

# Compilation 2024

# Optimization

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Acknowledgments: Stephen Chong

# Part 1

- Optimizations
  - Safety
  - Constant folding
  - Algebraic simplification
    - Strength reduction
  - Constant propagation
  - Copy propagation
  - Dead code elimination
  - Inlining and specialization
    - Recursive function inlining
  - Tail call elimination
  - Common subexpression elimination

# Why do we need optimizations?

- To help programmers...
  - They write modular, clean, high-level programs
  - Compiler generates efficient, high-performance assembly
- Programmers don't write optimal code
- High-level languages make avoiding redundant computation inconvenient or impossible
  - e.g.  $A[i][j] = A[i][j] + 1$
- Architectural independence
  - Optimal code depends on features not expressed to the programmer
  - Modern architectures assume optimization
- Different kinds of optimizations:
  - Time: improve execution speed
  - Space: reduce amount of memory needed
  - Power: lower power consumption (e.g. to extend battery life)

# Some caveats

- Optimization are code transformations:
  - They can be applied at any stage of the compiler
  - They must be safe – they shouldn't change the meaning of the program.
- In general, optimizations require some program analysis:
  - To determine if the transformation really is safe
  - To determine whether the transformation is cost effective
- “Optimization” is misnomer
  - Typically no guarantee transformations will improve performance, nor that compilation will produce optimal code
- This course: most common and valuable performance optimizations
  - See Muchnick “Advanced Compiler Design and Implementation” for ~10 chapters about optimization

# Constant Folding

- Idea: If operands are known at compile time, perform the operation statically.
- `int x = (2+3) * y`  $\rightarrow$  `int x = 5 * y`
- `b & false`  $\rightarrow$  `false`

# Constant Folding

`int x = (2+3) * y → int x = 5 * y`

- What performance metric does it intend to improve?
  - In general, the question of whether an optimization improves performance is undecidable.
- At which compilation step can it be applied?
  - Intermediate Representation
  - Can be performed after other optimizations that create constant expressions.

# Constant Folding

`int x = (2+3) * y`  $\rightarrow$  `int x = 5 * y`

- When is it safely applicable?
  - For Boolean values, yes.
  - For integers, almost always yes.
    - An exception: division by zero.
  - For floating points, use caution.
    - Example: rounding
- General notes about safety:
  - Whether an optimization is safe depends on language semantics.
    - Languages that provide weaker guarantees to the programmer permit more optimizations, but have more ambiguity in their behavior.
  - Is there a formal proof for safety?

# Algebraic Simplification

- More general form of constant folding
  - Take advantage of mathematically sound simplification rules.
- Identities:
  - $a * 1 \rightarrow a$                        $a * 0 \rightarrow 0$
  - $a + 0 \rightarrow a$                        $a - 0 \rightarrow a$
  - $b \mid \text{false} \rightarrow b$                $b \& \text{true} \rightarrow b$
- Reassociation & commutativity:
  - $(a + b) + c \rightarrow a + (b + c)$
  - $a + b \rightarrow b + a$



# Algebraic Simplification

- Combined with Constant Folding:
  - $(a + 1) + 2 \rightarrow a + (1 + 2) \rightarrow a + 3$
  - $(2 + a) + 4 \rightarrow (a + 2) + 4 \rightarrow a + (2 + 4) \rightarrow a + 6$
- Iteration of these optimizations is useful...
  - How much?

# Strength Reduction

- Replace expensive op with cheaper op:
  - $a * 4 \rightarrow a \ll 2$
  - $a * 7 \rightarrow (a \ll 3) - a$
  - $a / 32768 \rightarrow (a \gg 15) + (a \gg 30)$
- So, the effectiveness of this optimization depends on the architecture.

# Constant Propagation

- If the value of a variable is known to be a constant, replace the use of the variable by that constant.
- Value of the variable must be propagated forward from the point of assignment.
- This is a substitution operation.
- Example:

```
int x = 5;  
int y = x * 2;  
int z = a[y];
```



```
int y = 5 * 2;  
int z = a[y];
```



```
int y = 10;  
int z = a[y];
```



```
int z = a[10];
```

- To be most effective, constant propagation can be interleaved with constant folding.

# Constant Propagation

- For safety, it requires a data-flow analysis.
- What performance metric does it intend to improve?
- At which compilation step can it be applied?
- What is the computational complexity of this optimization?

# Copy Propagation

- If one variable is assigned to another, replace uses of the assigned variable with the copied variable.
- Need to know where copies of the variable propagate.
- Interacts with the scoping rules of the language.
- Example:

```
x = y;  
if (x > 1) {  
    x = x * f(x - 1);  
}
```



```
x = y;  
if (y > 1) {  
    x = y * f(y - 1);  
}
```

- Can make the first assignment to x **dead code** (that can be eliminated).

# Dead Code Elimination

- If a side-effect free statement can never be observed, it is safe to eliminate the statement.

```
x  = y * y // x is dead!  
...      // x never used  
x = z * z
```



```
...  
x = z * z
```

- A variable is **dead** if it is never used after it is defined.
- Computing such **definition** and **use** information is an important component of compiler
- Dead variables can be created by other optimizations...
- Code for computing the value of a dead variable can be dropped.

# Dead Code Elimination

- Is it always safely applicable?
- Only if that code is **pure** (i.e. it has no externally visible side effects).
  - Externally visible effects: raising an exception, modifying a global variable, going into an infinite loop, printing to standard output, sending a network packet, launching a rocket, ...
  - Note: Pure functional languages (e.g. Haskell) make reasoning about the safety of optimizations (and code transformations in general) easier!

# Unreachable Code Elimination

- Basic blocks not reachable by any trace leading from the starting basic block are **unreachable** and can be deleted.
- At which compilation step can it be applied?
  - IR or assembly level
- What performance metric does it intend to improve?
  - Improves instruction cache utilization.



# Common Subexpression Elimination

- Idea: replace an expression with previously stored evaluations of that expression.

- Example:

$$[a + i*4] = [a + i*4] + 1$$

- Common subexpression elimination removes the redundant add and multiply:

$$t = a + i*4; [t] = [t] + 1$$

- For safety, you must be sure that the shared expression always has the same value in both places!

# Unsafe Common Subexpression Elimination

- As an example, consider function:

```
void f(int[] a, int[] b, int[] c) {  
    int j = ...; int i = ...; int k = ...;  
    b[j] = a[i] + 1;  
    c[k] = a[i];  
    return;  
}
```

- The following optimization that shares expression `a[i]` is unsafe... Why?

```
void f(int[] a, int[] b, int[] c) {  
    int j = ...; int i = ...; int k = ...;  
    t = a[i];  
    b[j] = t + 1;  
    c[k] = t;  
    return;  
}
```

# Common Subexpression Elimination

- Almost always improves performance.
- But sometimes...
  - It might be less expensive to recompute an expression, rather than to allocate another register to hold its value (or to store it in memory and later reload it).

# Loop-invariant Code Motion

- Idea: hoist invariant code out of a loop.

```
while (b) {  
    z = y/x;  
    ...           // y, x not updated  
}
```



```
z = y/x;  
while (b) {  
    ...           // y, x not updated  
}
```

- What performance metric does it intend to improve?
- Is this always safe?

# Optimization Example

```
let a = x ** 2 in  
let b = 3 in  
let c = x in  
let d = c * c in  
let e = b * 2 in  
let f = a + d in  
e * f
```

*Copy and  
constant  
propagation*

```
let a = x ** 2 in  
let d = x * x in  
let e = 3 * 2 in  
let f = a + d in  
e * f
```

*Constant  
folding*

```
let a = x * x in  
let d = x * x in  
let e = 6 in  
let f = a + d in  
e * f
```

*Strength reduction*

```
let a = x ** 2 in  
let d = x * x in  
let e = 6 in  
let f = a + d in  
e * f
```

*Common  
sub-expression  
elimination*

```
let a = x * x in  
let d = a in  
let e = 6 in  
let f = a + d in  
e * f
```

*Copy and  
constant propagation*

```
let a = x * x in  
let f = a + a in  
6 * f
```

# Loop Unrolling

- Idea: replace the body of a loop by several copies of the body and adjust the loop-control code.
- Example:

- Before unrolling:

```
for(int i=0; i<100; i=i+1) {  
    s = s + a[i];  
}
```

- After unrolling:

```
for(int i=0; i<99; i=i+2) {  
    s = s + a[i];  
    s = s + a[i+1];  
}
```

# Loop Unrolling

- What performance metric does it intend to improve?
  - Reduces the overhead of branching and checking the loop-control.
    - But it yields larger loops, which might impact the instruction cache.
- Which loops to unroll and by what factor?
  - Some heuristics:
    - Body with straight-line code.
    - Simple loop-control.
  - Use profiled runs.
- It may improve the effectiveness of other optimizations (e.g., common-subexpression evaluation).

# Inlining

- Replace call to a function with function body (rewrite arguments to be local variables).
- Example:

```
int g(int x) { return x + pow(x); }

int pow(int a) {
    int b = 1; int n = 0;
    while (n < a) {b = 2 * b};
    return b;
}
```



```
int g(int x) {
    int a = x;
    int b = 1; int n = 0;
    while (n < a) {b = 2 * b};
    tmp = b;
    return x + tmp;
}
```

- Eliminates the stack manipulation, jump, etc.
- May need to rename variable names to avoid **name capture**.
  - Example of what can go wrong?
- Best done at the AST or relatively high-level IR.
  - Enables further optimizations.



# Inlining Recursive Functions

- Consider recursive function:

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} y & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x * f(x-1, y) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

- If we inline it, we essentially just unroll one call:

- $f(z, 8) + 7$

becomes

$$( \text{if } z < 0 \text{ then } 8 \text{ else } z * f(z-1, 8) ) + 7$$

- Can't keep on inlining definition of  $f$ ; will never stop!
- But can still get some benefits of inlining by slight rewriting of recursive function...

# Rewriting Recursive Functions for Inlining

- Rewrite function to use a loop pre-header

`function f(a1, ..., an) = e`

becomes

`function f(a1, ..., an) =  
 let function f'(a1, ..., an) = e[f ↦ f']  
 in f'(a1, ..., an)`

- Example:

`function f(x, y) = if x < 1 then y else x * f(x-1, y)`

`function f(x, y) =  
 let function f'(x, y) = if x < 1 then y  
 else x * f'(x-1, y)  
 in f'(x, y)`

# Rewriting Recursive Functions for Inlining

```
function f(x,y) =  
  let function f'(x,y) = if x < 1 then y  
                        else x * f'(x-1,y)  
  in f'(x,y)
```

- Remove **loop-invariant arguments**
  - e.g., y is invariant in calls to f'

```
function f(x,y) =  
  let function f'(x) = if x < 1 then y  
                      else x * f'(x-1)  
  in f'(x)
```

# Rewriting Recursive Functions for Inlining

```
function f(x,y) =  
  let function f'(x) = if x < 1 then y  
                        else x * f'(x-1)  
  in f'(x)
```

6+f(4,5) becomes:

```
6 +  
(let function f'(x)=  
  if x < 1 then 5  
  else x * f'(x-1)  
in f'(4))
```

Without rewriting f,

```
6+f(4,5) becomes:  
6 +  
(if 4 < 1 then 5  
  else 4 * f(3,5))
```

# Rewriting Recursive Functions for Inlining

- Now inlining recursive function is more useful!
- Can *specialize* the recursive function!
  - Additional optimizations for the specific arguments can be enabled (e.g., copy propagation, dead code elimination).

# When to Inline

- Code inlining might increase the code size.
- Impact on cache misses.
- Some heuristics for when to inline a function:
  - Expand only function call sites that are called frequently
    - Determine frequency by execution profiler or by approximating statically (e.g., loop depth)
  - Expand only functions with small bodies
    - Copied body won't be much larger than code to invoke function
  - Expand functions that are called only once
    - Dead function elimination will remove the now unused function

# Tail Call Elimination

- Consider two recursive functions:

`let add(m,n) = if (m=0) then n else 1 + add(m-1,n)`

`let add(m,n) = if (m=0) then n else add(m-1,n+1)`

- First function: after recursive call to add, still have computation to do (i.e., add 1).
- Second function: after recursive call, nothing to do but return to caller.
  - This is a **tail call**.

# Tail Call Elimination

```
let add(m,n) = if (m=0) then n else add(m-1,n+1)
```

Equivalent program in an  
imperative language



```
int add(int m, int n){  
  if (m=0) then  
    return n  
  else  
    return add(m-1,n+1) }
```

Tail Call  
Elimination



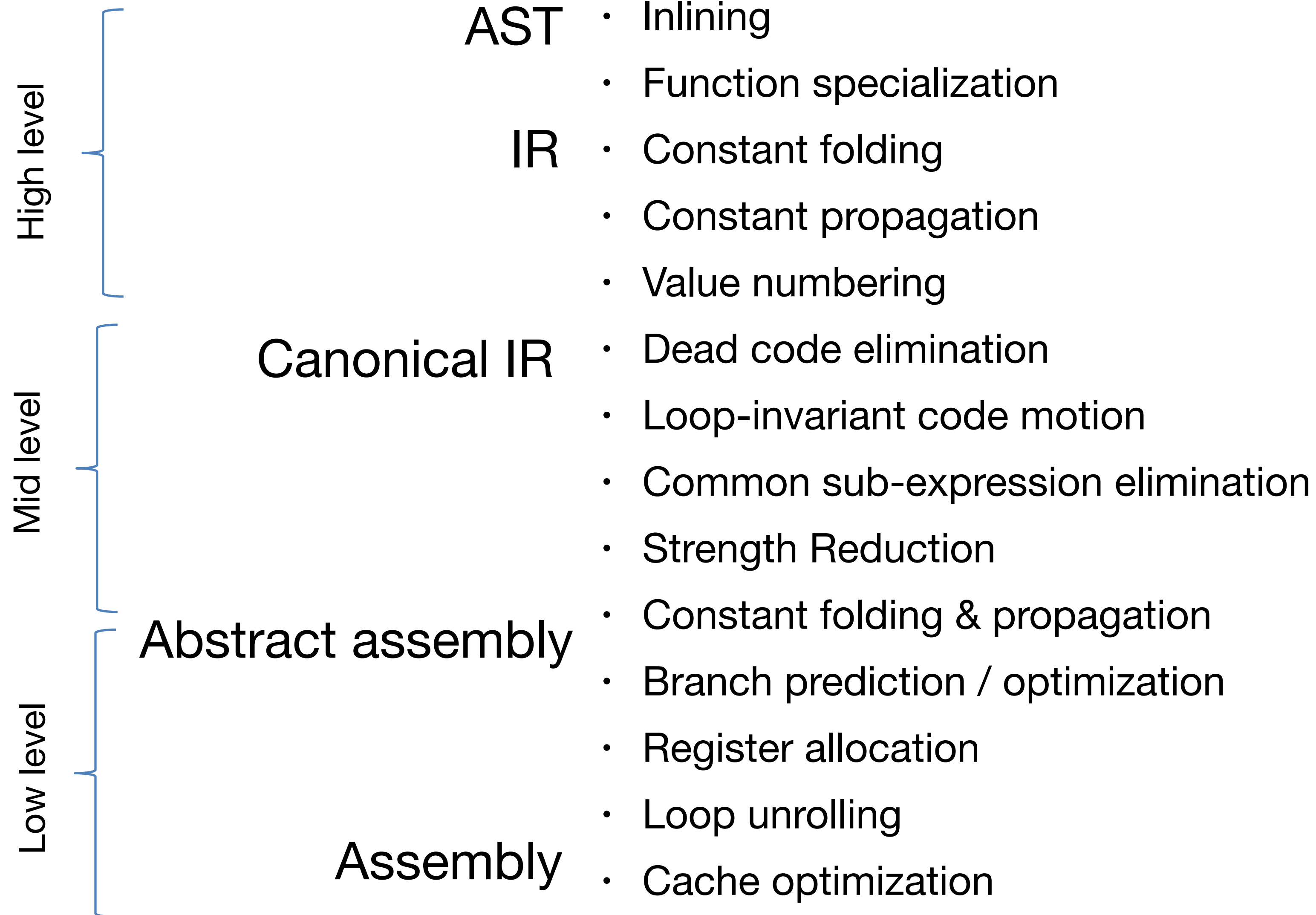
```
int add(int m, int n){  
  loop:  
    if (m=0) then  
      return n  
    else  
      m:=m-1;  
      n:=n+1;  
      goto loop }
```



# Tail Call Elimination

- Steps for applying tail call elimination to a recursive procedure:
  - Replace recursive call by updating the parameters.
  - Branch to the beginning of the procedure.
  - Delete the **return**.
- Reuse stack frame!
  - Don't need to allocate new stack frame for recursive call.
- Values of arguments (n, m) remain in registers.
- Combined with inlining, a recursive function can become as cheap as a while loop.
- Even for non-recursive functions: if last statement is function call (tail call), can still reuse stack frame.

# Some Optimizations



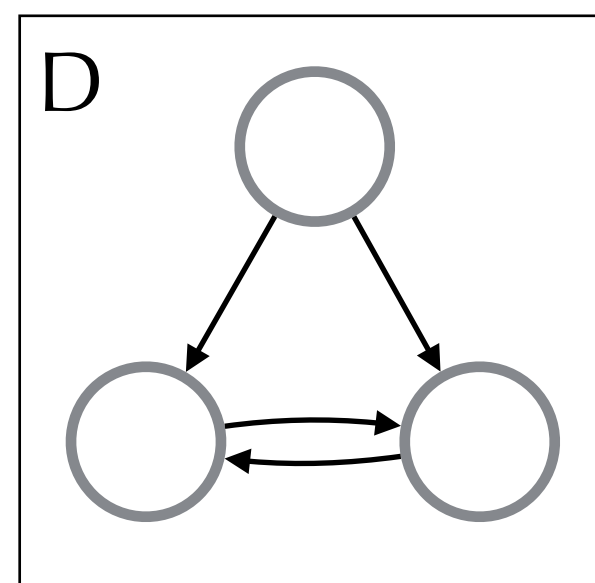
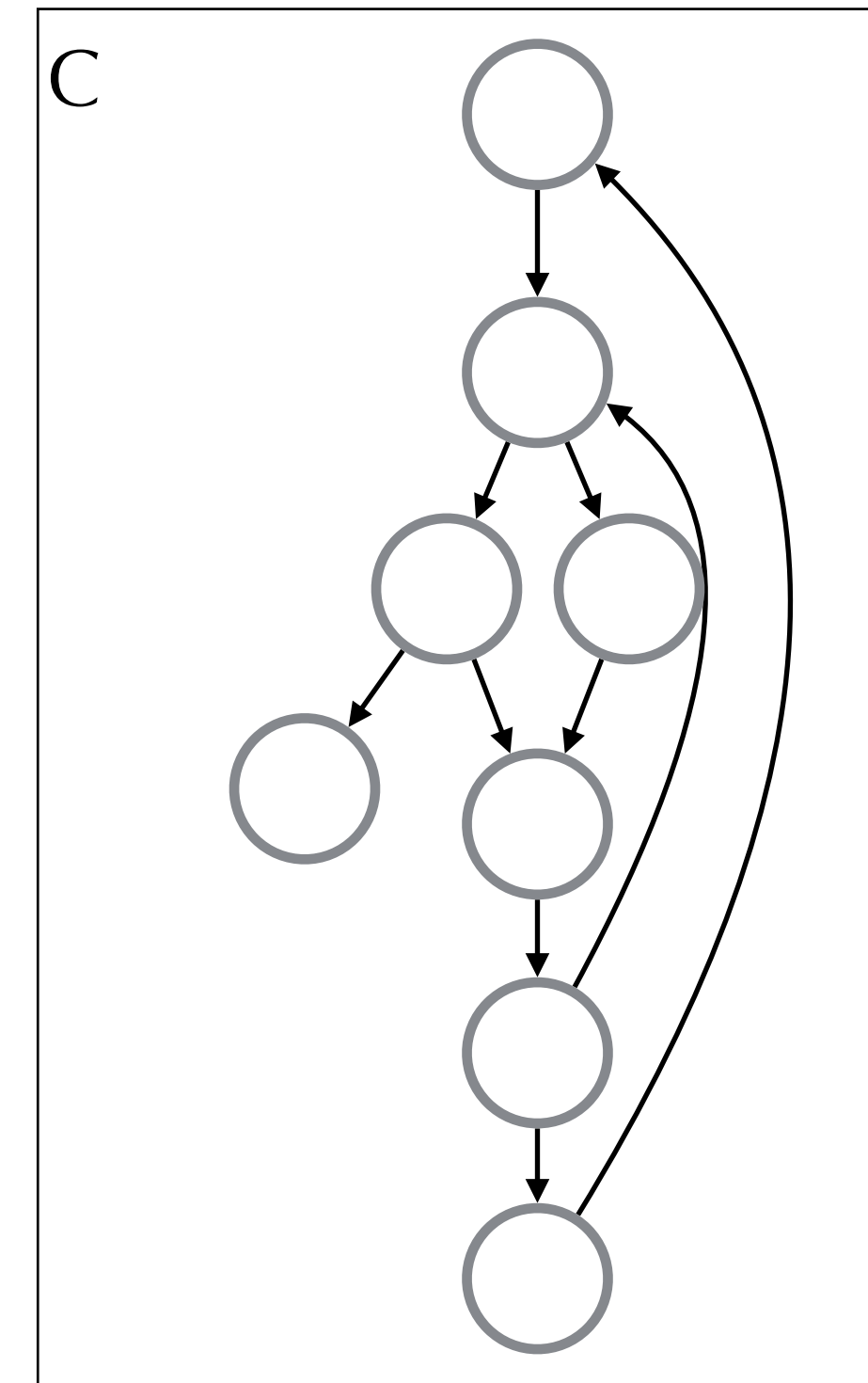
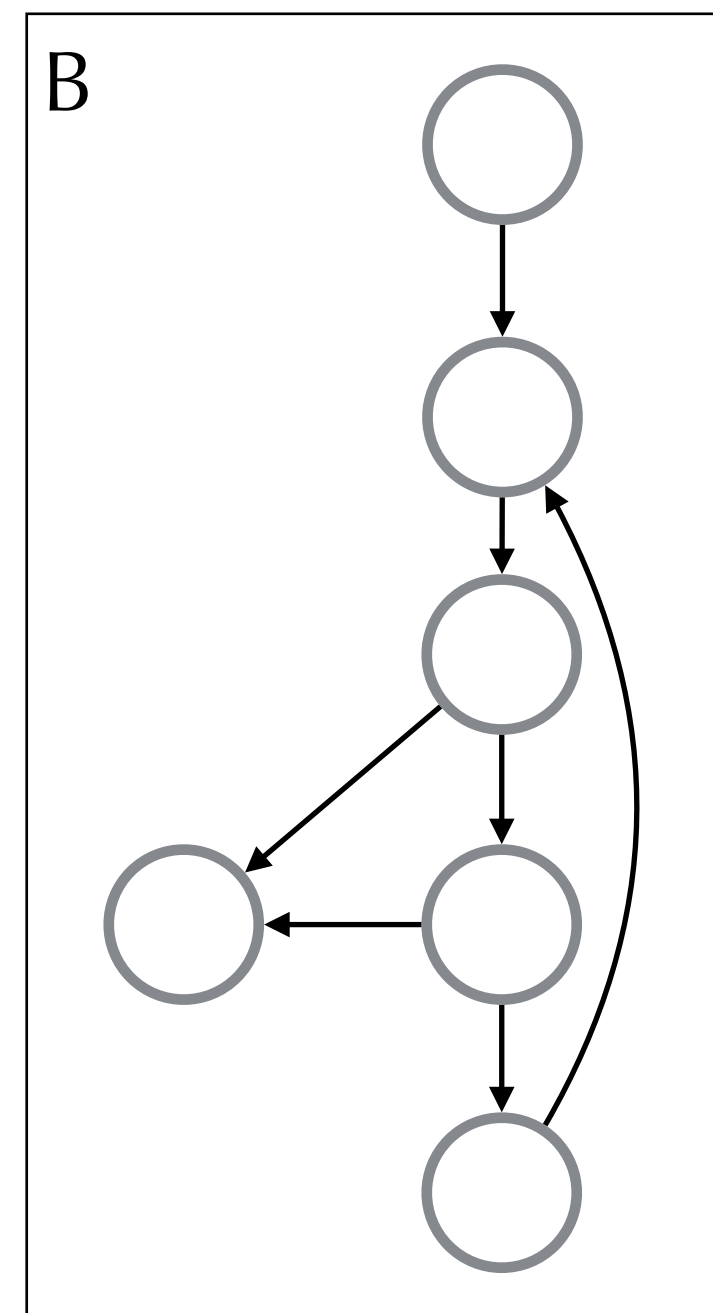
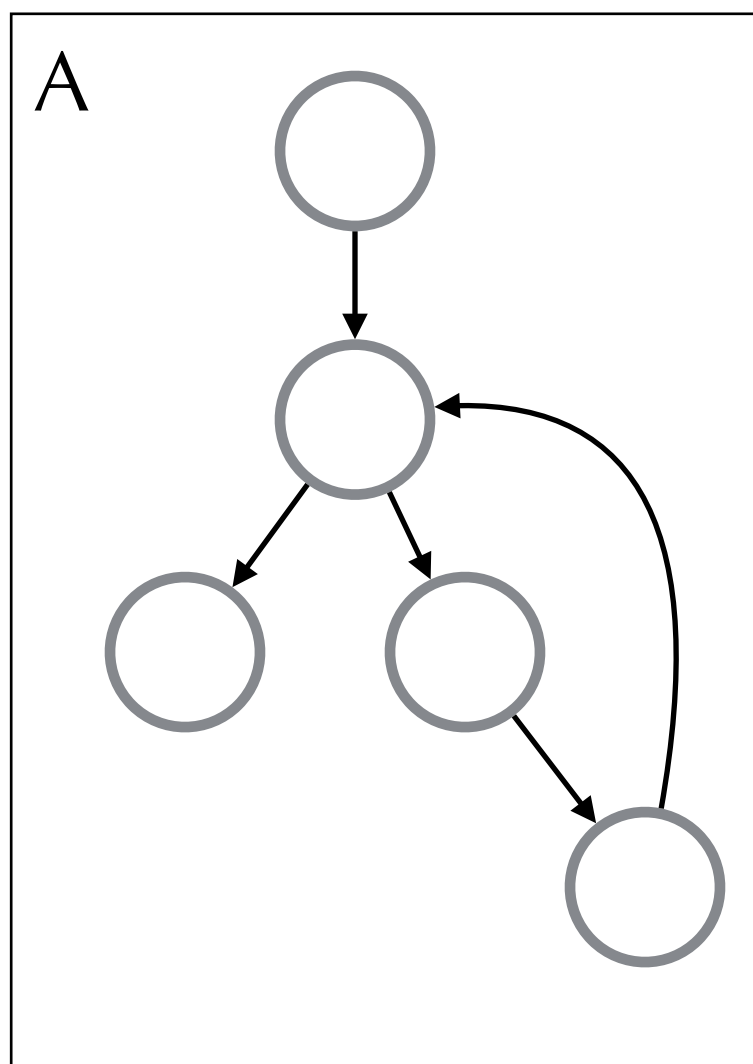
# Writing Fast Programs In Practice

- Pick the right algorithms and data structures.
  - These have a much bigger impact on performance than compiler optimizations.
  - Reduce # of operations
  - Reduce memory accesses
  - Minimize indirection – it breaks working-set coherence
- **Then** turn on compiler optimizations.
- Profile to determine program hot spots.
- Evaluate whether the algorithm/data structure design works.

# Loop optimization

# Quiz

- For each of these Control Flow Graphs (CFGs), what is a C program that corresponds to it?



# Loop Optimizations

- Vast majority of time spent in loops
- So we want techniques to improve loops!
  - Loop invariant removal
  - Induction variable elimination
  - Loop unrolling
  - Loop fusion
  - Loop fission
  - Loop peeling
  - Loop interchange
  - Loop tiling
  - Loop parallelization
  - Software pipelining

# Example 1: Invariant Removal

L0:     $t := 0$

L1:     $i := i + 1$

$t := a + b$

$*i := t$

      if  $i < N$  goto L1 else L2

L2:     $x := t$

# Example 1: Invariant Removal

L0:    t  := 0

      t  := a + b

L1:    i  := i + 1

      \*i := t

      if i < N goto L1 else L2

L2:    x  := t



## Example 2: Induction Variable

```
L0:  i := 0          s=0;  
      s := 0        for (i=0; i < 100; i++)  
      jump L2        s += a[i];  
  
L1:  t1 := i*4  
      t2 := a+t1  
      t3 := *t2  
      s := s + t3  
      i := i+1  
  
L2:  if i < 100 goto L1 else goto L3  
L3:  ...
```

## Example 2: Induction Variable

L0:     $i := 0$   
       $s := 0$   
      jump L2

L1:     $t1 := i * 4$   
       $t2 := a + t1$   
       $t3 := *t2$   
       $s := s + t3$   
       $i := i + 1$

L2:    if  $i < 100$  goto L1 else goto L3

L3:    ...

$t1$  is always equal to  
 $i * 4$  !

## Example 2: Induction Variable

L0:  $i := 0$

$s := 0$

$t1 := 0$

jump L2

L1:  $t2 := a + t1$

$t3 := *t2$

$s := s + t3$

$i := i + 1$

$t1 := t1 + 4$

L2: if  $i < 100$  goto L1 else goto L3

L3: ...

$t1$  is always equal to  
 $i * 4$  !

## Example 2: Induction Variable

```
L0:  i  := 0
      s  := 0
      t1 := 0
      jump L2
L1:  t2 := a+t1
      t3 := *t2
      s  := s + t3
      i  := i+1
      t1 := t1+4
L2:  if i < 100 goto L1 else goto L3
L3:  ...
```

## Example 2: Induction Variable

L0:     $i := 0$   
       $s := 0$   
       $t1 := 0$   
      jump L2

L1:     $t2 := a + t1$   
       $t3 := *t2$   
       $s := s + t3$   
       $i := i + 1$   
       $t1 := t1 + 4$

L2:    if  $i < 100$  goto L1 else goto L3

L3:    ...

$t2$  is always equal to  
 $a + t1 == a + i * 4$  !

## Example 2: Induction Variable

```
L0:  i := 0
      s := 0
      t1 := 0
      t2 := a
      jump L2
L1:  t3 := *t2
      s := s + t3
      i := i+1
      t2 := t2+4
      t1 := t1+4
L2:  if i < 100 goto L1 else goto L3
L3:  ...
```

t2 is always equal to  
 $a + t1 == a + i * 4$  !

## Example 2: Induction Variable

```
L0:  i := 0
      s := 0
      t1 := 0
      t2 := a
      jump L2
L1:  t3 := *t2
      s := s + t3
      i := i+1
      t2 := t2+4
      t1 := t1+4
L2:  if i < 100 goto L1 else goto L3
L3:  ...
```

t1 is no  
longer used!

## Example 2: Induction Variable

```
L0:  i := 0  
      s := 0  
      t2 := a  
      jump L2
```

```
L1:  t3 := *t2  
      s := s + t3  
      i := i+1  
      t2 := t2+4
```

```
L2:  if i < 100 goto L1 else goto L3
```

```
L3:  ...
```



## Example 2: Induction Variable

L0:     $i := 0$   
       $s := 0$   
       $t2 := a$   
      jump L2

L1:     $t3 := *t2$   
       $s := s + t3$   
       $i := i + 1$   
       $t2 := t2 + 4$

L2:    if  $i < 100$  goto L1 else goto L3

L3:    ...

$i$  is now used just to  
count 100 iterations.  
But  $t2 = 4*i + a$   
so  $i < 100$   
when  
 $t2 < a + 400$

## Example 2: Induction Variable

```
L0:  i := 0
      s := 0
      t2 := a
      t5 := t2 + 400
      jump L2
L1:  t3 := *t2
      s := s + t3
      i := i+1
      t2 := t2+4
L2:  if t2 < t5 goto L1 else goto L3
L3:  ...
```

$i$  is now used just to count 100 iterations.  
But  $t2 = 4*i + a$   
so  $i < 100$   
when  
 $t2 < a+400$

## Example 2: Induction Variable

L0:     $s := 0$   
       $t2 := a$   
       $t5 := t2 + 400$   
      jump L2

L1:     $t3 := *t2$   
       $s := s + t3$   
       $t2 := t2 + 4$

L2:    if  $t2 < t5$  goto L1 else goto L3

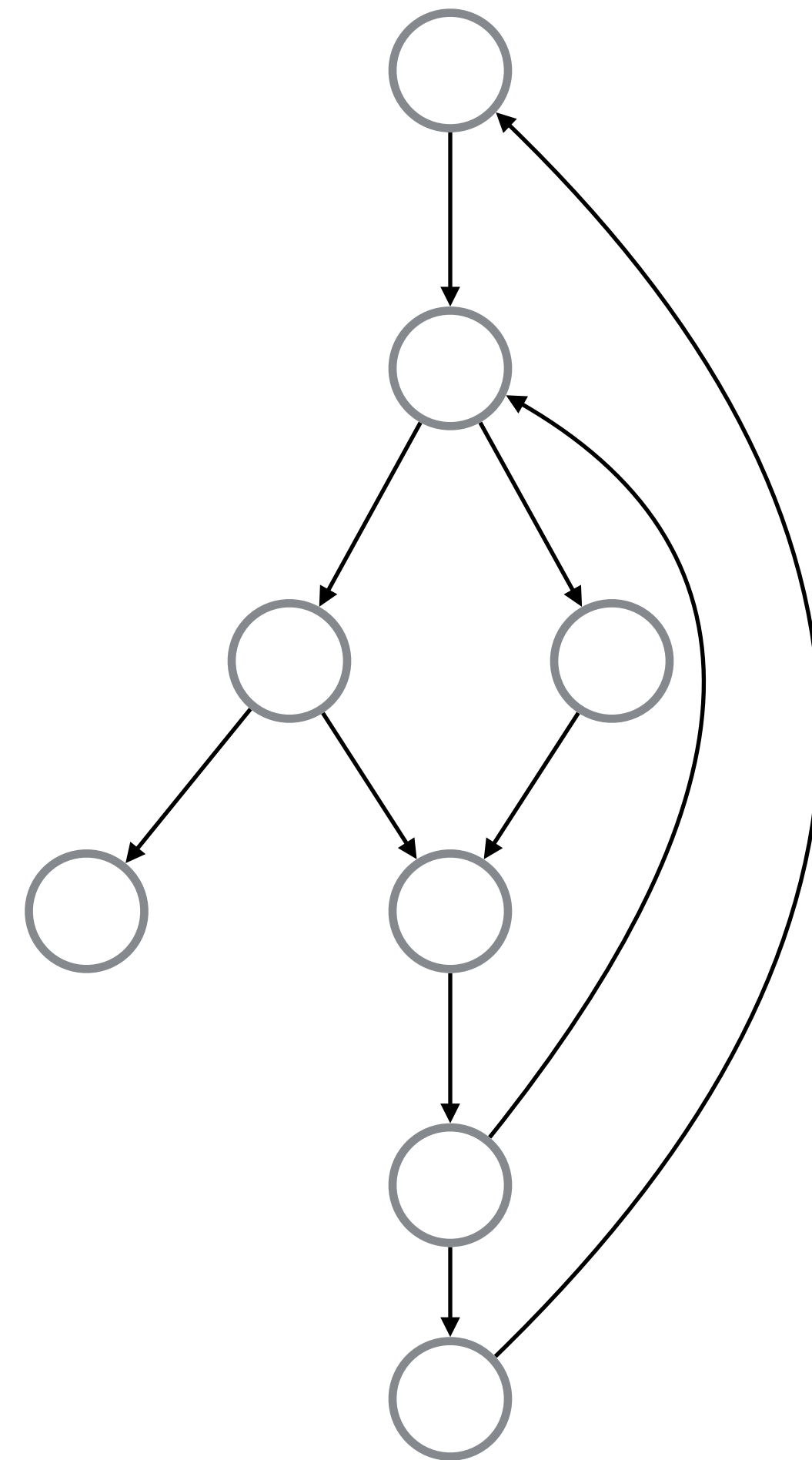
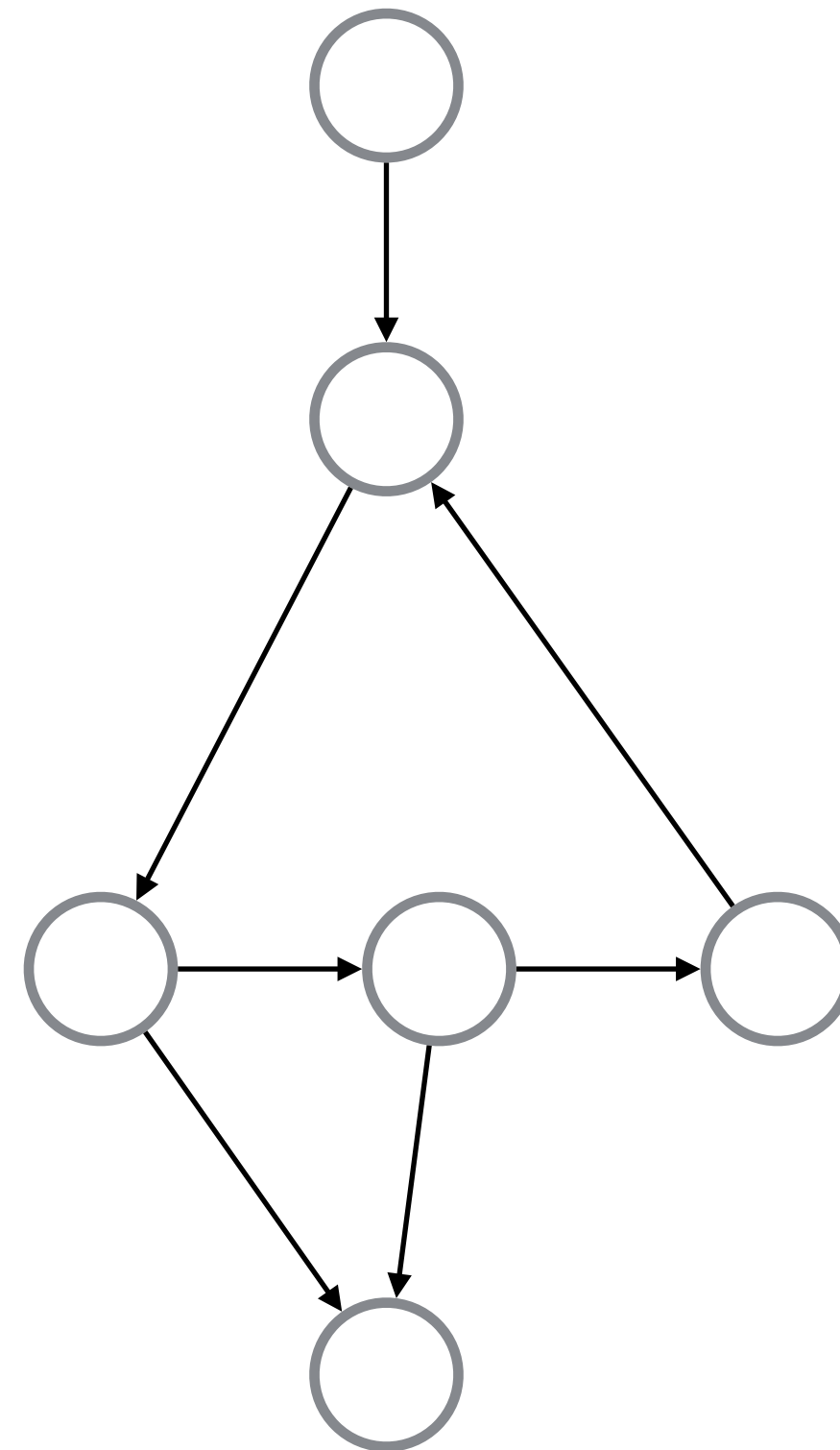
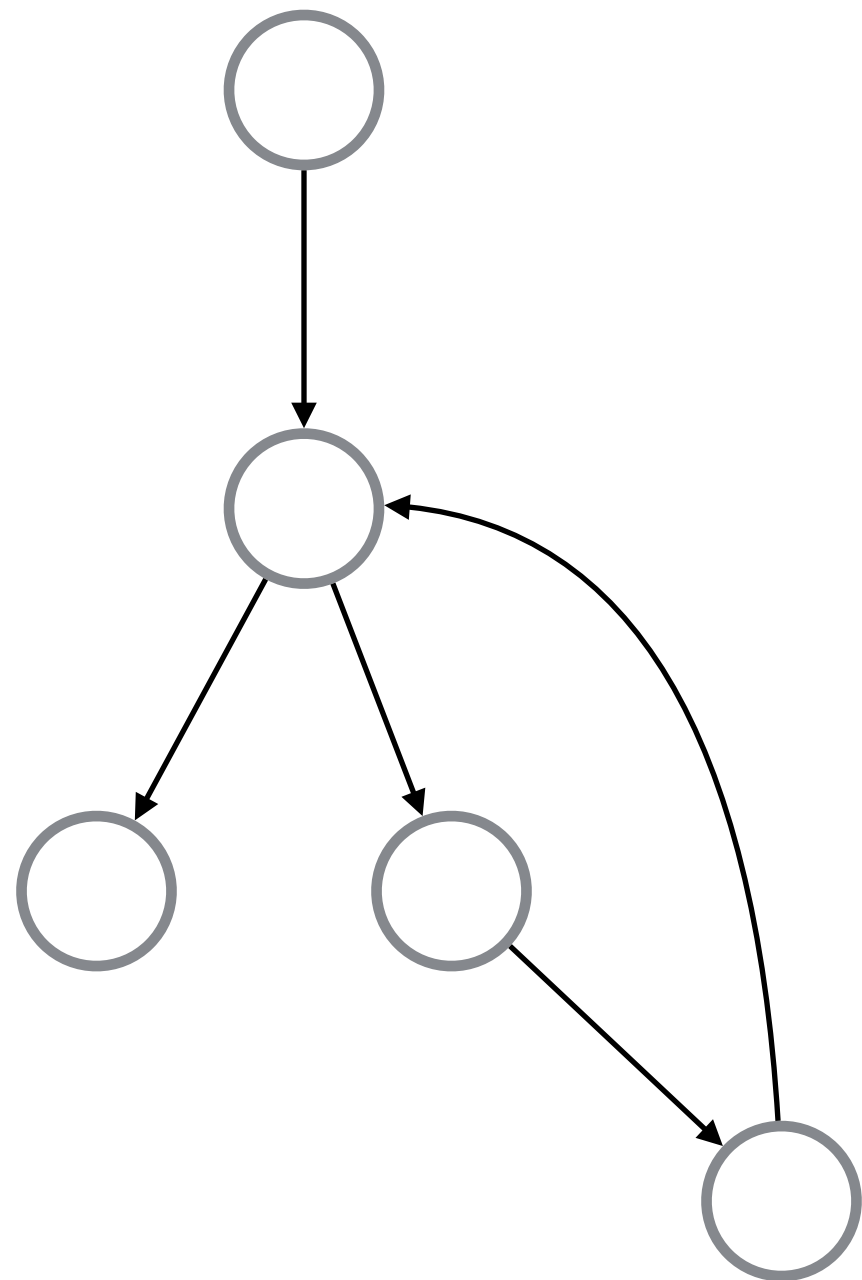
L3:    ...

$i$  is now used just to  
count 100 iterations.  
But  $t2 = 4*i + a$   
so  $i < 100$   
when  
 $t2 < a + 400$

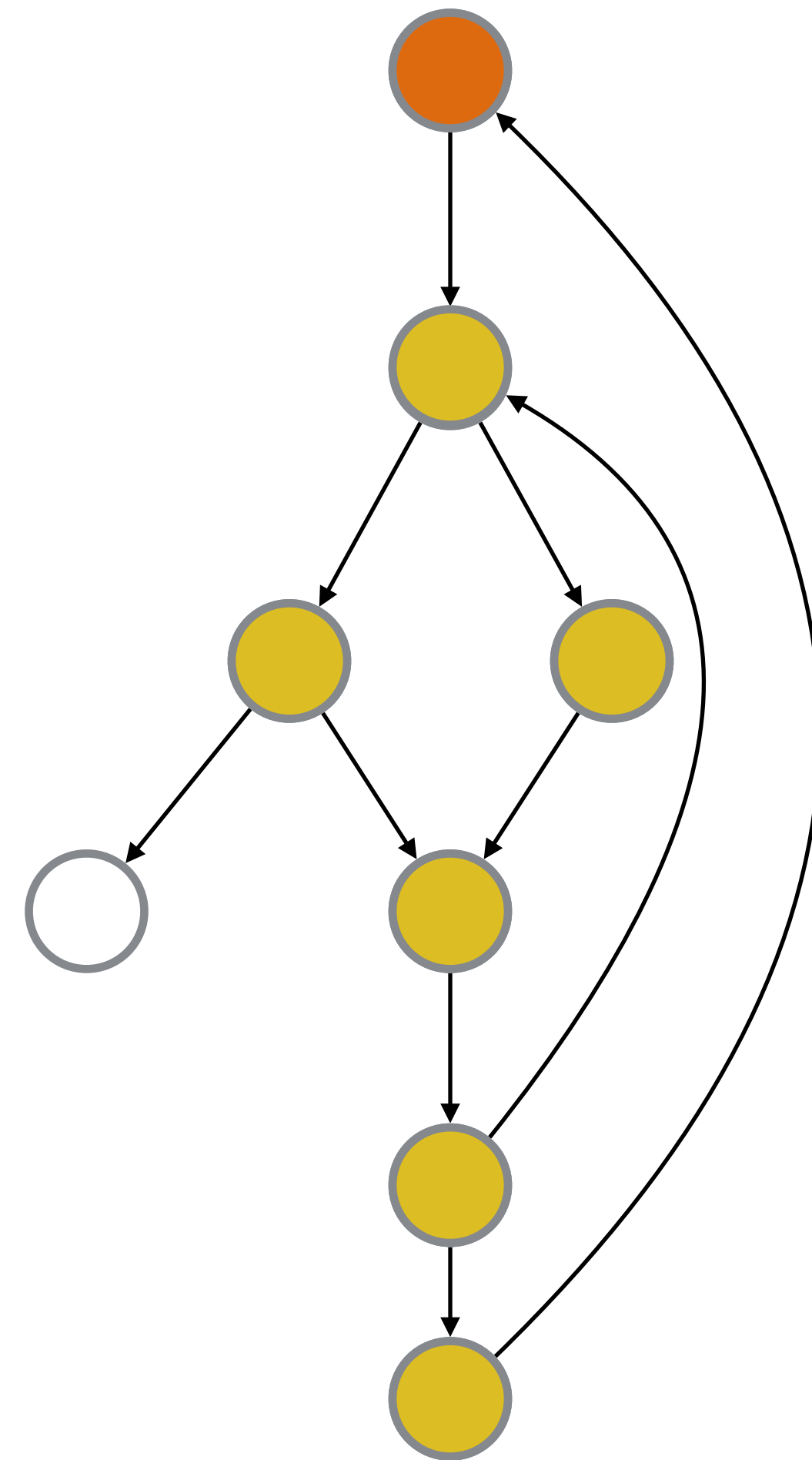
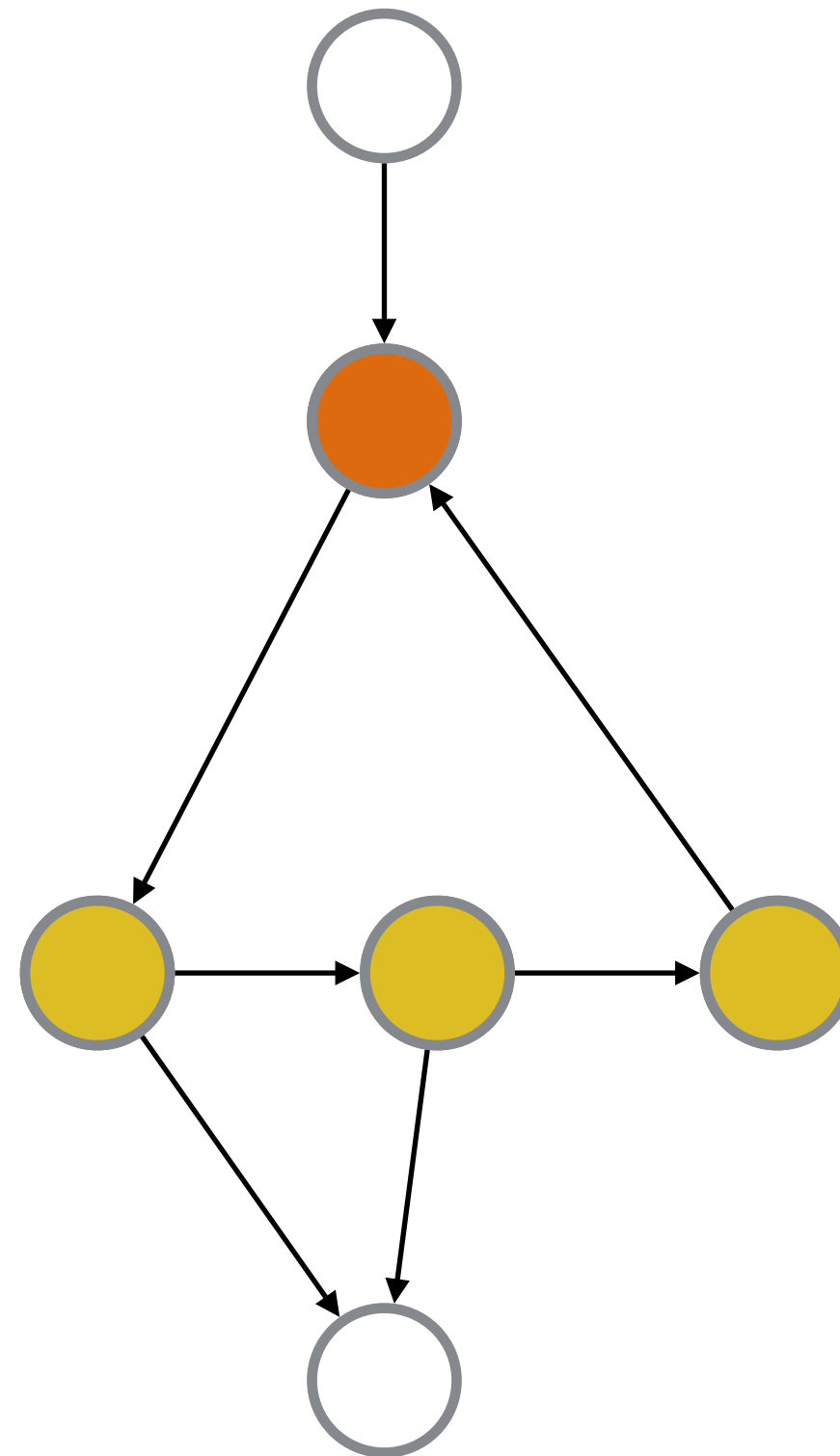
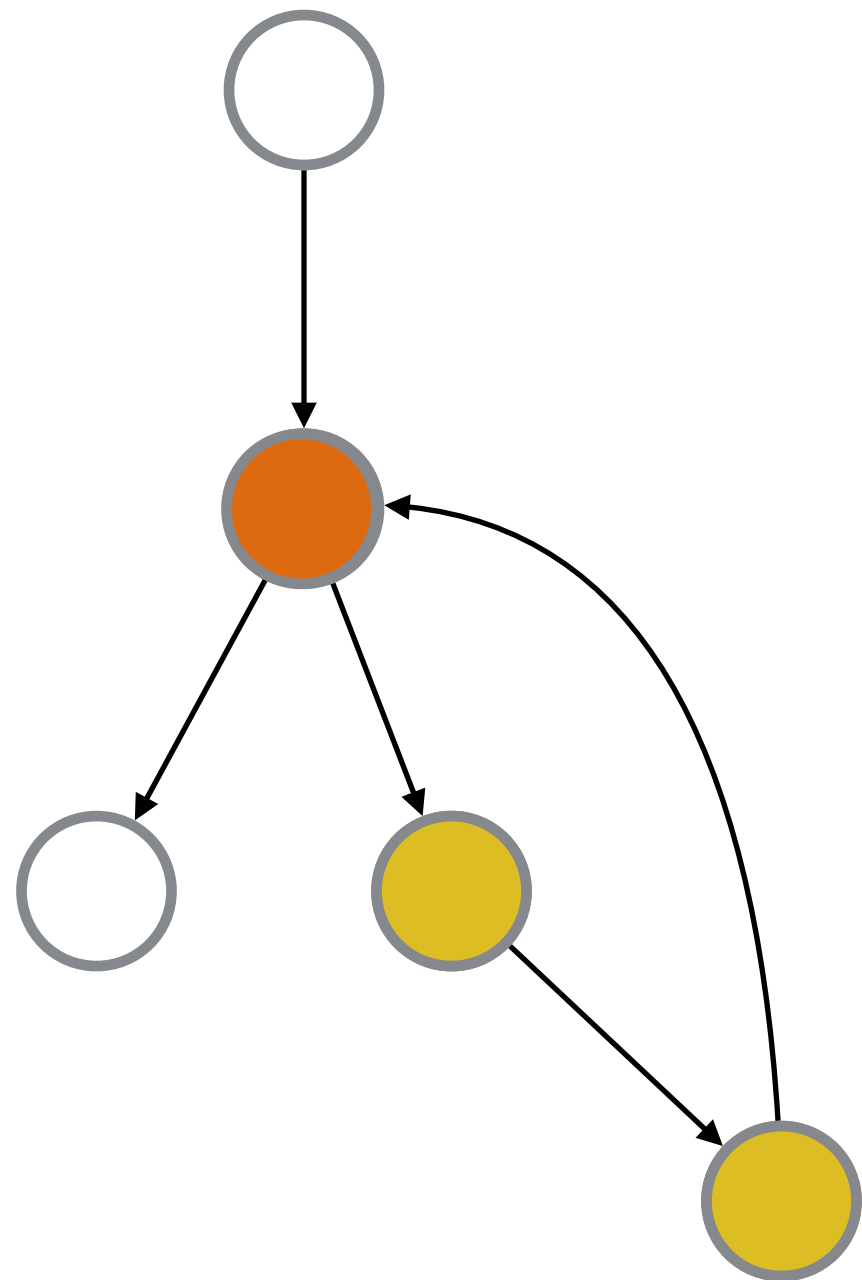
# Loop Analysis

- How do we identify loops?
- What is a loop?
  - Can't just “look” at graphs
  - We're going to assume some additional structure
- **Definition:** a **loop** is a subset  $S$  of nodes where:
  - $S$  is strongly connected:
    - For any two nodes in  $S$ , there is a path from one to the other using only nodes in  $S$
  - There is a distinguished header node  $h \in S$  such that there is no edge from a node outside  $S$  to  $S \setminus \{h\}$

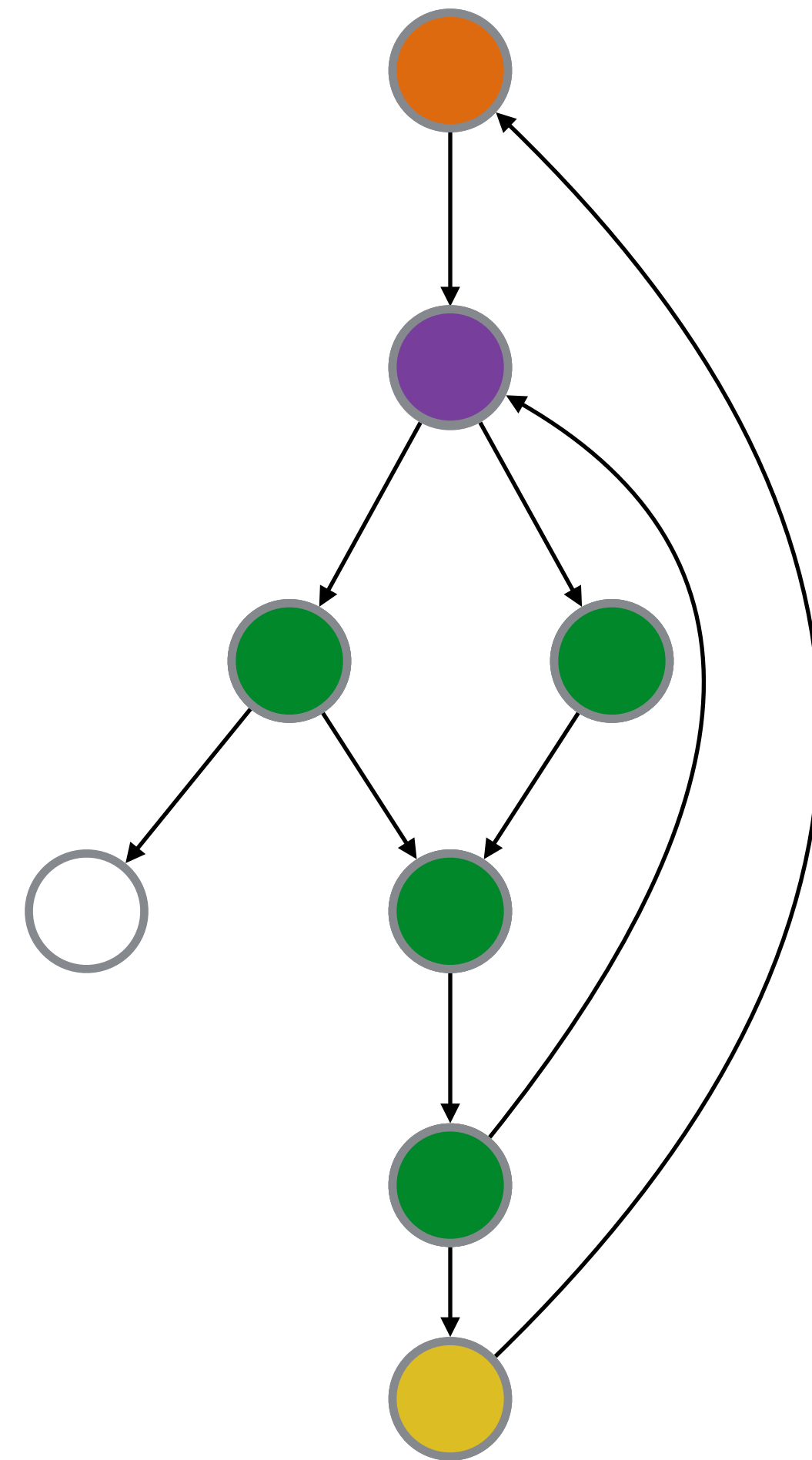
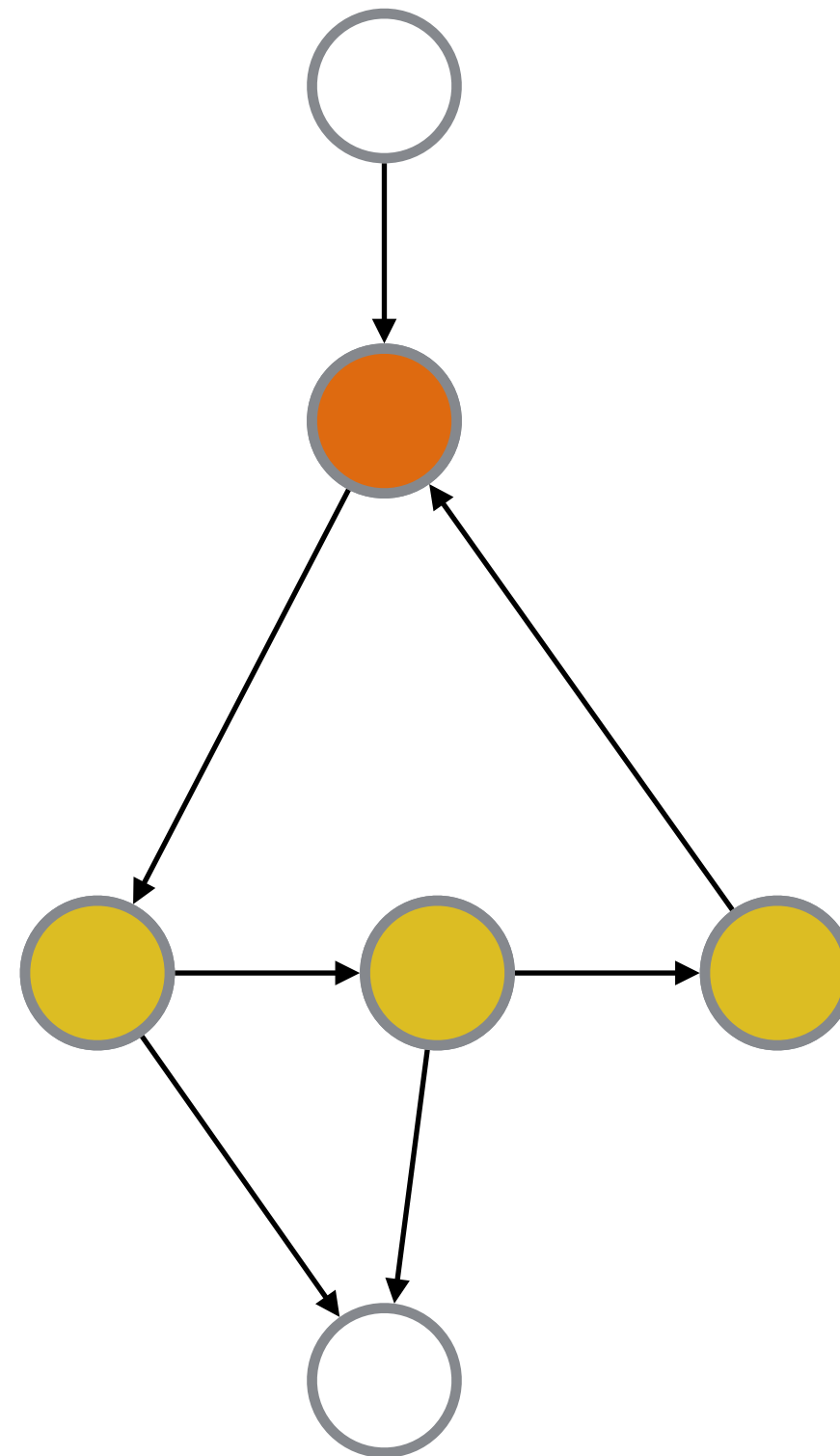
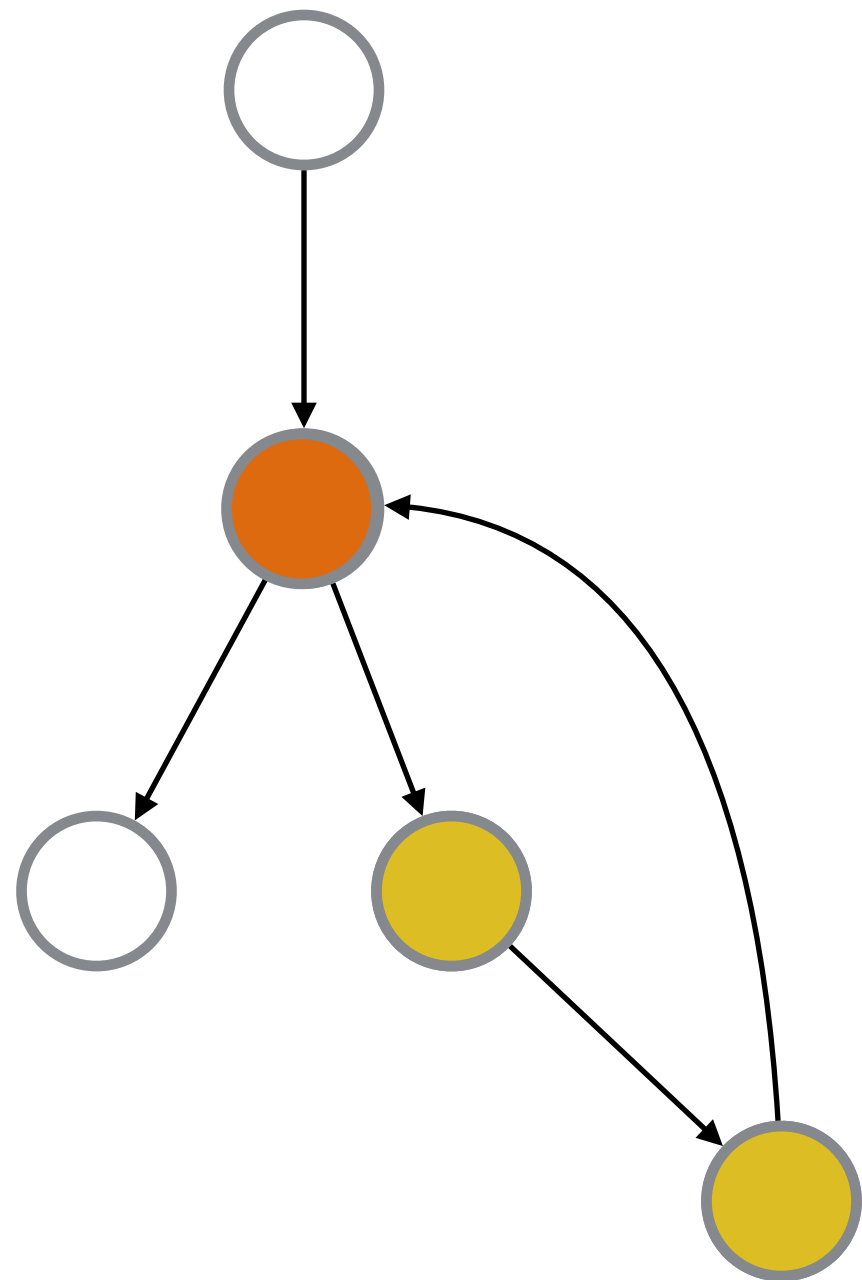
# Examples



# Examples

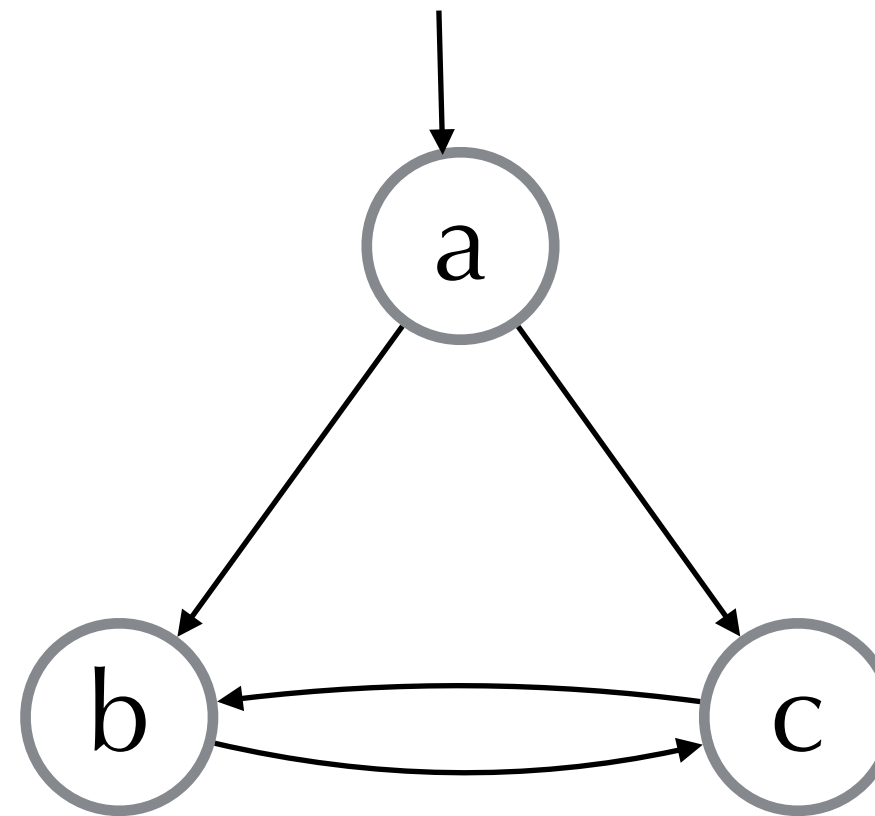


# Examples



# Non-example

- Consider the following:



- a can't be header
  - No path from b to a or c to a
- b can't be header
  - Has outside edge from a
- c can't be header
  - Has outside edge from a
- So no loop...
- But clearly a cycle!



# Reducible Flow Graphs

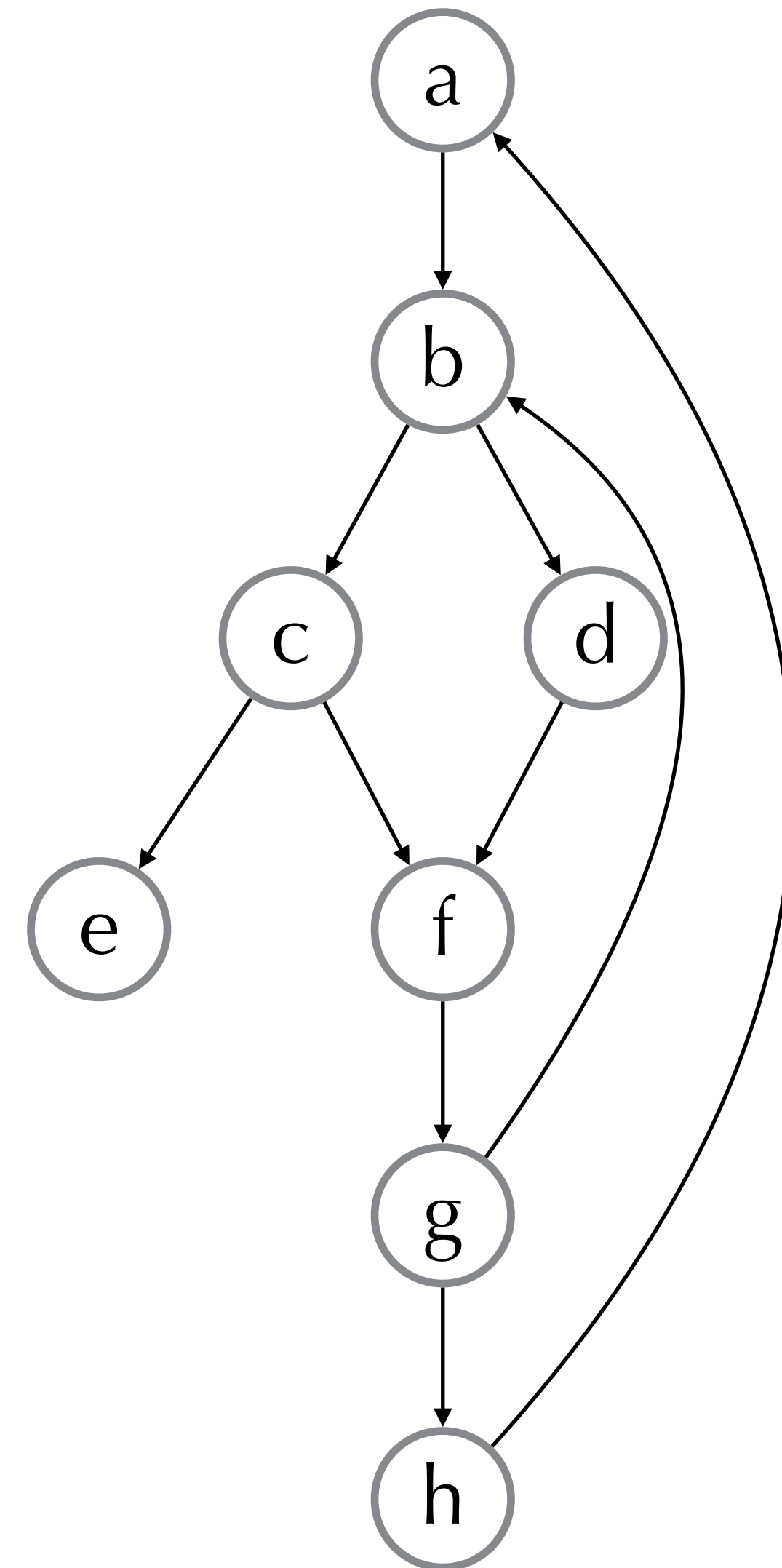
- So why did we define loops this way?
- Loop header gives us a “handle” for the loop
  - e.g., a good spot for hoisting invariant statements
- Structured control-flow only produces **reducible graphs**
  - a graph where all cycles are loops according to our definition.
  - Java: only reducible graphs
  - C/C++: goto can produce irreducible graph
- Many analyses & loop optimizations depend upon having reducible graphs

# Finding Loops

- **Definition:** node  $d$  **dominates** node  $n$  if every path from the start node to  $n$  must go through  $d$
- **Definition:** an edge from  $n$  to a dominator  $d$  is called a **back-edge**
- **Definition:** a **loop** of a back edge  $n \rightarrow d$  is the set of nodes  $x$  such that  $d$  dominates  $x$  and there is a path from  $x$  to  $n$  not including  $d$
- So to find loops, we figure out dominators, and identify back edges

# Example

- a dominates a,b,c,d,e,f,g,h
- b dominates b,c,d,e,f,g,h
- c dominates c,e
- d dominates d
- e dominates e
- f dominates f,g,h
- g dominates g,h
- h dominates h
- back-edges?
  - $g \rightarrow b$
  - $h \rightarrow a$
- loops?



# Calculating Dominators

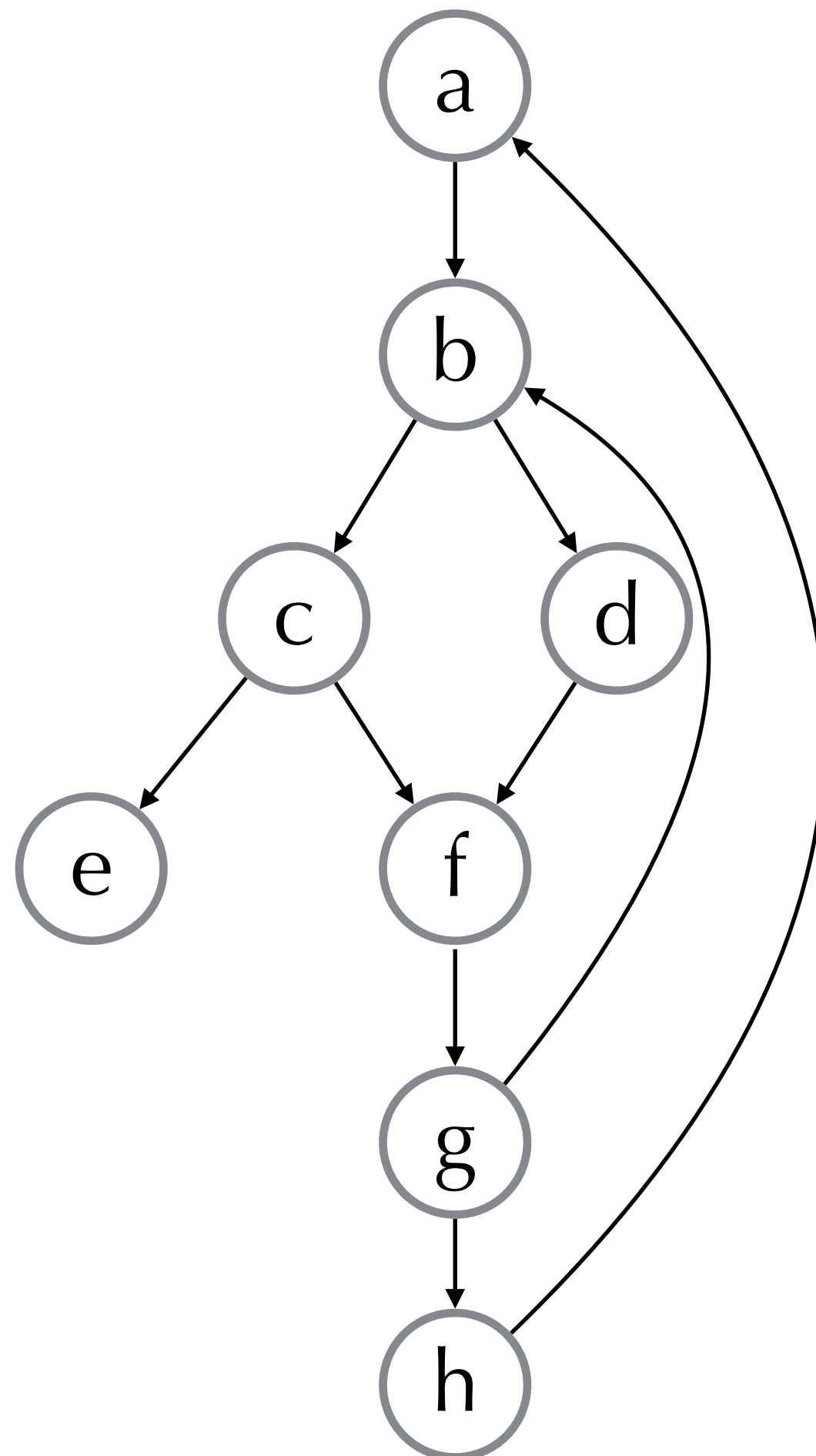
- $D[n]$  : the set of nodes that dominate  $n$
- $D[n] = \{n\} \cup (D[p_1] \cap D[p_2] \cap \dots \cap D[p_m])$   
where  $pred[n] = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m\}$
- It's pretty easy to solve this equation:
  - start off assuming  $D[n]$  is all nodes.
    - except for the start node (which is dominated only by itself)
  - iteratively update  $D[n]$  based on predecessors until you reach a fixed point

# Representing Dominators

- Don't actually need to keep set of all dominators for each node
- Instead, construct a **dominator tree**
  - Insight: if both  $d$  and  $e$  dominate  $n$ , then either  $d$  dominates  $e$  or vice versa
  - So that means that node  $n$  has a “closest” or **immediate dominator**

# Example

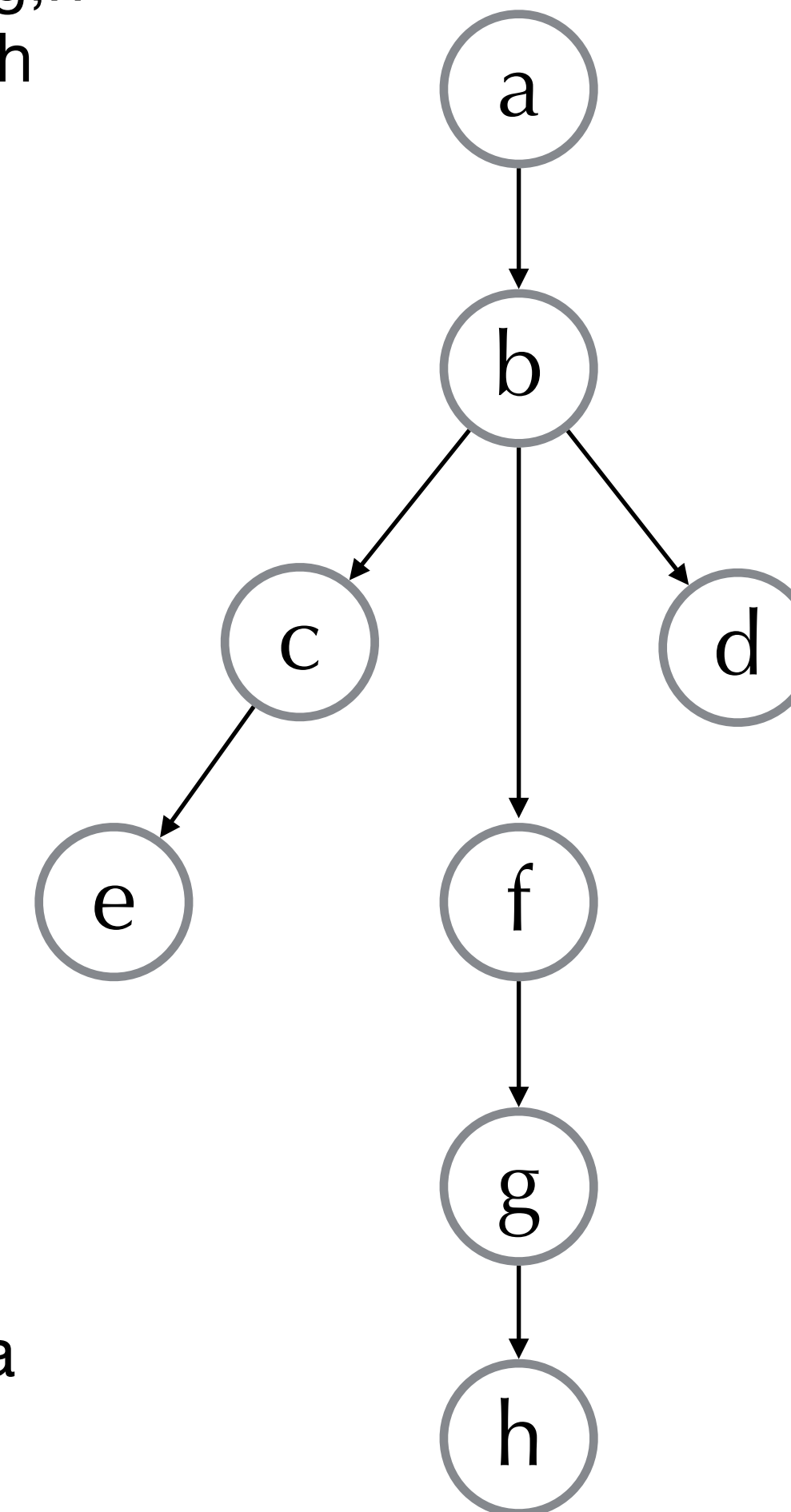
**CFG**



a dominates a,b,c,d,e,f,g,h  
b dominates b,c,d,e,f,g,h  
c dominates c,e  
d dominates d  
e dominates e  
f dominates f,g,h  
g dominates g,h  
h dominates h

a dominated by a  
b dominated by b,a  
c dominated by c,b,a  
d dominated by d,b,a  
e dominated by e,c,b,a  
f dominated by f,b,a  
g dominated by g,f,b,a  
h dominated by h,g,f,b,a

**Immediate  
Dominator Tree**



# Nested Loops

- If loops A and B have distinct headers and all nodes in B are in A (i.e.,  $B \subseteq A$ ), then we say B is **nested** within A
- An **inner loop** is a nested loop that doesn't contain any other loops
- We usually concentrate our attention on nested loops first (since we spend most time in them)

# Loop Invariants

- An assignment  $x := v_1 \text{ op } v_2$  is **invariant** for a loop if for each operand  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  either
  - the operand is constant, or
  - all of the definitions that reach the assignment are outside the loop, or
  - only one definition reaches the assignment and it is a loop invariant



# Example

```
L0:  t  := 0
      a  := x
L1:  i  := i + 1
      b  := 7
      t  := a + b
      *i := t
      if i < N goto L1 else L2

L2:  x  := t
```

# Hoisting

- We would like to **hoist** invariant computations out of the loop
- But this is trickier than it sounds:
  - We need to potentially introduce an extra node in the CFG, right before the header to place the hoisted statements (the **pre-header**)
  - Even then, we can run into trouble...

# Valid Hoisting Example

L0:    t := 0

L1:    i := i + 1  
      t := a + b  
      \*i := t  
      if i < N goto L1 else L2

L2:    x := t

# Valid Hoisting Example

L0:    t  := 0

t  := a + b

L1:    i  := i + 1

    \*i  := t

    if i < N goto L1 else L2

L2:    x  := t

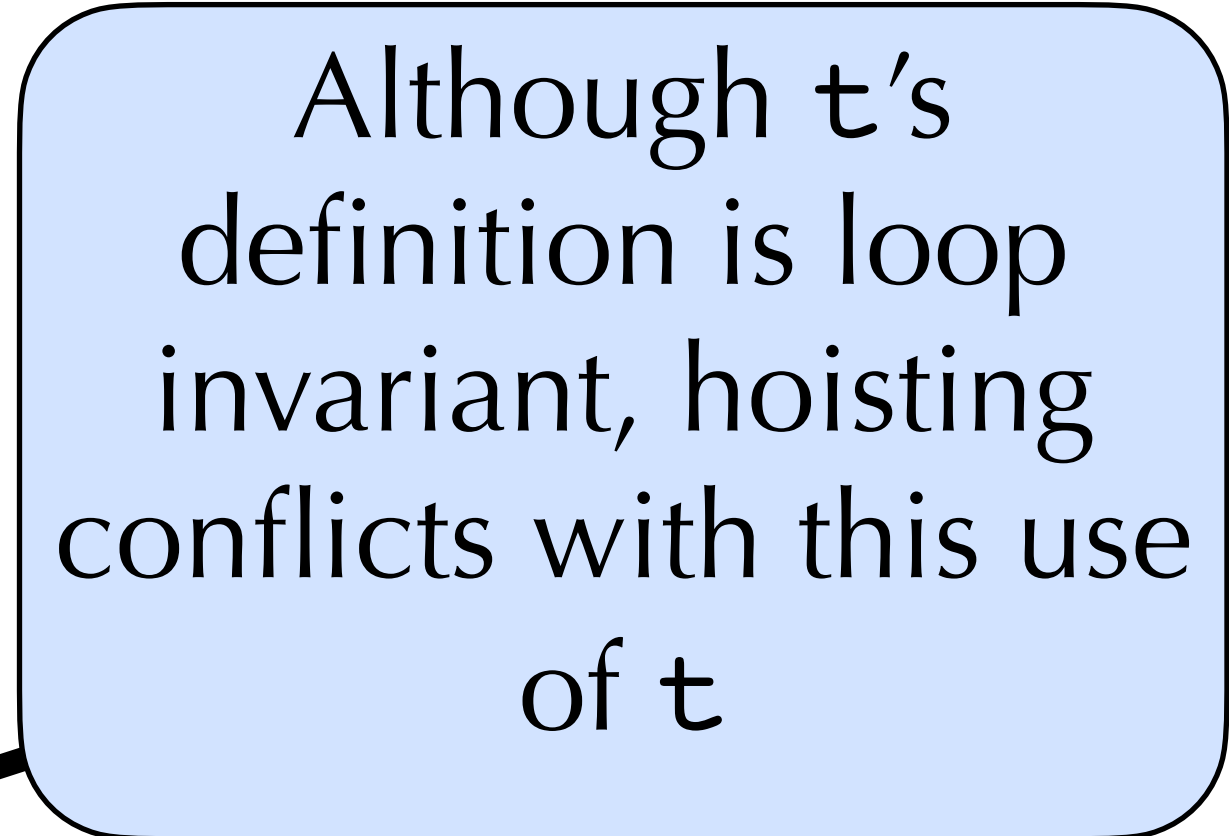
# Invalid Hoisting Example

L0:     $t := 0$

L1:     $i := i + 1$   
       $*i := t$   
       $t := a + b$   
      if  $i < N$  goto L1 else L2

L2:     $x := t$

Although  $t$ 's  
definition is loop  
invariant, hoisting  
conflicts with this use  
of  $t$



# Conditions for Safe Hoisting

- An invariant assignment  $d: x := v_1 \text{ op } v_2$  is safe to hoist if:
  - $d$  dominates all loop exits at which  $x$  is live and
  - there is only one definition of  $x$  in the loop, and
  - $x$  is not live at the entry point for the loop (the pre-header)

# Induction Variable Reduction

- Can express  $j$  and  $k$  as linear functions of  $i$  where the coefficients are either constants or loop-invariant
  - $j = 4*i + 0$
  - $k = 4*i + a$

# Induction Variables

```
      s := 0
      i := 0
L1:   if i >= n goto L2
      j := i*4
      k := j+a
      x := *k
      s := s+x
      i := i+1
L2:   ...
```

- Can express  $j$  and  $k$  as linear functions of  $i$  where the coefficients are either constants or loop-invariant
  - $j = 4*i + 0$
  - $k = 4*i + a$



# Induction Variables

```
      s := 0
      i := 0
L1:   if i >= n goto L2
      j := i*4
      k := j+a
      x := *k
      s := s+x
      i := i+1
L2:   ...
```

- Note that  $i$  only changes by the same amount each iteration of the loop
- We say that  $i$  is a **linear induction variable**
- It's easy to express the change in  $j$  and  $k$ 
  - Since  $j = 4*i + 0$  and  $k = 4*i + a$ , if  $i$  changes by  $c$ ,  $j$  and  $k$  change by  $4*c$

# Detecting Induction Variables

- **Definition:**  $i$  is a **basic induction variable** in a loop  $L$  if the only definitions of  $i$  within  $L$  are of the form  $i := i + c$  or  $i := i - c$  where  $c$  is loop invariant
- **Definition:**  $k$  is a **derived induction variable** in loop  $L$  if:
  - 1. There is only one definition of  $k$  within  $L$  of the form  $k := j * c$  or  $k := j + c$  where  $j$  is an induction variable and  $c$  is loop invariant; and
  - 2. If  $j$  is an induction variable in the family of  $i$  (i.e., linear in  $i$ ) then:
    - the only definition of  $j$  that reaches  $k$  is the one in the loop; and
    - there is no definition of  $i$  on any path between the definition of  $j$  and the definition of  $k$
- If  $k$  is a derived induction variable in the family of  $j$  and  $j = a * i + b$  and, say,  $k := j * c$ , then  $k = a * c * i + b * c$

# Strength Reduction

- For each derived induction variable  $j$  where  $j = e_1 * i + e_0$  make a fresh temp  $j'$
- At the loop pre-header, initialize  $j'$  to  $e_0$
- After each  $i := i + c$ , define  $j' := j' + (e_1 * c)$ 
  - note that  $e_1 * c$  can be computed in the loop header (i.e., it's loop invariant)
- Replace the unique assignment of  $j$  in the loop with  $j := j'$

# Example

```
      s := 0
      i := 0
L1:   if i >= n goto L2
      j := i*4
      k := j+a
      x := *k
      s := s+x
      i := i+1

L2:   ...
```

- $i$  is basic induction variable
- $j$  is derived induction variable in family of  $i$ 
  - $j = 4*i + 0$
- $k$  is derived induction variable in family of  $j$ 
  - $k = 4*i + a$

# Example

s := 0

i := 0

j' := 0

k' := a

L1: if i >= n goto L2

j := i\*4

k := j+a

x := \*k

s := s+x

i := i+1

L2: ...

- i is basic induction variable
- j is derived induction variable in family of i
- $j = 4*i + 0$
- k is derived induction variable in family of j
- $k = 4*i + a$

# Example

s := 0

i := 0

j' := 0

k' := a

L1: if i >= n goto L2

j := i\*4

k := j+a

x := \*k

s := s+x

i := i+1

j' := j' + 4

k' := k' + 4

L2: ...

- i is basic induction variable
- j is derived induction variable in family of i
- $j = 4*i + 0$
- k is derived induction variable in family of j
- $k = 4*i + a$

# Example

$s := 0$

$i := 0$

$j' := 0$

$k' := a$

L1:     $\text{if } i \geq n \text{ goto L2}$

$j := j'$

$k := k'$

$x := *k$

$s := s + x$

$i := i + 1$

$j' := j' + 4$

$k' := k' + 4$

L2:    ...

- $i$  is basic induction variable
- $j$  is derived induction variable in family of  $i$ 
  - $j = 4 * i + 0$
- $k$  is derived induction variable in family of  $j$ 
  - $k = 4 * i + a$

# Example

```
s := 0
i := 0
j' := 0
k' := a

L1:  if i >= n goto L2
      x := *k'
      s := s+x
      i := i+1
      j' := j'+4
      k' := k'+4

L2:  ...
```

- $i$  is basic induction variable
- $j$  is derived induction variable in family of  $i$ 
  - $j = 4*i + 0$
- $k$  is derived induction variable in family of  $j$ 
  - $k = 4*i + a$



# Useless Variables

```
s := 0
i := 0
j' := 0
k' := a

L1:  if i >= n goto L2
      x := *k'
      s := s+x
      i := i+1
      j' := j'+4
      k' := k'+4

L2:  ...
```

- A variable is **useless** for  $L$  if it is dead at all exits from  $L$  and its only use is in a definition of itself
- E.g.,  $j'$  is useless
- Can delete useless variables

# Useless Variables

```
s := 0
i := 0
j' := 0
k' := a

L1:  if i >= n goto L2
      x := *k'
      s := s+x
      i := i+1
      k' := k'+4

L2:  ...
```

- A variable is **useless** for  $L$  if it is dead at all exits from  $L$  and its only use is in a definition of itself
- E.g.,  $j'$  is useless
- Can delete useless variables

# Useless Variables

```
s := 0
i := 0
k' := a

L1:  if i >= n goto L2
      x := *k'
      s := s+x
      i := i+1
      k' := k'+4

L2:  ...
```

- A variable is **useless** for  $L$  if it is dead at all exits from  $L$  and its only use is in a definition of itself
- E.g.,  $j'$  is useless
- Can delete useless variables

# Almost Useless Variables

```
      s := 0
      i := 0
      k' := a
L1:   if i >= n goto L2
      x := *k'
      s := s+x
      i := i+1
      k' := k'+4
L2:   ...
```

- A variable is **almost useless** for  $L$  if it is used only in comparison against loop invariant values and in definitions of itself, and there is some other non-useless induction variable in same family
  - E.g.,  $i$  is almost useless
- An almost-useless variable may be made useless by modifying comparison
  - See Appel for details

# Loop Fusion and Loop Fission

- Fusion: combine two loops into one
- Fission: split one loop into two

# Loop Fusion

- Before

```
int acc = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {
    acc += a[i];
    a[i] = acc;
}
for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {
    b[i] += a[i];
}
```

- After

```
int acc = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {
    acc += a[i];
    a[i] = acc;
    b[i] += acc;
}
```

- What are the potential benefits? Costs?
- Locality of reference

# Loop Fission

- Before

```
for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {  
    a[i] = e1;  
    b[i] = e2;    // e1 and e2 independent  
}
```
- After

```
for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {  
    a[i] = e1;  
}  
for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {  
    b[i] = e2;  
}
```
- What are the potential benefits? Costs?
- Locality of reference

# Loop Unrolling

- Make copies of loop body
- Say, each iteration of rewritten loop performs 3 iterations of old loop



# Loop Unrolling

- Before

```
for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {  
    a[i] = b[i] * 7 + c[i] / 13;  
}
```
- After

```
for (int i = 0; i < n % 3; ++i) {  
    a[i] = b[i] * 7 + c[i] / 13;  
}  
for (; i < n; i += 3) {  
    a[i] = b[i] * 7 + c[i] / 13;  
    a[i + 1] = b[i + 1] * 7 + c[i + 1] / 13;  
    a[i + 2] = b[i + 2] * 7 + c[i + 2] / 13;  
}
```
- What are the potential benefits? Costs?
- Reduce branching penalty, end-of-loop-test costs
- Size of program increased

# Loop Unrolling

- If fixed number of iterations, maybe turn loop into sequence of statements!
- Before

```
for (int i = 0; i < 6; ++i) {  
    if (i % 2 == 0) foo(i); else bar(i);  
}
```

- After

```
foo(0);  
bar(1);  
foo(2);  
bar(3);  
foo(4);  
bar(5);
```

# Loop Interchange

- Change order of loop iteration variables

# Loop Interchange

- Before

```
for (int j = 0; j < n; ++j) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {  
        a[i][j] += 1;  
    }  
}
```

- After

```
for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {  
    for (int j = 0; j < n; ++j) {  
        a[i][j] += 1;  
    }  
}
```

- What are the potential benefits? Costs?
  - Locality of reference

# Loop Peeling

- Split first (or last) few iterations from loop and perform them separately

# Loop Peeling

- Before

```
for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {  
    b[i] = (i == 0) ? a[i] : a[i] + b[i-1];  
}
```

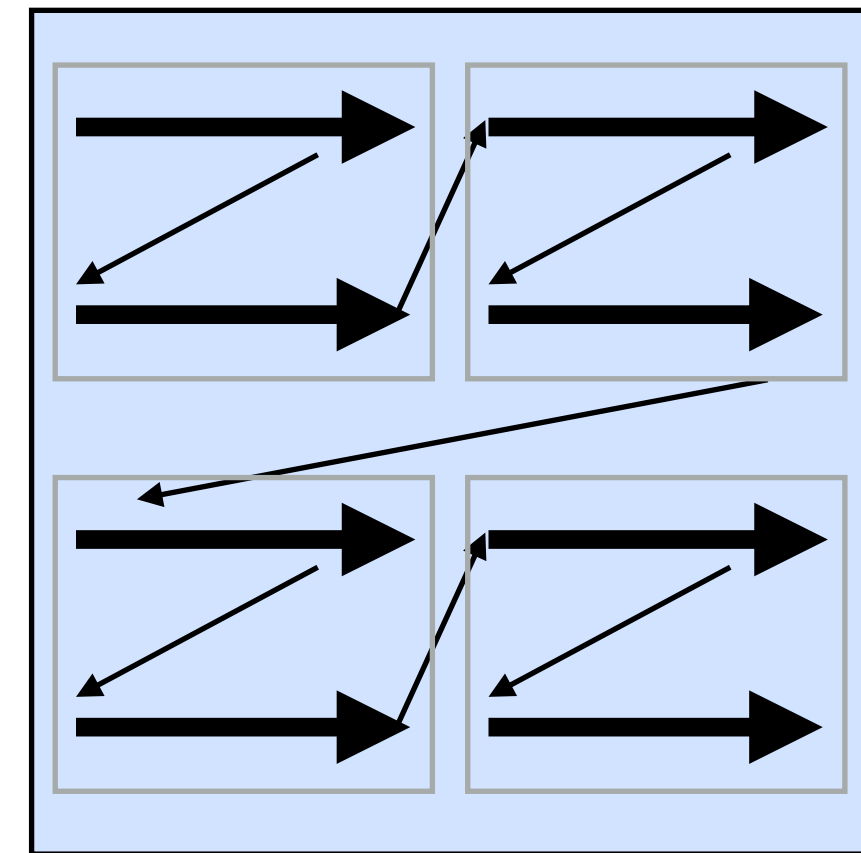
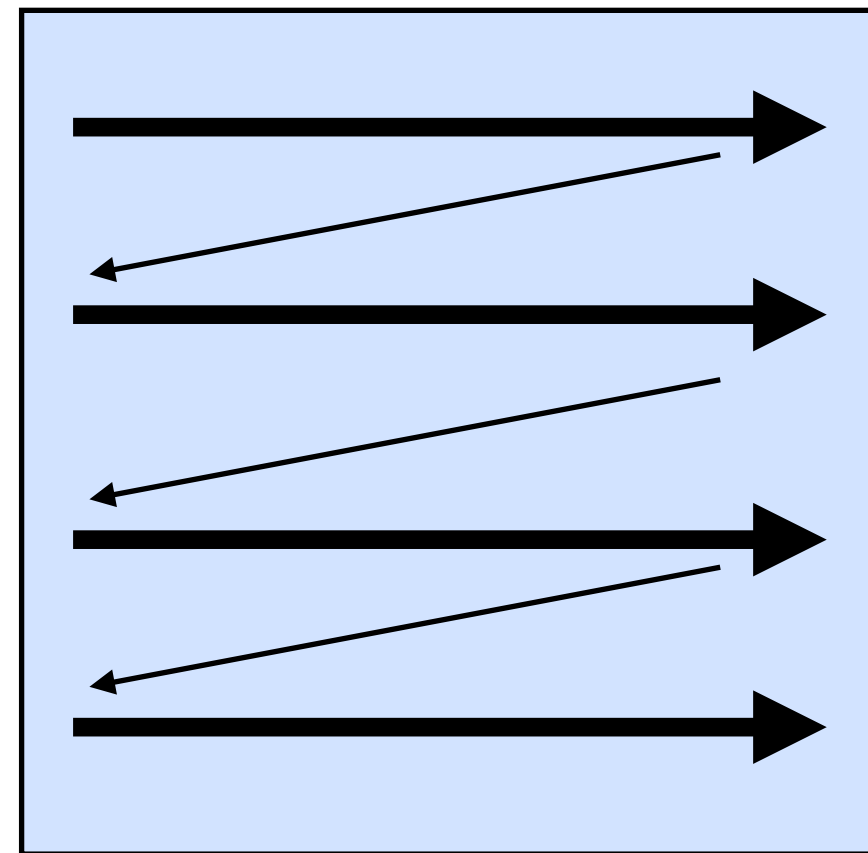
- After

```
b[0] = a[0];  
for (int i = 1; i < n; ++i) {  
    b[i] = a[i] + b[i-1];  
}
```

- What are the potential benefits? Costs?

# Loop Tiling

- For nested loops, change iteration order



# Loop Tiling

- Before

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {  
    c[i] = 0;  
    for (j = 0; j < n; j++) {  
        c[i] = c[i] + a[i][j] * b[j];  
    }  
}
```

- After:

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i += 4) {  
    c[i] = 0;  
    c[i + 1] = 0;  
    for (j = 0; j < n; j += 4) {  
        for (x = i; x < min(i + 4, n); x++) {  
            for (y = j; y < min(j + 4, n); y++) {  
                c[x] = c[x] + a[x][y] * b[y];  
            }  
        }  
    }  
}
```

- What are the potential benefits? Costs?



# Loop Parallelization

- Before

```
for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {  
    a[i] = b[i] + c[i]; // a, b, and c do not overlap  
}
```

- After

```
for (int i = 0; i < n % 4; ++i) a[i] = b[i] + c[i];  
for (; i < n; i = i + 4) {  
    __some4SIMDadd(a+i,b+i,c+i);  
}
```

- What are the potential benefits? Costs?