



Faculty of Science



Optimizations

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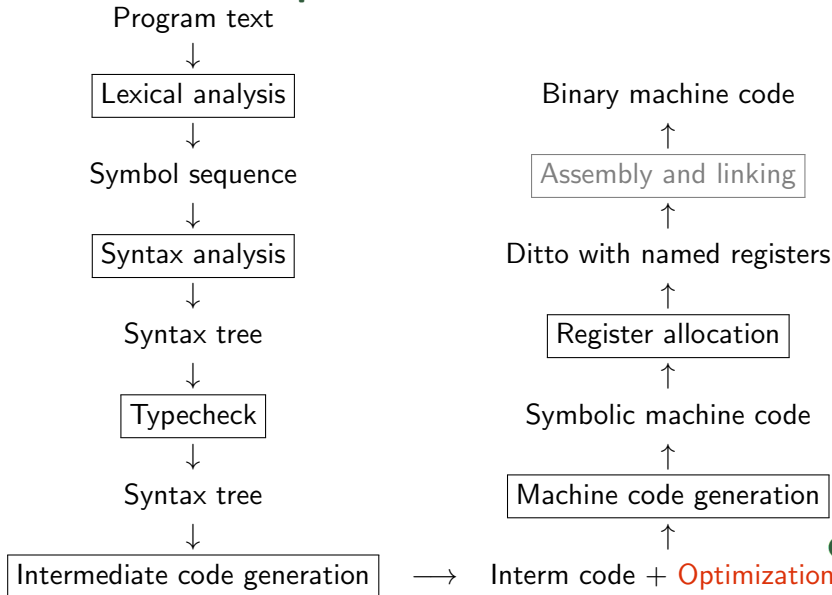
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Structure of a Compiler



- 1 Data-Flow Analysis
 - Common-Subexpression Elimination
 - Jump-to-Jump Elimination
 - Index-Checking Elimination
- 2 Loop Optimizations
 - Hoisting Loop-Invariant Computation
 - Prefetching
- 3 Function Calls
 - Inlining
 - Tail-Call Optimization
- 4 Specialization



Data-Flow Analysis

Global analysis is used to derive information that can drive optimizations. Example: *Liveness analysis*.

Information can flow forwards or backwards through the program.
Typical Structure:

- Successor/predecessor on basic blocks ($succ[B_i]$ or $pred[B_i]$).
- Define $gen[i]$ and $kill[i]$ sets.
- Define equations for $in[i]$ and $out[i]$.
- Initialize $in[i]$ and $out[i]$.
- Iterate to a fix point.
- Use $in[i]$ or $out[i]$ for optimizations.



Common-Subexpression elimination

Goal: remove redundant computations.

Example: statement $a[i] := a[i]+1$ translates to:

```
t1 := 4*i
t2 := a+t1
t3 := M[t2]
t4 := t3+1
t5 := 4*i
t6 := a+t5
M[t6] := t4
```

Potential for optimization:

- Term $4*i$ is computed twice.
- $a+t1$ and $a+t5$ are equal, since $t1=t5$.



Available-Assignments Analysis

Instruction i	$gen[i]$	$kill[i]$
LABEL l	\emptyset	\emptyset
$x := y$	\emptyset	$assg(x)$
$x := k$	$\{x := k\}$	$assg(x)$
$x := \mathbf{unop} \ y$ where $x \neq y$	$\{x := \mathbf{unop} \ y\}$	$assg(x)$
$x := \mathbf{unop} \ x$	\emptyset	$assg(x)$
$x := \mathbf{unop} \ k$	$\{x := \mathbf{unop} \ k\}$	$assg(x)$
$x := y \ \mathbf{binop} \ z$ where $x \neq y$ and $x \neq z$	$\{x := y \ \mathbf{binop} \ z\}$	$assg(x)$
$x := y \ \mathbf{binop} \ z$ where $x = y$ or $x = z$	\emptyset	$assg(x)$
$x := y \ \mathbf{binop} \ k$ where $x \neq y$	$\{x := y \ \mathbf{binop} \ k\}$	$assg(x)$
$x := x \ \mathbf{binop} \ k$	\emptyset	$assg(x)$
$x := M[y]$ where $x \neq y$	$\{x := M[y]\}$	$assg(x)$
$x := M[x]$	\emptyset	$assg(x)$
$x := M[k]$	$\{x := M[k]\}$	$assg(x)$
$M[x] := y$	\emptyset	$loads$
$M[k] := y$	\emptyset	$loads$
GOTO l	\emptyset	\emptyset
IF $x \ \mathbf{relop} \ y$ THEN l_t ELSE l_f	\emptyset	\emptyset
$x := \mathbf{CALL} \ f(args)$	\emptyset	$assg(x)$

$assg(x)$: Assignments that use x on the left or right-hand sides,

$loads$: Statements of form $y := M[\cdot]$.



Example for Available Assignments

```

1:   $i := 0$ 
2:   $a := n * 3$ 
3:  IF  $i < a$  THEN loop ELSE end
4:  LABEL loop
5:   $b := i * 4$ 
6:   $c := p + b$ 
7:   $d := M[c]$ 
8:   $e := d * 2$ 
9:   $f := i * 4$ 
10:  $g := p + f$ 
11:  $M[g] := e$ 
12:  $i := i + 1$ 
13:  $a := n * 3$ 
14: IF  $i < a$  THEN loop ELSE end
15: LABEL end

```

i	$pred[i]$	$gen[i]$	$kill[i]$
1		1	1, 5, 9, 12
2	1	2	2
3	2		
4	3, 14		
5	4	5	5, 6
6	5	6	6, 7
7	6	7	7, 8
8	7	8	8
9	8	9	9, 10
10	9	10	10
11	10		7
12	11		1, 5, 9, 12
13	12	2	2
14	13		
15	3, 14		

Note: Assignment 2 and assignment 13 both represented by 2.



Fix-Point Iteration

$$out[i] = gen[i] \cup (in[i] \setminus kill[i]) \quad (1)$$

$$in[i] = \bigcap_{j \in pred[i]} out[j] \quad (2)$$

Initialized to the set of all assignments, except for $in[1] = \emptyset$.

i	Initialisation		Iteration 1		Iteration 2	
	$in[i]$	$out[i]$	$in[i]$	$out[i]$	$in[i]$	$out[i]$
1		1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10		1		1
2	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1	1, 2	1	1, 2
3	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2	1, 2	1, 2	1, 2
4	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2	1, 2	2	2
5	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2	1, 2, 5	2	2, 5
6	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5	1, 2, 5, 6	2, 5	2, 5, 6
7	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6	1, 2, 5, 6, 7	2, 5, 6	2, 5, 6, 7
8	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8	2, 5, 6, 7	2, 5, 6, 7, 8
9	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9	2, 5, 6, 7, 8	2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9
10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9	2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
11	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10	2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	2, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10
12	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10	2, 6, 8, 10	2, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10	2, 6, 8, 10
13	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	2, 6, 8, 10	2, 6, 8, 10	2, 6, 8, 10	2, 6, 8, 10
14	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	2, 6, 8, 10	2, 6, 8, 10	2, 6, 8, 10	2, 6, 8, 10
15	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	2	2	2	2

Iteration 3 = iteration 2.



Used in Common-Subexpression Elimination

The computation 5: $b := i * 4$ is available at 9: $f := i * 4$.

```
1:   $i := 0$ 
2:   $a := n * 3$ 
3:  IF  $i < a$  THEN loop ELSE end
4:  LABEL loop
5:   $b := i * 4$ 
6:   $c := p + b$ 
7:   $d := M[c]$ 
8:   $e := d * 2$ 
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10:  $g := p + f$ 
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Used in Common-Subexpression Elimination

The computation 5: $b := i * 4$ is available at 9: $f := i * 4$.

```
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2:   $a := n * 3$ 
3:  IF  $i < a$  THEN loop ELSE end
4:  LABEL loop
5:   $b := i * 4$ 
6:   $c := p + b$ 
7:   $d := M[c]$ 
8:   $e := d * 2$ 
9:   $f := b$ 
10:  $g := p + f$  ← will not be eliminated
11:  $M[g] := e$ 
12:  $i := i + 1$ 
13:  $a := a$ 
14: IF  $i < a$  THEN loop ELSE end
15: LABEL end
```



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- **Jump-to-Jump Elimination**
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Jump-to-Jump Elimination

Avoid successive jumps: $[\dots \text{GOTO } l_1, \dots, \text{LABEL } l_1, \text{GOTO } l_2 \dots]$.

instruction	<i>gen</i>	<i>kill</i>
LABEL <i>l</i>	$\{l\}$	\emptyset
GOTO <i>l</i>	\emptyset	\emptyset
IF <i>c</i> THEN <i>l</i> ₁ ELSE <i>l</i> ₂	\emptyset	\emptyset
any other	\emptyset	the set of all labels

$$in[i] = \begin{cases} gen[i] \setminus kill[i] & \text{if } out[i] \text{ is empty} \\ out[i] \setminus kill[i] & \text{if } out[i] \text{ is non-empty} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

$$out[i] = \bigcap_{j \in succ[i]} in[j] \quad (4)$$

A jump *i*: GOTO *l* can be replaced with *i*: GOTO *l'*, if $l' \in in[i]$.



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Index-Check Elimination

Checks if i is within the array-size bounds when used in $a[i]$.

Idea: use IF-THEN-ELSE to check bounds and analyze whether the condition reduces statically to *true* or *false*.

Example: If a 's lowest/highest index is 0/10, translate
for $i:=0$ to 9 do $a[i]:=0$; to:

```
1:   $i := 0$ 
2:  LABEL for1
3:  IF  $i \leq 9$  THEN for2 ELSE for3
4:  LABEL for2
5:  IF  $i < 0$  THEN error ELSE ok1
6:  LABEL ok1
7:  IF  $i > 10$  THEN error ELSE ok2
8:  LABEL ok2
9:   $t := i * 4$ 
10:  $t := a + t$ 
11:  $M[t] := 0$ 
12:  $i := i + 1$ 
13: GOTO for1
14: LABEL for3
```



Inequalities

Collect inequalities of the form $p \leq q$ and $p < q$, where p and q are either variables or constants.

In order to ensure a finite number of inequalities, use an universe Q of inequalities derived from program's condition(al)s. For example:

- $when(x < 10) = \{x < 10\}$, $whennot(x < 10) = \{10 \leq x\}$.
- $when(x = y) = \{x \leq y, y \leq x\}$, $whennot(x = y) = \emptyset$.

Our example program provides the following universe:

$$Q = \{i \leq 9, 9 < i, i < 0, 0 \leq i, 10 < i, i \leq 10\}$$

Fixpoint-iteration computes $in[i] =$ the set of inequalities (from Q) that are true (hold) at the beginning of instruction i .



Equations for Inequalities

$$in[i] = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \bigcap_{j \in pred[i]} in[j] \\ \quad \text{if } pred[i] \text{ has more than one element} \\ in[pred[i]] \cup when(c) \\ \quad \text{if } pred[i] \text{ is IF } c \text{ THEN } i \text{ ELSE } j \\ in[pred[i]] \cup whennot(c) \\ \quad \text{if } pred[i] \text{ is IF } c \text{ THEN } j \text{ ELSE } i \\ (in[pred[i]] \setminus conds(Q, x)) \cup equal(Q, x, p) \\ \quad \text{if } pred[i] \text{ is of the form } x := p \\ in[pred[i]] \setminus upper(Q, x) \\ \quad \text{if } pred[i] \text{ is of the form } x := x + k \text{ where } k \geq 0 \\ in[pred[i]] \setminus lower(Q, x) \\ \quad \text{if } pred[i] \text{ is of the form } x := x - k \text{ where } k \geq 0 \\ in[pred[i]] \setminus conds(Q, x) \\ \quad \text{if } pred[i] \text{ is of a form } x := e \text{ not covered above} \\ in[pred[i]] \\ \quad \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

$conds(Q, x)$: inequalities in x

$upper(Q, x)$: inequalities of form $x < p$ or $x \leq p$

$lower(Q, x)$: inequalities of form $p < x$ or $p \leq x$

$equal(Q, x, p)$: inequalities from Q , which are consequences of $x = p$



Limitations of Data-Flow Analysis

Can never be exact:

- many analysis problems are undecidable, i.e., one cannot solve them accurately.
- Tradeoff between efficient computation and precision.
- Use conservative approximation: optimize only when you are sure the assumptions hold.



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Hoisting Loop-Invariant Computation

A term is loop invariant if it is computed inside a loop but has the same value at each iteration.

Solution: Unroll the loop once and do common-subexpression elimination.

The loop-invariant term is now computed in the unrolled part and reused in the subsequent loop. **Example:**

<pre>while (c) { body }</pre>	→	<pre>if (c) { body; while (c) { body } }</pre>
<pre>do body while (c)</pre>	→	<pre>body; while (c) { body }</pre>

Disadvantage: Code size.



Memory Prefetching

```
sum = 0;
for (i=0, i<1000000; i++) {
    sum += a[i];
}
```

Problem: the array does not fit in the cache so we constantly wait (for I/O). Some architectures offer a *prefetch* instruction that downloads from memory into cache and is safe under addressing errors:

```
sum = 0;
for (i=0, i<1000000; i++) {
    if (i&3==0) prefetch(a[i+32]);
    sum += a[i];
}
```

NB!: We assumed that the cache-line size is 4 words.

We can deploy loop body to avoid testing.



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Inlining

A function call: $x = f(exp_1, \dots, exp_n);$

where f is declared as:

```
type0 f(type1 x1, ..., typen xn)
{
  body
  return(exp);
}
```

can be replaced with:

```
{
  type1 x1 = exp1;
  ...
  typen xn = expn;
  body
  x = exp;
}
```

Variables need to be renamed whenever necessary, e.g., rename $x_1 \dots x_n$ as needed.



Tail-Call Optimization

A tail call is a call happening just before returning from the (current) function, f , e.g., `return(g(x,y))`;

We use the following observations:

- None of f 's variables are *live* after the call.
- If f 's epilogue is empty (except for the return jump), then g can return directly to f 's return address.
- Since f 's activation record contains nothing useful at this point, we can reuse the space for g 's activation record.

Hence the program is more efficient in both runtime and memory space.

Tail-call optimization is very important for functional languages as it makes tail recursion as efficient as loops.



Tail-Call Example

`return(g(x,y));` via stack-based *caller saves*.

$M[FP + 4 * m + 4] := R0$

...

$M[FP + 4 * m + 4 * (k + 1)] := Rk$

$FP := FP + framesize$

$M[FP + 4] := x$

$M[FP + 4 * n] := y$

$M[FP] := returnaddress$

GOTO g

LABEL *returnaddress*

$result := M[FP + 4]$

$FP := FP - framesize$

$R0 := M[FP + 4 * m + 4]$

...

$Rk := M[FP + 4 * m + 4 * (k + 1)]$

$M[FP + 4] := result$

GOTO $M[FP]$



Tail-Call Example

`return(g(x,y));` via stack-based *caller saves*.

$M[FP + 4 * m + 4] := R0$

← Eliminated since no variables are live

...

$M[FP + 4 * m + 4 * (k + 1)] := Rk$

$FP := FP + framesize$

$M[FP + 4] := x$

$M[FP + 4 * n] := y$

$M[FP] := returnaddress$

GOTO g

LABEL *returnaddress*

$result := M[FP + 4]$

$FP := FP - framesize$

$R0 := M[FP + 4 * m + 4]$

...

$Rk := M[FP + 4 * m + 4 * (k + 1)]$

$M[FP + 4] := result$

GOTO $M[FP]$



Tail-Call Example

`return(g(x,y));` via stack-based *caller saves*.

FP := *FP* + *framesize* ← Eliminated when we recycle activation records

$M[FP + 4] := x$

$M[FP + 4 * n] := y$

$M[FP] := \text{returnaddress}$

GOTO *g*

LABEL *returnaddress*

result := $M[FP + 4]$

FP := *FP* - *framesize*

$M[FP + 4] := \text{result}$

GOTO $M[FP]$



Tail-Call Example

`return(g(x,y));` via stack-based *caller saves*.

$M[FP + 4] := x$

$M[FP + 4 * n] := y$

$M[FP] := \text{returnaddress}$

GOTO g

LABEL *returnaddress*

result := $M[FP + 4]$

← Going off against each other (copy propagation)

$M[FP + 4] := \text{result}$

GOTO $M[FP]$



Tail-Call Example

`return(g(x,y));` via stack-based *caller saves*.

$M[FP + 4] := x$

$M[FP + 4 * n] := y$

$M[FP] := \text{returnaddress}$ \leftarrow Eliminated when we recycle the return address

GOTO g

LABEL returnaddress

GOTO $M[FP]$



Tail-Call Example

`return(g(x,y));` via stack-based *caller saves*.

$M[FP + 4] := x$

$M[FP + 4 * n] := y$

GOTO g

GOTO $M[FP]$

← Dead code



Tail-Call Example

`return(g(x,y));` via stack-based *caller saves*.

$M[FP + 4] := x$

$M[FP + 4 * n] := y$

GOTO g



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Specialising

Idea: Specialize version of functions for constant-value parameters.

Example:

```
double power(double x, int n)
{
    double p=1.0;
    while (n>0)
        if (n%2 == 0) {
            x = x*x;
            n = n/2;
        } else {
            p = p*x;
            n = n-1;
        }
    return(p);
}
```

Specialized version of power for parameter $n=5$.



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double power(double x, int n)
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            n = n/2;
        } else {
            p = p*x;
            n = n-1;
        }
    return(p);
}
```

```
double power5(double x)
{
    double p=1.0;
```

Specialized version of power for parameter $n=5$.



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Example:

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double power(double x, int n)
{
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        if (n%2 == 0) {
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            n = n/2;
        } else {
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        }
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```
double power5(double x)
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    p = p*x;
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}
```

```
double power5(double x)
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    double p=1.0;
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    x = x*x;
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            n = n/2;
        } else {
            p = p*x;
            n = n-1;
        }
    return(p);
}
```

```
double power5(double x)
{
    double p=1.0;
    p = p*x;
    x = x*x;
    x = x*x;
```

Specialized version of power for parameter n=5.



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Example:

```
double power(double x, int n)
{
    double p=1.0;
    while (n>0)
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            x = x*x;
            n = n/2;
        } else {
            p = p*x;
            n = n-1;
        }
    return(p);
}
```

```
double power5(double x)
{
    double p=1.0;
    p = p*x;
    x = x*x;
    x = x*x;
    p = p*x;
```

Specialized version of power for parameter n=5.



Specialising

Idea: Specialize version of functions for constant-value parameters.

Example:

```
double power(double x, int n)
{
    double p=1.0;
    while (n>0)
        if (n%2 == 0) {
            x = x*x;
            n = n/2;
        } else {
            p = p*x;
            n = n-1;
        }
    return(p);
}
```

```
double power5(double x)
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    double p=1.0;
    p = p*x;
    x = x*x;
    x = x*x;
    p = p*x;
    return(p);
}
```

Specialized version of power for parameter $n=5$.



Specialising

Idea: Specialize version of functions for constant-value parameters.

Example:

```
double power(double x, int n)
{
    double p=1.0;
    while (n>0)
        if (n%2 == 0) {
            x = x*x;
            n = n/2;
        } else {
            p = p*x;
            n = n-1;
        }
    return(p);
}
```

```
double power5(double x)
{
    double p=1.0;
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    x = x*x;
    x = x*x;
    p = p*x;
    return(p);
}
```

Specialized version of power for parameter n=5.

Specialization is the implementation method for C++ templates.

