Lecture #30

Code Optimization

CSE346: Compilers, IIT Guwahati

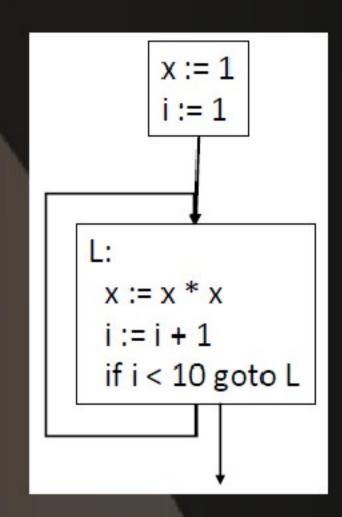
- Most complexity in modern compilers is in the optimizer
 - Also by far the largest phase
- Optimizations can be performed on
 - · AST / DAG
 - Machine independent optimization
 - Assembly code
 - Target dependent optimization
 - On an intermediate language

Basic Blocks

- A basic block is a maximal sequence of instructions with:
 - no labels (except at the first instruction), and
 - no jumps (except in the last instruction)
- Idea:
 - Cannot jump into a basic block (except at beginning)
 - Cannot jump out of a basic block (except at end)
 - A basic block is a single-entry, single-exit, straight-line code segment
- The property of sequential control flow can be useful for many optimizations.

Control Flow Graphs

- Control-Flow Graph (CFG)
 - Models the way that the code transfers control between blocks in the procedure.
 - *Node*: a single basic block
 - *Edge*: transfer of control between basic blocks.
 - All return nodes are terminal



- Optimization seeks to improve a program's resource utilization
 - Execution time (most often)
 - Code size
 - Network messages sent
 - Memory Usages
 - Disk Accesses
 - Power
- Optimization should not alter what the program computes
 - The answer before and after optimization must remain same

- There are three granularities of optimizations
 - Local optimizations
 - Apply to a basic block in isolation
 - Global optimizations
 - Apply to a control-flow graph (method body) in isolation
 - Inter-procedural optimizations
 - Apply across method boundaries
- · Most compilers do local and global optimizations but not the third
- Often a conscious decision is made not to implement the fanciest optimization known
 - Goal: Maximum benefit for minimum cost

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- Constant Folding
 - Evaluation at compile-time of expressions whose operands are known to be constant
 - Example

$$a = 10 * 5 + 6 - b;$$
 $t0 = 10;$
 $t1 = 5;$
 $t1 = t0 - b;$
 $t2 = t0 * t1;$
 $t3 = 6;$
 $t4 = t2 + t3;$
 $t5 = t4 - b;$
 $a = t5;$

- Constant Propagation
 - If a variable is assigned a constant value, then subsequent uses of that variable can be replaced by the constant as long as no intervening assignment has changed the value of the variable.
 - Example:

$$t0 = 12$$
;
 $t1 = arr + t0$;
 $t2 = *(t1)$;



li \$t0, 12 lw \$t1, 8(\$fp) add \$t2, \$t1, \$t0 lw \$t3, 0(\$t2) Constant propagation + rearrangement cuts no. of regs. and insns. from 4 to 2

$$t0 = *(arr + 12);$$



lw \$t0, -8(\$fp) lw \$t1, 12(\$t0)

- Algebraic simplification and Reassociation
 - Simplifications use algebraic properties or particular operator-operand combinations to simplify expressions.
 - Reassociation refers to using properties such as associativity, commutativity and distributivity to rearrange an expression to enable other optimizations

- Algebraic simplification and Reassociation
 - Simplification Examples:

$$x+0 = x$$
 $0+x = x$ $x*1 = x$ $1*x = x$ $0/x = 0$ $x-0 = x$ $b & false = false$ $b & false = b$

• Example: Re-arrangement + constant folding

$$b = 5 + a + 10$$
;
 $t0 = 5$;
 $t1 = t0 + a$;
 $t2 = t1 + 10$;
 $b = t2$;
 $t0 = 15$;
 $t1 = a + t0$;
 $b = t1$;

- Operator Strength Reduction
 - Replaces an operator by a "less expensive" one
 - Often performed as part of *loop-induction variable elimination*
 - Example:

```
while (i < 100)
{
    arr[i] = 0;
    i = i + 1;
}
```

```
t1 = i;

L0:

If t1>100 Goto L1;

t2 = 4 * t1;

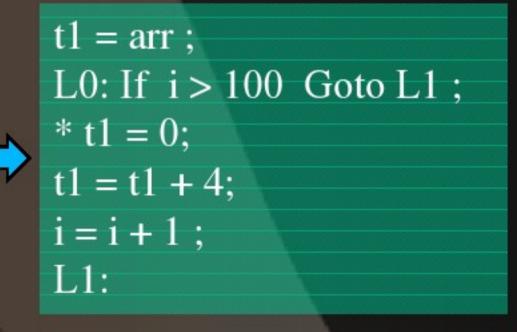
t3 = arr + t2;

*(t3) = 0;

t1 = t1 + 1;

Jump L0

L1:
```



- Copy Propagation
 - Similar to constant propagation, but generalized to nonconstant values
 - For a = b, we can replace later occurrences of a with b
 (assuming there are no changes to either variable in-between)
 - Example

```
t2 = t1;

t3 = t2 * t1;

t4 = t3;

t5 = t3 * t2;

c = t5 + t4;
```