

# CC Lecture 2

Prepared for: 7th Sem, CE, DDU

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# Code Optimization

- **Code Optimization** aims at improving the execution efficiency of a program.
- This is achieved in two ways:
  1. **Redundancies** in a program are **eliminated**.
  2. **Computations** in a program are **rearranged** or **rewritten** to make it **execute efficiently**.
- Code optimization must not change the meaning of a program.

# Scope of optimization

1. Optimization seeks to improve a program rather than the algorithm used in a program.

Thus, ***replacement of an algorithm by a more efficient algorithm is beyond the scope of optimization.***

2. Efficient code generation for a specific target machine (e.g. by fully exploiting its instruction set) is also beyond its scope; it belongs in the back end of the compiler.

*The optimization techniques are thus independent of both the PL(programming language) and the target machine.*

# Two pass schematic for language processing

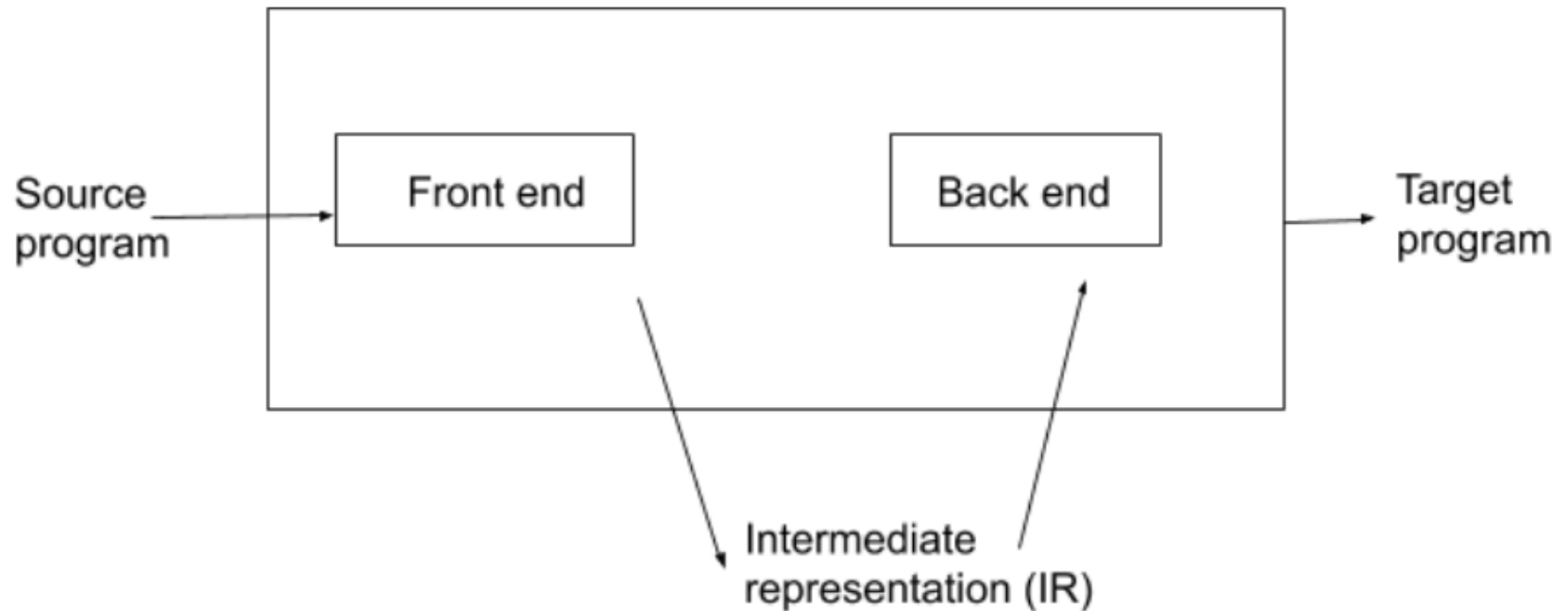


Figure 1 Two pass schematic for language processing

# Schematic of an optimizing compiler

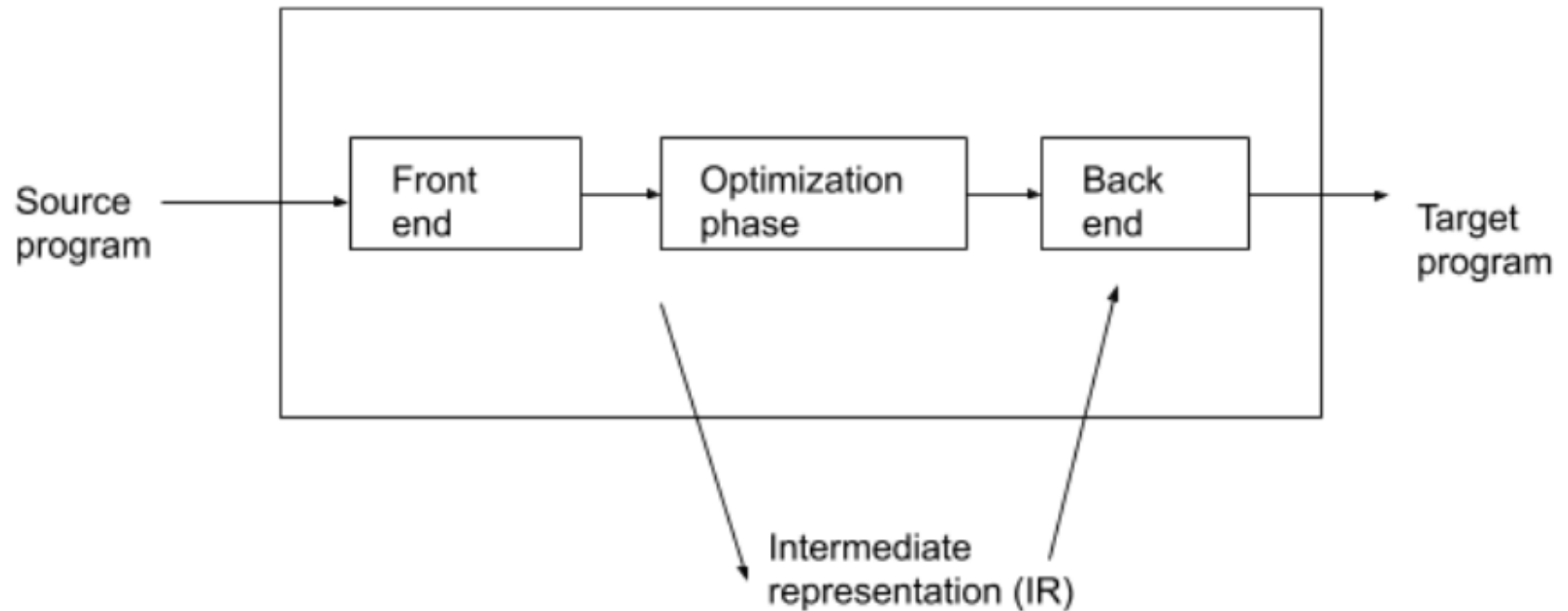


Figure 2 Schematic of an optimizing compiler

# Optimizing Transformations

- An *optimizing transformation* is a rule for rewriting a segment of a program to improve its execution efficiency without affecting its meaning.
- Optimizing transformations are classified into *local and global* transformations depending on whether they are applied over small segments of a program consisting of a few source statements or over large segments consisting of loops or function bodies.
- The reason for this distinction is the difference in the costs and benefits of the optimizing transformations.

# Few of the optimizing transformations

1. Compile time evaluation
2. Elimination of common subexpression
3. Dead code elimination
4. Frequency reduction
5. Strength reduction

# Compile time evaluation

- Execution efficiency can be improved by performing certain actions specified in a program during compilation itself.
- This eliminates the need to perform them during execution of the program, thereby reducing the execution time of the program.
- *Constant folding* is the main optimization of this kind.
- When all operands in an operation are constants, the operation can be performed at compilation time.
- The result of the operation, also a constant, can replace the original evaluation in the program.



# Compile time evaluation

- Example

An assignment  $a := 3.14157 / 2$  can be replaced by  $a := 1.570785$ , thereby eliminating a division operation.

# Elimination of common subexpressions

- **Common subexpressions** are occurrences of expressions yielding the same value.  
(Such expressions are called **equivalent expressions**.)
- Let  $CS_i$  designate a set of common subexpressions.
- It is possible to eliminate an occurrence  $e_j \in CS_i$  if, no matter how the evaluation of  $e_j$  is reached during the execution of the program, the value of some  $e_k \in CS_i$  would have been already computed.
- Provision is made to save this value and use it at the place of occurrence of  $e_j$

# Elimination of common subexpressions

$a := b * c$

---

$x := b * c + 5.2$

$\rightarrow$

$t := b * c$

$a := t$

---

$x := t + 5.2$

- Here  $CS_i$  contains two occurrences of  $b*c$ .
- The **second occurrence of  $b*c$**  can be eliminated because the first occurrence of  $b*c$  is always evaluated before the second occurrence is reached during the execution of the program.
- The value computed at the first occurrence is saved in  **$t$** .
- This value is used in the assignment to  $x$ .

# Dead code elimination

- The code which can be omitted from a program without affecting its result is called *dead code*.
- Dead code is detected by checking whether the value assigned in an assignment statement is used anywhere in the program.

•

An assignment  $x := \langle \text{exp} \rangle$  constitutes dead code if the value assigned to  $x$  is not used in the program, no matter how control flows after executing this assignment.

- **Note** that  $\langle \text{exp} \rangle$  constitute dead code only if its execution does not produce side effects, i.e. only if it does not contain function calls.

# Frequency reduction

- Execution time of a program can be reduced by moving code from a part of a program which is executed very frequently to another part of the program which is executed fewer times.
- For example, the transformation of *loop optimization* moves **loop invariant code** out of a loop and places it prior to loop entry.

# Frequency reduction

- Here,  **$x := 25 * a$**  is loop invariant. Hence in the optimized program it is computed only once before entering the **for** loop.
- **$y := x + z$**  is not loop invariant. Hence it cannot be subjected to frequency reduction.

```
for i := 1 to 100 do  
begin  
  z := i  
   $x := 25 * a$   
  y := x+z  
End
```

→

```
 $x := 25 * a$   
for i := 1 to 100 do  
begin  
  z := i  
  y := x+z  
end
```

# Strength reduction

- The strength reduction optimization replaces the occurrence of a time consuming operation (a **high strength** operation) by an occurrence of a faster operation (a **low strength** operation).
- e.g. replacement of a multiplication by an addition.

```
for i := 1 to 10 do  
begin  
  ---  
  k := i*5  
  ---  
end
```

→

```
  itemp := 5  
for i :=1 to 10 do  
begin  
  ---  
  k := itemp  
  ---  
  itemp := itemp+5  
end
```

# Strength reduction

- **Note** that strength reduction optimization is **not** performed on operations involving **floating point operands** because finite precision of floating point arithmetic cannot guarantee equivalence of results after strength reduction.



# Practice...

1. `r = 20; area = (22/7) * r * r;`
2. `a = b + c; p = q + r; d = c + r; x = b + c;`
3. `x = (y - (50/100));`
4. 

```
for(i=0; i<n ;i++){  
    sum = sum + i;  
    a = x * y;  
}
```
5. `q = 10; if(q == 0) { p = r + s; }`
6. `a = b * 4;`

# Three Address Code

- In **three-address code**, there is **at most one operator** on the right side of an instruction; that is, no built-up arithmetic expressions are permitted.
- Thus, a source-language expression like  $x + y * z$  might be translated into the sequence of three-address instructions

$$t1 = y * z$$

$$t2 = x + t1$$

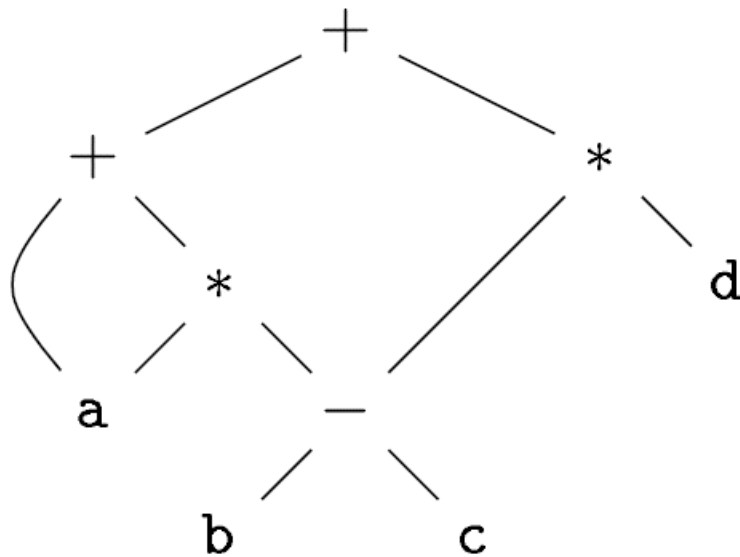
where  $t1$  and  $t2$  are compiler-generated temporary names.

# Benefits

- Desirable for target-code generation and optimization
  - multi-operator arithmetic expressions and of nested flow-of-control statements are unravelled
- The code can be rearranged easily
  - use of names for the intermediate values computed by a program

Three-address code is a linearized representation of a syntax tree or a DAG in which explicit names correspond to the interior nodes of the graph.

DAG (Directed Acyclic Graph)



Three address code

$t1 = b - c$

$t2 = a * t1$

$t3 = a + t2$

$t4 = t1 * d$

$t5 = t3 + t4$

Three address code = Address + Instructions

# Address in Three address code

## 1. A name.

- For convenience, we allow source-program names to appear as addresses in three-address code.
- In an implementation, a source name is replaced by a pointer to its symbol-table entry, where all information about the name is kept.

## 2. A constant.

- In practice, a compiler must deal with many different types of constants and variables.
- Type conversions within expressions can be both implicit as well as explicit.

# Address in Three address code

## **3. A compiler-generated temporary.**

- It is useful, especially in optimizing compilers, to create a distinct name each time a temporary is needed.
- These temporaries can be combined, if possible, when registers are allocated to variables.

# Symbolic labels

- Symbolic labels will be used by instructions that alter the flow of control.
- A **symbolic label** represents the index of a three-address instruction in the sequence of instructions.
- Actual indexes can be substituted for the labels, either by making a separate pass or by “backpatching”.



# Three-address instruction forms

1. **Assignment instructions** of the form  **$x = y \text{ op } z$** ,
  - where op is a binary arithmetic or logical operation,
  - and x, y, and z are addresses.
2. **Assignments** of the form  **$x = \text{op } y$** ,
  - where op is a unary operation.
  - Essential unary operations include unary minus, logical negation, and conversion operators that, for example, convert an integer to a floating-point number.
3. **Copy instructions** of the form  **$x = y$** ,
  - where x is assigned the value of y.
4. **An unconditional jump goto L.**
  - The three-address instruction with label L is the next to be executed.

# Three-address instruction forms

5. **Conditional jumps** of the form **if x goto L** and **ifFalse x goto L**.
  - These instructions execute the instruction with label L next if x is true and false, respectively.
  - Otherwise, the following three-address instruction in sequence is executed next, as usual.
6. **Conditional jumps** such as **if x relop y goto L**,
  - which apply a **relational operator** (<, ==, >=, etc.) to x and y, and execute the instruction with label L next if x stands in relation relop to y.
  - If not, the three-address instruction following if x relop y goto L is executed next, in sequence.

# Three-address instruction forms

**7. Procedure calls and returns** are implemented using the following instructions for procedure and function call

- **param x** for parameters
- **call p, n**
- **y = call p, n**

e.g.

param x1

param x2

...

param xn

call p, n

- generated as part of a call of the procedure  $p(x_1; x_2; \dots; x_n)$ .

# Three-address instruction forms

- The integer  $n$ , indicating the number of actual parameters in “**call  $p, n$ ,**” is not redundant because calls can be nested.
- That is, some of the first param statements could be parameters of a call that comes after  $p$  returns its value; that value becomes another parameter of the later call.

# Three-address instruction forms

8. **Indexed copy instructions** of the form  $x = y[i]$  and  $x[i]=y$ .
- The instruction  $x = y[i]$  sets  $x$  to the value in the location  $i$  memory units beyond location  $y$ .
  - The instruction  $x[i]=y$  sets the contents of the location  $i$  units beyond  $x$  to the value of  $y$ .

# Three-address instruction forms

9. **Address and pointer assignments** of the form  $x = \&y$ ,  $x = *y$ , and  $*x = y$ .
- The instruction  $x = \&y$  sets the r-value of  $x$  to be the location (l-value) of  $y$ . Presumably  $y$  is a name, perhaps a temporary, that denotes an expression with an l-value such as  $A[i][j]$ , and  $x$  is a pointer name or temporary.
  - In the instruction  $x = *y$ , presumably  $y$  is a pointer or a temporary whose r-value is a location. The r-value of  $x$  is made equal to the contents of that location.
  - Finally,  $*x = y$  sets the r-value of the object pointed to by  $x$  to the r-value of  $y$ .

```
void quicksort(int m, int n){  
    /* recursively sorts a[m] through a[n] */  
    int i, j; int v, x;  
    if (n <= m) return;  
        /* fragment begins here */  
        i = m-1; j = n; v = a[n];  
        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; /* swap a[i], a[j] */  
        }  
        x = a[i]; a[i] = a[n]; a[n] = x; /* swap a[i], a[n] */  
        /* fragment ends here */  
        quicksort(m,j); quicksort(i+1,n);  
    }
```

## Generating Three address code for given code fragment

- **$i = m-1;$**  (1)  $i = m-1$
- **$j = n;$**  (2)  $j = n$
- **$v = a[n];$**  (3)  $t1 = 4 * n$   
(4)  $v = a[t1]$

Here, it is assumed that  
int occupies 4 bytes.



## Generating Three address code for given code fragment

**do i = i + 1;**

**while (a[i] < v);**

(5) i = i + 1

(6) t2 = 4 \* i

(7) t3 = a[t2]

(8) if t3 < v goto (5)

**do j = j - 1;**

**while (a[j] > v);**

(9) j = j - 1

(10) t4 = 4 \* j

(11) t5 = a[t4]

(12) if t5 > v goto (9)

# Generating Three address code for given code fragment

**if (i >= j) break;**

**(13) if i>=j goto (23)**

**x = a[i];**

**(14) t6 = 4 \* i**

**(15) x = a[t6]**

**a[i] = a[j];**

**(16) t7 = 4 \* i**

**(17) t8 = 4 \* j**

**(18) t9 = a[t8]**

**(19) a[t7] = t9**

**a[j] = x;**

**(20) t10 = 4 \* j**

**/\* swap a[i], a[j] \*/**

**(21) a[t10] = x**

**} //closing of while(1)**

**(22) goto (5)**

## Generating Three address code for given code fragment

**x = a[i];**

(23) t11 = 4\*i

(24) x = a[t11]

**a[i] = a[n];**

(25) t12 = 4\*i

(26) t13 = 4\*n

(27) t14 = a[t13]

(28) a[t12] = t14

**a[n] = x;**

(29) t15 = 4\*n

**/\* swap a[i], a[n] \*/**

(30) a[t15] = x

# Three Address Code

(1) $i = m - 1$	(11) $t5 = a[t4]$	(21) $a[t10] = x$
(2) $j = n$	(12) if $t5 > v$ goto (9)	(22) goto (5)
(3) $t1 = 4 * n$	(13) if $i \geq j$ goto (23)	(23) $t11 = 4 * i$
(4) $v = a[t1]$	(14) $t6 = 4 * i$	(24) $x = a[t11]$
(5) $i = i + 1$	(15) $x = a[t6]$	(25) $t12 = 4 * i$
(6) $t2 = 4 * i$	(16) $t7 = 4 * i$	(26) $t13 = 4 * n$
(7) $t3 = a[t2]$	(17) $t8 = 4 * j$	(27) $t14 = a[t13]$
(8) if $t3 < v$ goto (5)	(18) $t9 = a[t8]$	(28) $a[t12] = t14$
(9) $j = j - 1$	(19) $a[t7] = t9$	(29) $t15 = 4 * n$
(10) $t4 = 4 * j$	(20) $t10 = 4 * j$	(30) $a[t15] = x$