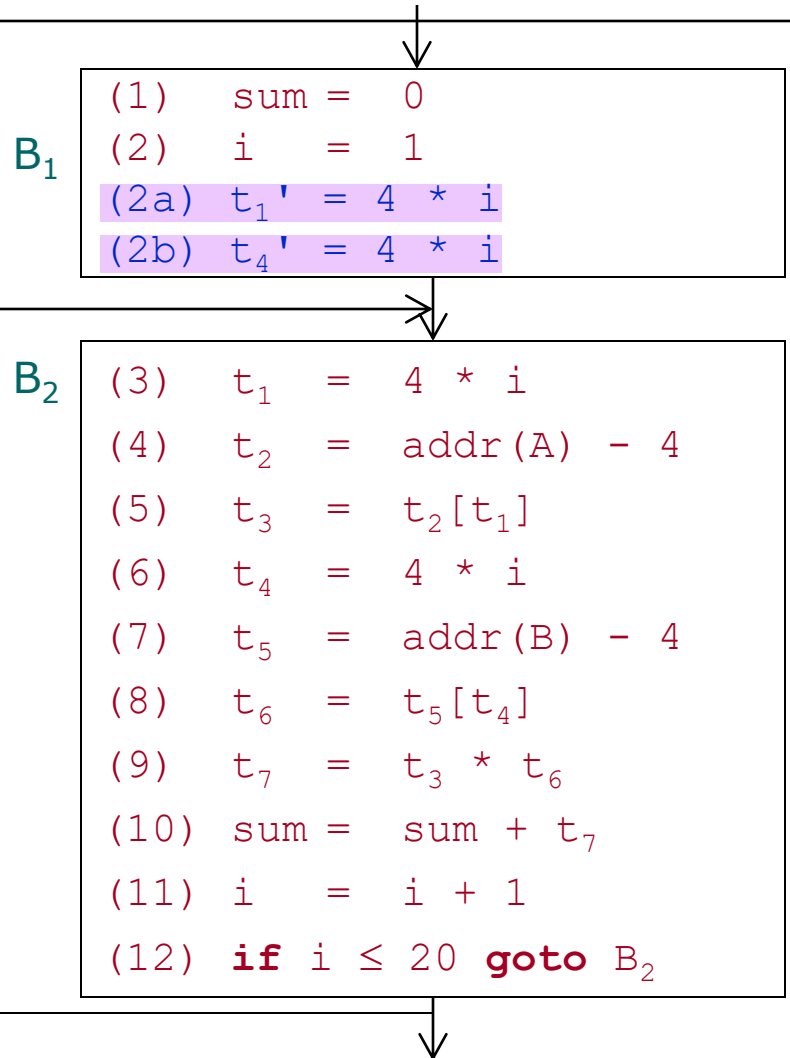
# An Example: Strength Reduction (1)

Create a new variable **j'** (e.g. **t<sub>1</sub>'** and **t<sub>4</sub>'**) for each induction variable in family **j = C<sub>1</sub> \* i ± C<sub>2</sub>** (e.g. **t<sub>1</sub>** and **t<sub>4</sub>**).

Initialize new variables at the end of the preheader:

**j' = C<sub>1</sub> \* i**

**j' = j' + C<sub>2</sub>** // only if C<sub>2</sub> ≠ 0





# An Example: Strength Reduction (2)

Change the definition of each  
induction variable (e.g.  $t_1$  and  
 $t_4$ ):

$j = j'$

$B_1$

```
(1)  sum = 0
(2)  i   = 1
(2a)  $t_1'$  = 4 * i
(2b)  $t_4'$  = 4 * i
```

$B_2$

```
(3)   $t_1$  =  $t_1'$ 
(4)   $t_2$  = addr(A) - 4
(5)   $t_3$  =  $t_2[t_1]$ 
(6)   $t_4$  =  $t_4'$ 
(7)   $t_5$  = addr(B) - 4
(8)   $t_6$  =  $t_5[t_4]$ 
(9)   $t_7$  =  $t_3 * t_6$ 
(10) sum = sum +  $t_7$ 
(11) i   = i + 1
(12) if i ≤ 20 goto B2
```

# An Example: Strength Reduction (3)

Add linear assignments to new variables following the unique definition of the basic induction variable ( $i = i \pm C$ ):

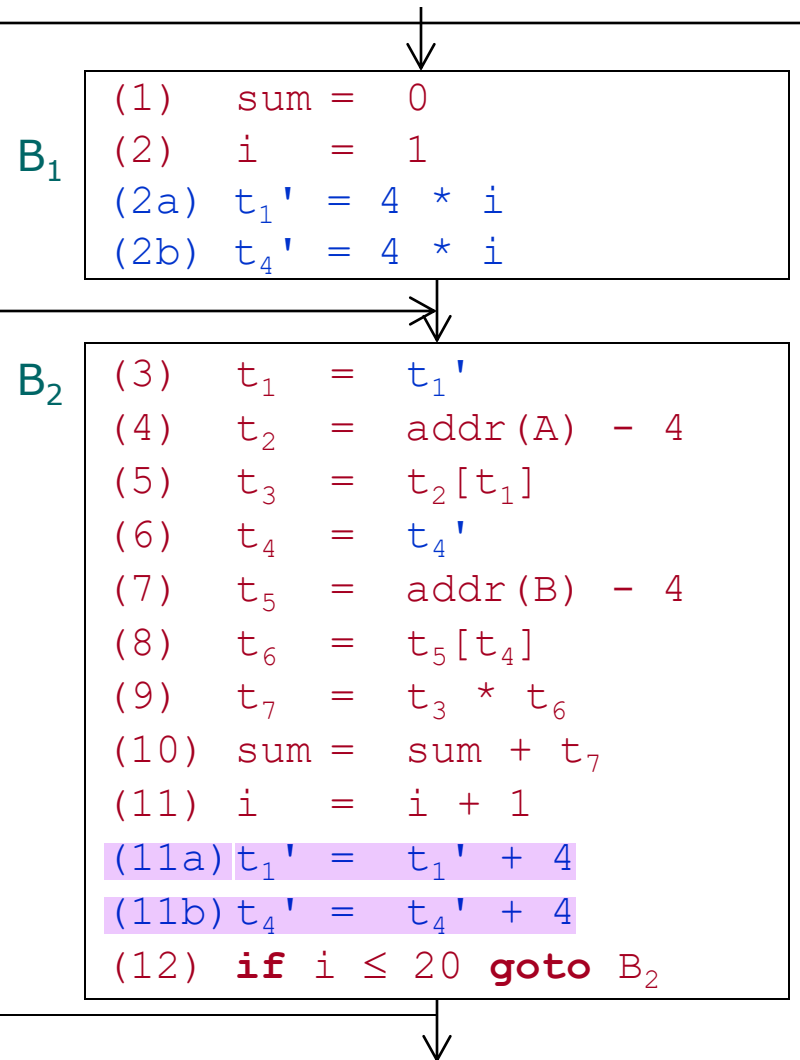
$$t = C_1 * C$$

$$j' = j' \pm t$$

If  $C == \pm 1$ , only one statement need to be added:

$$j' = j' \pm C_1$$

乘法变成加法



# An Example: Eliminate Dead Induction Variables

If induction variable **j** is not live on exit,

change the use of **j** to **j'** (e.g. change reference from **t<sub>1</sub>** and **t<sub>4</sub>** to **t<sub>1</sub>'** and **t<sub>4</sub>'**),

and then remove the definition of **j** (e.g. **t<sub>1</sub>** and **t<sub>4</sub>**).

B<sub>1</sub>

```
(1)  sum = 0
(2)  i   = 1
(2a) t1' = 4 * i
(2b) t4' = 4 * i
```

B<sub>2</sub>

```
(3)  t1 = t1'
(4)  t2 = addr(A) - 4
(5)  t3 = t2[t1']
(6)  t4 = t4'
(7)  t5 = addr(B) - 4
(8)  t6 = t5[t4']
(9)  t7 = t3 * t6
(10) sum = sum + t7
(11) i   = i + 1
(11a) t1' = t1' + 4
(11b) t4' = t4' + 4
(12) if i ≤ 20 goto B2
```

# An Example: Change Loop Condition

Pick a new induction variable from the family (say  $t_1'$ ), then change the loop condition.

$B_1$

```
(1)  sum = 0
(2)  i   = 1
(2a)  $t_1' = 4 * i$ 
(2b)  $t_4' = 4 * i$ 
```

$B_2$

```
(3)   $t_1 = t_1'$ 
(4)   $t_2 = \text{addr}(A) - 4$ 
(5)   $t_3 = t_2[t_1']$ 
(6)   $t_4 = t_4'$ 
(7)   $t_5 = \text{addr}(B) - 4$ 
(8)   $t_6 = t_5[t_4']$ 
(9)   $t_7 = t_3 * t_6$ 
(10)  $\text{sum} = \text{sum} + t_7$ 
(11)  $i = i + 1$ 
(11a)  $t_1' = t_1' + 4$ 
(11b)  $t_4' = t_4' + 4$ 
(12) if  $i \leq 20$  goto  $B_2$ 
(12a)  $R = 4 * 20$ 
(12b) if  $t_1' \leq R$  goto  $B_2$ 
```

# An Example: Remove Basic Induction Variable

If the basic induction variable **i** is not live on exit, the definition of **i** can be removed.

B<sub>1</sub>

```
(1)  sum = 0
(2)  i    = 1
(2a) t1' = 4 * i
(2b) t4' = 4 * i
```

B<sub>2</sub>

```
(3)  t1 = t1'
(4)  t2 = addr(A) - 4
(5)  t3 = t2[t1']
(6)  t4 = t4'
(7)  t5 = addr(B) - 4
(8)  t6 = t5[t4']
(9)  t7 = t3 * t6
(10) sum = sum + t7
(11) i = i + 1
(11a) t1' = t1' + 4
(11b) t4' = t4' + 4
(12) if i ≤ 20 goto B2
(12a) R = 4 * 20
(12b) if t1' ≤ R goto B2
```

# An Example: After Loop Optimization

The optimized code facilitate further local optimization.

B<sub>1</sub>

```
(1)  sum = 0
(2)  i    = 1
(2a) t1' = 4 * i
(2b) t4' = 4 * i
```

B<sub>2</sub>

```
(4)  t2 = addr(A) - 4
(5)  t3 = t2[t1']
(7)  t5 = addr(B) - 4
(8)  t6 = t5[t4']
(9)  t7 = t3 * t6
(10) sum = sum + t7
(11a) t1' = t1' + 4
(11b) t4' = t4' + 4
(12a) R = 4 * 20
(12b) if t1' ≤ R goto B2
```

## 4. Data-Flow Analysis and Global Optimization

---

- Collect information about data flows
  - How a variable is assigned (**definition**)?
  - How a variable is referred (**use**)?
- Control-flow vs. data-flow
  - Control-flow analysis: basic blocks are considered as **black** boxes.
  - Data-flow analysis: basic blocks are considered as **white** boxes.

# Where Global Information Are Needed?

---

- Local optimization
  - Assignments to a variable can be removed if the variable is never used.
- Loop optimization: code motion
  - Determine loop-invariant operations according to the definitions of variables.
  - Code motion requires the operation is the unique definition in the loop.
  - Code motion also requires the defined variable is not live on the exit of the loop.
- Loop optimization: induction variable elimination
  - induction variables can be removed if it is not used outside the loop.
- Code generation
  - Information on liveness on exit facilitate register utilization.



# What Global Information Are Needed?

组成成分

---

## ○ Definition

- All assignments (sources) of an R-value in a statement.

## ○ Use

- All possible use of an L-value in a statement.

## ○ Liveness

- Will the variable be referred as an R-value after a statement.

# Basic Concepts

## ○ Points in a flow graph

between statements

- Between two adjacent statements.
- Before the first and after the last statement.

## ○ Definition of a variable **x**

statement

- A statement that (may) assign(s) a value to **x**.
- L-value. 左值

## ○ Use of a variable **x**

statement

- A statement that refers **x** as an operand.
- R-value. 右值

# Basic Concepts (cont')

---

- Definition **d** reaches a point **p**
  - There exists a path from the point immediately following **d** to **p**, such that **d** is not "killed" along the path.
  - While we use **x** immediately following **p**, the value of **x** **may be** determined by **d**.

# Ud-Chains vs. Du-Chains

---

- Ud-chain: the use-definition chain of a variable  $x$  in a use statement  $s$

记住看后面一个

- Set of definitions of  $x$  that can reach  $s$ .
- Useful for finding loop-invariants.
- Also for global constant folding.
- Du-chain: the definition-use chain of a variable  $x$  in a definition statement  $s$ 
  - Set of uses of  $x$  that can be reached from  $s$ .
  - Useful for eliminating induction variables in loop optimization.
  - Also for finding family of induction variables.

# Reaching Definition Analysis

---

- Forward data-flow equation

$$\begin{aligned} \text{out}[B] &= (\text{in}[B] - \text{kill}[B]) \cup \text{gen}[B] \\ \text{in}[B] &= \bigcup_{p \in \text{PRE}(B)} \text{out}[p] \end{aligned}$$

- $\text{in}[B]$ : ud-chain before the entry of B.
- $\text{out}[B]$ : ud-chain after the exit of B.
- $\text{gen}[B]$ : all definitions in B that can reach the exit of B.
- $\text{kill}[B]$ : all definitions outside B that are killed by B.

# Construction of Ud-Chains

---

○ **Input:** `gen[]` and `kill[]`; **Output:** `in[]` and `out[]`.

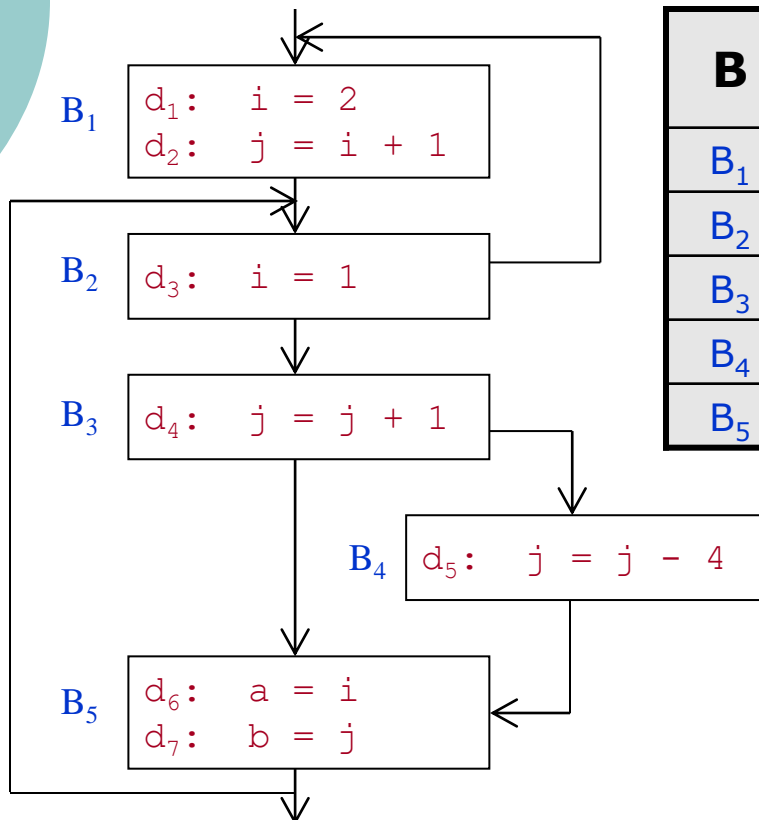
○ **Algorithm**

```
for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {    // initialize
    in[Bi] =  $\emptyset$ ;  out[Bi] = gen[Bi];
}
changed = true;
while (changed) {    // iterative
    changed = false;
    for (i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
        newIn =  $\bigcup_{p \in \text{PRE}[Bi]} \text{out}[p]$ ;
        if (newIn  $\neq$  in[Bi]) {
            changed = true;
            in[Bi] = newIn;
            out[Bi] = (in[Bi] - kill[Bi])  $\cup$  gen[Bi];
        }
    }
}
```

# An Example:

## (1) $gen[ ]$ and $kill[ ]$ is known

- Only variable **i** and **j** are considered



B	gen[B]		kill[B]	
	Set	Vector	Set	Vector
$B_1$	$\{d_1, d_2\}$	1100000	$\{d_3, d_4, d_5\}$	0011100
$B_2$	$\{d_3\}$	0010000	$\{d_1\}$	1000000
$B_3$	$\{d_4\}$	0001000	$\{d_2, d_5\}$	0100100
$B_4$	$\{d_5\}$	0000100	$\{d_2, d_4\}$	0101000
$B_5$	$\emptyset$	0000000	$\emptyset$	0000000

# An Example:

## (2) Iterations of in[ ] and out[ ]

- Depth-first visit:  $B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4$  and  $B_5$

B	Init		1 <sup>st</sup>		2 <sup>nd</sup>		3 <sup>rd</sup>		4 <sup>th</sup>	
	in[B]	out[B]	in[B]	out[B]	in[B]	out[B]	in[B]	out[B]	in[B]	out[B]
$B_1$	0000000	1100000	<b>0010000</b>	<b>1100000</b>	<b>0110000</b>	<b>1100000</b>	<b>0111100</b>	<b>1100000</b>	0111100	1100000
$B_2$	0000000	0010000	<b>1100000</b>	<b>0110000</b>	<b>1111100</b>	<b>0111100</b>	1111100	0111100	1111100	0111100
$B_3$	0000000	0001000	<b>0110000</b>	<b>0011000</b>	<b>0111100</b>	<b>0011000</b>	0111100	0011000	0111100	0011000
$B_4$	0000000	0000100	<b>0011000</b>	<b>0010100</b>	0011000	0010100	0011000	0010100	0011000	0010100
$B_5$	0000000	0000000	<b>0011100</b>	<b>0011100</b>	0011100	0011100	0011100	0011100	0011100	0011100



# An Example:

## (3) Construction of Ud-Chains

---

- Compute ud-chains with  $\text{in}[B]$ .
  - If  $\mathbf{s.x}$  has definitions before  $\mathbf{s}$  in  $B$ , ud-chain of  $\mathbf{s.x}$  is a singleton (definition nearest to  $\mathbf{s}$ ).
  - Otherwise, ud-chain of  $\mathbf{s.x}$  is all definitions of  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\text{in}[B]$ .
- Result ud-chains
  - Variable  $i$  at definition  $d_2$ :  $\{d_1\}$
  - Variable  $j$  at definition  $d_4$ :  $\{d_2, d_4, d_5\}$
  - Variable  $j$  at definition  $d_5$ :  $\{d_4\}$
  - Variable  $i$  at definition  $d_6$ :  $\{d_3\}$
  - Variable  $j$  at definition  $d_7$ :  $\{d_4, d_5\}$

$d_3$  is the definition of  $i$ , not  $j$ !

$d_4$  and  $d_5$  are the definitions of  $j$ , not  $i$ !

# Global Constant Propagation and Folding Based on Ud-Chains

---

```
changed = true;
while (changed) {
  changed = false;
  foreach (statement [S: x = ...]) {
    foreach (operand S.y) { // constant propagation
      if (S.y.ud-chain has only one i and i is [y = CONST]) {
        replace all S.y with CONST;
        changed = true;
      }
    }
  }
  if (S has op and each operand is CONST) { // folding
    let C = result of constant operation;
    replace S with [x = C];
    changed = true;
  }
}
```

# More Data-Flow Equations: Available Expressions

---

- **Forward** data-flow equation

$$\begin{aligned} \text{out}[B] &= (\text{in}[B] - E\_kill[B]) \cup E\_gen[B] \\ \text{in}[B] &= \text{iif}(B == \text{ENTRY}, \emptyset, \bigcap_{p \in \text{PRE}(B)} \text{out}[p]) \end{aligned}$$

- $\text{in}[B]$ : available expressions before  $B$ .
- $\text{out}[B]$ : available expressions after  $B$ .
- $E\_gen[B]$ : expressions generated by  $B$ .
- $E\_kill[B]$ : expressions killed by  $B$ .

- Motivation

- Available expression  $E = X \text{ op } Y$  at  $\mathbf{s}$  is the last evaluation of  $\mathbf{E}$  from entry point to  $\mathbf{s}$ , and no redefinition of  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{Y}$  after the definition of  $\mathbf{E}$ .
- Useful: global common expression elimination.

# More Data-Flow Equations: Liveness Analysis

---

- **Backward** data-flow equation

$$\begin{aligned} \text{in}[B] &= (\text{out}[B] - \text{def}[B]) \cup \text{use}[B] \\ \text{out}[B] &= \bigcup_{s \in \text{SUCC}(B)} \text{in}[s] \end{aligned}$$

- $\text{in}[B]$ : live variables before  $B$ .
- $\text{out}[B]$ : live variables after  $B$ .
- $\text{use}[B]$ : live variables generated by  $B$ .
- $\text{def}[B]$ : live variables killed by  $B$ .

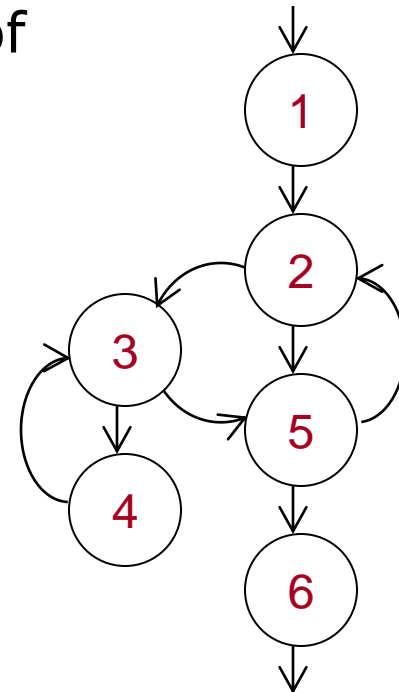
SUCC = successor

# Exercise 12.1

---

○ Given the following flow graph:

- Compute the dominators of all nodes.
- Find all back edges in the flow graph.
- Find all natural loops defined by each back edge.



# Further Reading

---

- Dragon Book, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (DBv2)
  - Review:
    - Section 8.4-8.5 on DAG-based block optimization.
  - Comprehensive Reading:
    - Section 9.1 on an example of loop optimization.
    - Section 9.6.1, 9.6.6 on basic concepts of loop optimization.
    - Section 9.2.1-9.2.4 on data-flow equations and reaching definition analysis.
  - Skip Reading:
    - Section 9.2.5-9.2.6 on liveness and available expression analysis.
    - Section 9.6.4 on properties of reducible flow graphs.

# Enjoy the Course!

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