Chapter 8. Optimization (Part 1)

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Topics

■ General background

- Goal and principle of optimization
- Scope of optimization
- Basic block and CFG

Common types of optimization

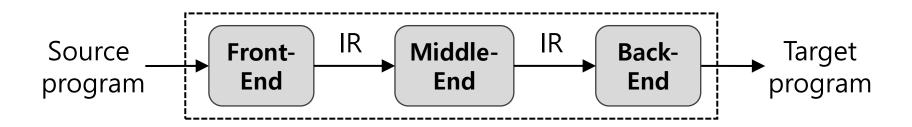
 Constant folding, constant propagation, copy propagation, common subexpression elimination, dead code elimination, ...

■ Data-flow analyses to realize the optimization

 Reaching-definition analysis, constant propagation analysis, available expression analysis, liveness analysis, ...

Review: Compiler Structure

- Middle-end takes in intermediate representation (IR) code and outputs more efficient version of IR code
 - In modern compilers, this is often the most complex phase
 - Nowadays, IR optimization is an important topic in compiler
- Machine-dependent optimization (which is applicable to specific architecture) may follow in the back-end phase
 - Our course will not focus on this part



Optimization

- Optimization converts code into more efficient form
 - "More efficient" in terms of:
 - Execution time (the primary goal in most cases)
 - Code size
 - Memory usage
 - Energy consumption
 - Sometimes, these goals are corelated with each other
- Optimization should not change the behavior of the input code (e.g., return value of a function)
- The name "optimization" is quite misleading: its result is far from optimal code; it is just improved code

Scope of Optimization (1)

■ Intra-procedural optimization

- Optimization that occurs within a function boundary
- Analyze and reason about one function at a time
- Ex) Function f() { S } can be rewritten into f() { S'}, regardless of what happens in other functions in the program

■ Inter-procedural optimization

- Optimization that occurs across function boundaries
- Analyze and reason about multiple functions at a time
- Ex) Considering the behavior of caller and callee functions of
 f() as well during its optimization
- Enables more optimization, but often too expensive
- Most compilers do intra-procedural optimization only

Scope of Optimization (2)

- Recall that in our IR model (which resembles LLVM IR), registers and memory are separated
- In such cases, most compilers only focus on analyzing and optimizing the computation with registers
 - Give up many optimizations that deal with variables in memory
 - Because reasoning about the memory state is hard
- Q. Doesn't it limit the capacity of optimization too much?
 - A. Good point, but we will also come back to this topic later

Memory	,
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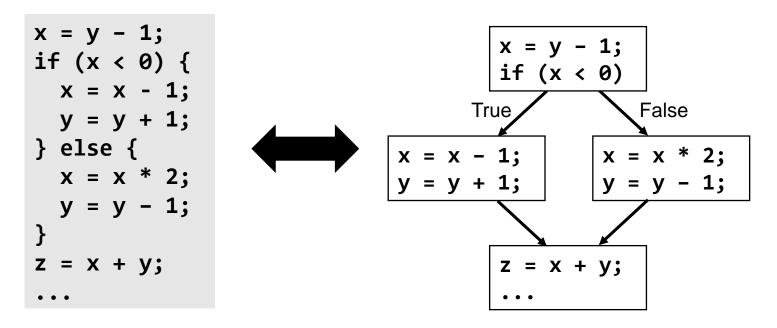
2000	100

Registers

\$t1	2000
\$ t2	100
• • •	• • •

Background: Control-Flow Graph

- Control-flow graph (CFG): graph representation of code
 - Applicable to both source-level code and IR-level code
 - Commonly used for data-flow analysis and optimization
 - Nodes are basic blocks (defined in the next page)
 - Edges represent control flows between the nodes



Basic Block

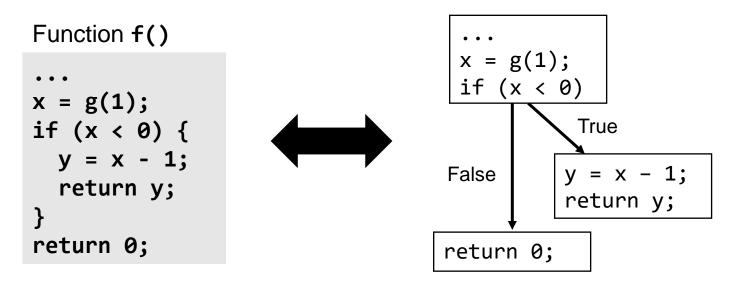
- Basic block (BB) contains a sequence of statements (or instructions) that are always executed consecutively
 - No jump-out from the middle of a basic block
 - No jump-in into the middle of a basic block
- Ex) Basic block(s) of IR-level code

```
$t1 = alloc 4
store 100, $t1
$t2 = load $t1
$t3 = $t2 + 5
```

```
$t2 = load $t1
$t3 = $t1 < 10
if $t3 goto L0
$t4 = $t3 + 3
store $t4, $t1
label L0
$t5 = load $t1
ret $t5</pre>
```

CFG and Function

- Usually, we draw a CFG for each function
 - The function entry becomes the initial node of the function CFG
 - Each return statement (instruction) becomes exit (terminal) node
- What should we do with *call* statement (or instruction)?
 - CFG often considers call as a non-jumping instruction, because it will eventually return back



Construction of CFG

- Converting high-level control structures (if-else, while, for, ...) into CFG is straightforward
 - If there are low-level jumps like C's goto, it can be more complex
- Step 1. Find *leaders* from statement (instruction) list
 - The first statement is a leader
 - A statement that is the target of a jump is a leader
 - A statement that immediately follows a jump or return is a leader
- Step 2. Split statements into basic blocks
 - Each leader forms a basic block: its basic block consists of the statements until the next leader or the end of statement list
- Step 3. Draw edges between the basic blocks

Common Types of Optimization

Popular optimizations adopted in modern compilers

- Constant folding
- Constant propagation
- Copy propagation
- Common subexpression elimination
- Dead code elimination
- ... and of course, many more

■ First, I will briefly explain what each optimization does

Then, we will move on to how these optimizations can be actually implemented with data-flow analysis

Constant Folding

- Let's start with the easy one
 - Optimization that can be done by considering one instruction
- Consider an instruction for addition: \$t1 = v1 + v2
 - Recall that in our IR, operand can be either constant or register
 - If both v1 and v2 are constants, the computation at the righthand side can be simplified at compile time
 - Ex) \$t1 = 2 + 3 --> \$t1 = 5
- The same principle can be also applied to other kinds of operations
 - Ex) \$t2 = 5 > 3 --> \$t2 = true
 - Ex) \$t3 = true && false --> \$t3 = false

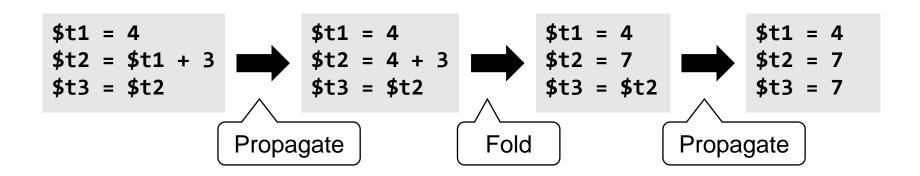
Constant Propagation

■ If \$t1 = N appears (where N is a constant), subsequent use of \$t1 may be replaced with the constant N

■ Constant propagation itself may not drastically improve the speed, but it gives chances to more optimizations

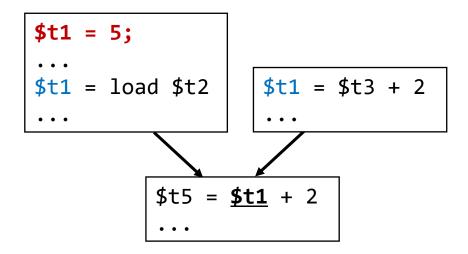
Observation #1

- Often, we must apply optimization passes repeatedly, until there is no more change in the code
 - Or the compiler may choose to stop at certain threshold
- Sometimes, we can reduce the number of repetition by making each optimization pass smarter
 - For example, we may perform constant folding and constant propagation at once (we will see such optimization later)



Observation #2

- When performing constant propagation (and many other optimizations), we must carefully check if it is safe
- Ex) Consider the propagation with \$t1 = 5 below
 - There are other definitions of \$t1 that can reach the use point of \$t1, so we cannot replace it with constant 5
- This means we must analyze the data-flow of program



Copy Propagation

- If \$t1 = \$t2 appears, subsequent use of \$t1 may be replaced with the register \$t2
 - As in constant propagation, data-flow analysis is required
- Similarly, copy propagation is only meaningful for enabling other optimization

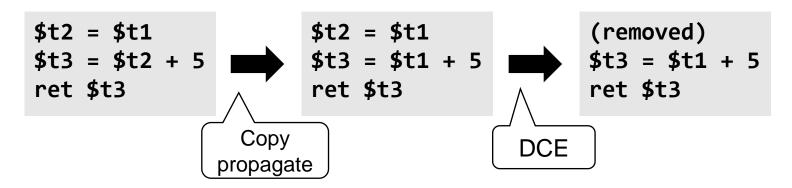
- Some textbooks consider constant propagation as a specific case of copy propagation
 - Our lecture note will distinguish them when possible

Common Subexp. Elimination

- Common subexpression elimination (CSE) can avoid recomputing certain expressions
- Assume two instructions that define registers (\$t2, \$t3 in the example below)
 - The two registers will have the same value if:
 - (1) Their right-hand side expressions are same,
 - (2) Registers used in this expression are not updated, and
 - (3) The first register is not redefined
 - Then, we can replace the second computation with first register

Dead Code* Elimination (DCE)

- An instruction is said to be *dead* if it computes a value that is never used later
 - Such instruction will not affect the execution result of a program, so it can be eliminated
- Such dead-code may occur for various reasons
 - Redundant logic in the original source code
 - As a result of other optimizations (e.g., constant/copy propagation)



^{*}In some contexts, "dead code" refers to unreachable code