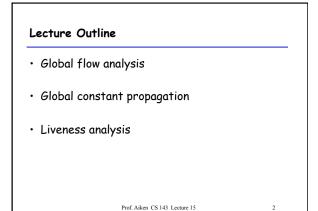
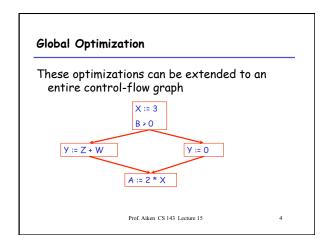
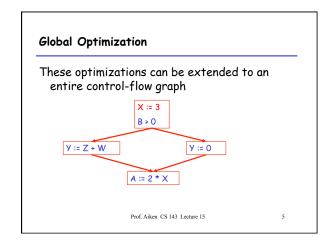
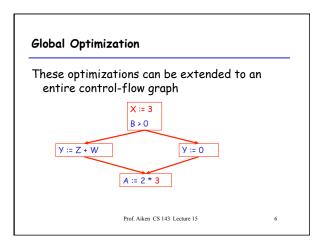
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Local Optimization Recall the simple basic-block optimizations - Constant propagation - Dead code elimination X:= 3 Y:= Z*W Y:= Z*W Q:= X+Y Prof. Aiken CS 143 Lecture 15

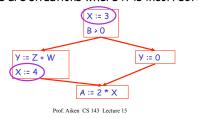






Correctness

- How do we know it is OK to globally propagate constants?
- There are situations where it is incorrect:



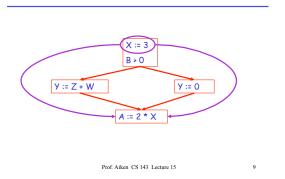
Correctness (Cont.)

To replace a use of \times by a constant k we must know that:

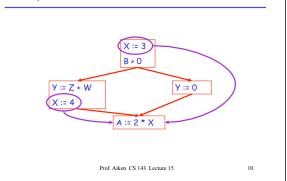
On every path to the use of x, the last assignment to x is x := k

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Example 1 Revisited



Example 2 Revisited



Discussion

- The correctness condition is not trivial to check
- "All paths" includes paths around loops and through branches of conditionals
- · Checking the condition requires global analysis
 - An analysis of the entire control-flow graph

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Global Analysis

Global optimization tasks share several traits:

- The optimization depends on knowing a property \boldsymbol{X} at a particular point in program execution
- Proving \boldsymbol{X} at any point requires knowledge of the entire program
- It is OK to be conservative. If the optimization requires \boldsymbol{X} to be true, then want to know either
 - \cdot X is definitely true
 - Don't know if X is true
- It is always safe to say "don't know"

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Global Analysis (Cont.)

- Global dataflow analysis is a standard technique for solving problems with these characteristics
- Global constant propagation is one example of an optimization that requires global dataflow analysis

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Global Constant Propagation

- Global constant propagation can be performed at any point where ** holds
- Consider the case of computing ** for a single variable X at all program points

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Global Constant Propagation (Cont.)

 To make the problem precise, we associate one of the following values with X at every program point

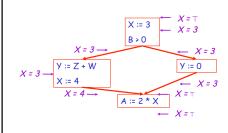
value	interpretation
1	This statement never executes
С	X = constant c
Т	X is not a constant

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Example



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Using the Information

- Given global constant information, it is easy to perform the optimization
 - Simply inspect the x = ? associated with a statement using x
 - If \boldsymbol{x} is constant at that point replace that use of \boldsymbol{x} by the constant
- But how do we compute the properties x = ?

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The Idea

The analysis of a complicated program can be expressed as a combination of simple rules relating the change in information between adjacent statements

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Explanation

- The idea is to "push" or "transfer" information from one statement to the next
- For each statement s, we compute information about the value of x immediately before and after s

```
C(s,x,in) = value of x before s

C(s,x,out) = value of x after s
```

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Transfer Functions

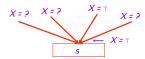
- Define a transfer function that transfers information one statement to another
- In the following rules, let statement s have immediate predecessor statements p_1, \dots, p_n

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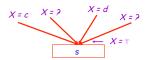
Rule 1



if $C(p_i, x, out) = T$ for any i, then C(s, x, in) = T

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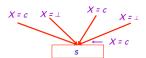
Rule 2



 $C(p_i, x, out) = c & C(p_j, x, out) = d & d \Leftrightarrow c then$ C(s, x, in) = T

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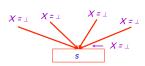
Rule 3



if $C(p_i, x, out) = c$ or \bot for all i, then C(s, x, in) = c

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Rule 4



if $C(p_i, x, out) = \bot$ for all i, then $C(s, x, in) = \bot$

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The Other Half

- Rules 1-4 relate the *out* of one statement to the *in* of the next statement
- Now we need rules relating the in of a statement to the out of the same statement

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Rule 5



$$C(s, x, out) = \bot \text{ if } C(s, x, in) = \bot$$

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Rule 6



C(x := c, x, out) = c if c is a constant

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Rule 7



C(x := f(...), x, out) = T

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Rule 8



C(y := ..., x, out) = C(y := ..., x, in) if $x \Leftrightarrow y$

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An Algorithm

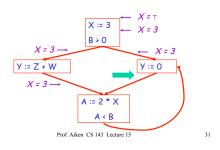
- 1. For every entry s to the program, set $C(s, \times, in) = \top$
- 2. Set $C(s, x, in) = C(s, x, out) = \bot$ everywhere
- 3. Repeat until all points satisfy 1-8:
 Pick s not satisfying 1-8 and update using the appropriate rule

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The Value \perp

• To understand why we need \perp , look at a loop



Discussion

- Consider the statement Y := 0
- To compute whether X is constant at this point, we need to know whether X is constant at the two predecessors
 - X := 3
 - A := 2 * X
- But info for A := 2 * X depends on its predecessors, including Y := 0!

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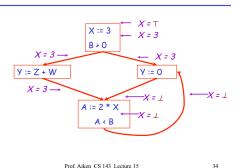
The Value \perp (Cont.)

- Because of cycles, all points must have values at all times
- Intuitively, assigning some initial value allows the analysis to break cycles
- The initial value \(\pm\$ means "So far as we know, control never reaches this point"

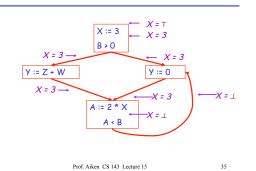
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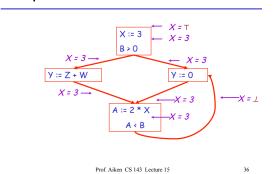
Example



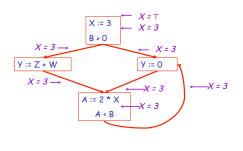
Example



Example



Example



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Orderings

 We can simplify the presentation of the analysis by ordering the values

• Drawing a picture with "lower" values drawn lower, we get $_{\top}$

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Orderings (Cont.)

- \top is the greatest value, \bot is the least
 - All constants are in between and incomparable
- Let lub be the least-upper bound in this ordering
- Rules 1-4 can be written using lub:
 C(s, x, in) = lub { C(p, x, out) | p is a predecessor of s }

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Termination

- Simply saying "repeat until nothing changes" doesn't guarantee that eventually nothing changes
- The use of lub explains why the algorithm terminates
 - Values start as \bot and only *increase*
 - \bot can change to a constant, and a constant to \top
 - Thus, $C(s, x, \underline{\ })$ can change at most twice

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Termination (Cont.)

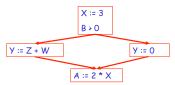
Thus the algorithm is linear in program size

Number of steps = Number of C(....) value computed * 2 = Number of program statements * 4

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Liveness Analysis

Once constants have been globally propagated, we would like to eliminate dead code



After constant propagation, X := 3 is dead (assuming X not used elsewhere)

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Live and Dead

- The first value of x is dead (never used)
- The second value of x is live (may be used)
- Liveness is an important concept



X := 3

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Liveness

A variable x is live at statement s if

- There exists a statement s' that uses x
- There is a path from s to s'
- That path has no intervening assignment to \times

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Global Dead Code Elimination

- A statement x := ... is dead code if x is dead after the assignment
- Dead statements can be deleted from the program
- But we need liveness information first . . .

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Computing Liveness

- We can express liveness in terms of information transferred between adjacent statements, just as in copy propagation
- Liveness is simpler than constant propagation, since it is a boolean property (true or false)

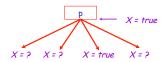
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Liveness Rule 1



 $L(p, x, out) = v \{ L(s, x, in) \mid s \text{ a successor of } p \}$

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Liveness Rule 2



L(s, x, in) = true if s refers to x on the rhs

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Liveness Rule 3



L(x := e, x, in) = false if e does not refer to x

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Liveness Rule 4



L(s, x, in) = L(s, x, out) if s does not refer to x

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Algorithm

- 1. Let all L(...) = false initially
- 2. Repeat until all statements s satisfy rules 1-4 Pick s where one of 1-4 does not hold and update using the appropriate rule

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Termination

- A value can change from false to true, but not the other way around
- · Each value can change only once, so termination is guaranteed
- Once the analysis is computed, it is simple to eliminate dead code

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Forward vs. Backward Analysis

We've seen two kinds of analysis:

Constant propagation is a *forwards* analysis: information is pushed from inputs to outputs

Liveness is a backwards analysis: information is pushed from outputs back towards inputs

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Analysis

- · There are many other global flow analyses
- · Most can be classified as either forward or backward
- · Most also follow the methodology of local rules relating information between adjacent program points

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