

# Code optimization

# Introduction

- For each source program there are many possible object programs that implement the same computation
  - (same input->same output).
- Some may be better than others in terms of speed and size
- **Code optimization** - refers to the techniques a compiler can employ in an attempt to produce a better object language program for a given source program
- The quality of the object program is measured by its running time and size

- The optimizing compiler
  - makes only well judged attempts to improve the code it produces
  - without too much time at compilation
  - i.e running time we expect to save > the time spent by the compiler doing the optimization
- Trend
  - make several compilers for programming languages
  - or options within one compiler
  - (spends varying amount of time in improving code)

# Criteria for optimizing

- Does the optimization capture most of the potential improvement without an unreasonable amount of effort
- Does the optimization preserve the meaning of the source program
- Does the optimization at least on the average reduce the time or space

# Principal sources of optimization

- Code optimization is done after syntax analysis and before or during code generation
- Analyze the source program code and detect certain patterns that can be replaced by more efficient but equivalent ones
- The patterns
  - may be local or global
  - may be m/c dependent | m/c independent
- Intertwined with code optimization is code generation

# Some sources of optimization

- Efficient use of registers and instruction sets
- Loop Optimization
- Procedure call optimization
- Array indexing optimization
- Identification of common sub-expressions
- Constant folding i.e replacing a name by a value if value is constant.

- Inner loops
  - 90-10 rule
  - The inner loops are obvious target for optimization
- Constant folding
  - Substitution of values for names whose values are constant
- Subexpression
  - E.g.,  $A[i+1]=B[i+1]$  and  $A[i,j]=A[i,j]+1$

# Algorithm optimization

- The most important source of improvement in the running program often lies beyond the reach of the compiler
  - The algorithm that is use within the source program



# Loop Optimization

- Consider the example where a dot product of two vectors A and B of length 20 is computed

```
prod = 0;  
i=1;  
do  
{  
    prod=prod+A[i]*B[i];  
    i=i+1;  
} while (i<=20);
```

# Three address code computing dot product

- (1) Prod=0
- (2) i=1
- (3) T1=4\*i
- (4) T2=addr(A)-4
- (5) T3=T2[T1]
- (6) T4=addr(B)-4
- (7) T5=T4[T1]
- (8) T6=T3\*T5
- (9) Prod=Prod+T6
- (10) i=i+1
- (11) If i<=20 goto (3)

# Basic Blocks

- A basic block is a sequence of three-address statements that can be entered only at the beginning, and control ends after the execution of the last statement, without a halt or any possibility of branching, except at the end

# Algorithm for partitioning a sequence of three-address statements into basic blocks

- **Algorithm**

- *Input* : A sequence of three-address statements
- *Output*: A list of basic blocks with *each* three-address statement in exactly one block

1. Determine the set of *leaders*
  - i. The first statement is a leader statement.
  - ii. Any statement which is the target of a conditional or unconditional goto is a leader.
  - iii. Any statement that immediately follows a conditional goto is a leader
2. Identify the leader statements in the three-address code and then include all the statements, starting from a leader, and up to, but not including, the next leader.

# Using example

- Statement (1) is a leader, being the first statement.
- Statement (3) is a leader, being the target of a goto.
- Statement following (11) is a leader, being the next statement after a goto.

<b>Basic Block 1</b>	Prod=0
	i=1
<b>Basic Block 2</b>	T1=4*I
	T2=addr(A)-4
	T3=T2[T1]
	T4=addr(B)-4
	T5=T4[T1]
	T6=T3*T5
	Prod=Prod+T6
	i=i+1
	If i<=20 goto (3)

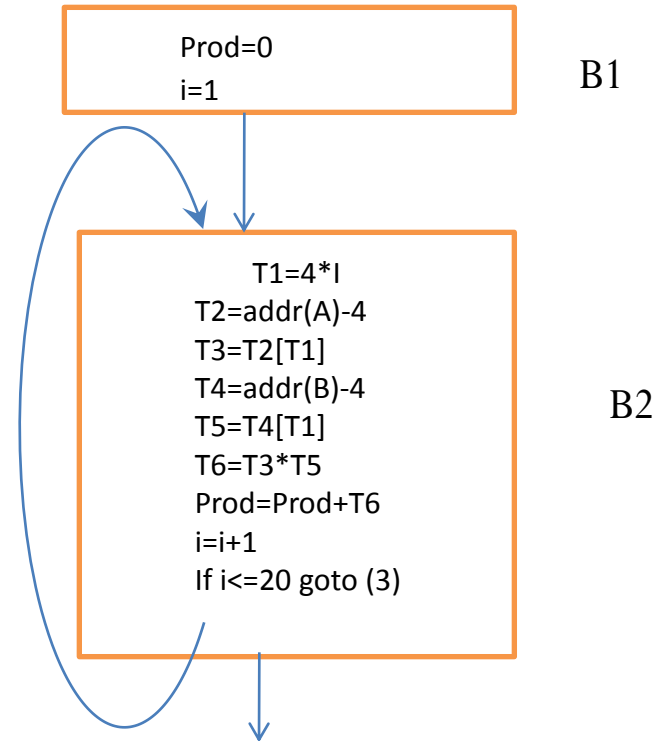
# Flow Graphs

- Portraying the basic blocks and their successor relationship
- It is a directed graph
- The **nodes** are the basic block
- One node is distinguished as the **initial** it is the block whose leader is the first statement
- shows how the control is flowing in the program and how the control is being used.
- To obtain this graph, we must partition the intermediate code into basic blocks.

- Each node is a basic block.
- One node is the ***initial***; the block with leader as the first statement.
- B1 is a ***predecessor*** of B2 and B2 is a ***successor*** of B1.
- For adding edges to the graph
  - if B1 and B2 are the two blocks, then add an edge from B1 to B2 in the program flow graph, if the block B2 follows B1 in an execution sequence.
  - The block B2 follows B1 in an execution sequence if and only if:
    - The first statement of block B2 immediately follows the last statement of block B1 in the three-address code, and the last statement of block B1 is not an unconditional goto statement.
    - The last statement of block B1 is either a conditional or unconditional goto statement, and the first statement of block B2 is the target of the last statement of block B1.

# Flow graph

B1 is a predecessor of B2 and B2 is a successor of B1



To block beginning with  
statement following  
(11)



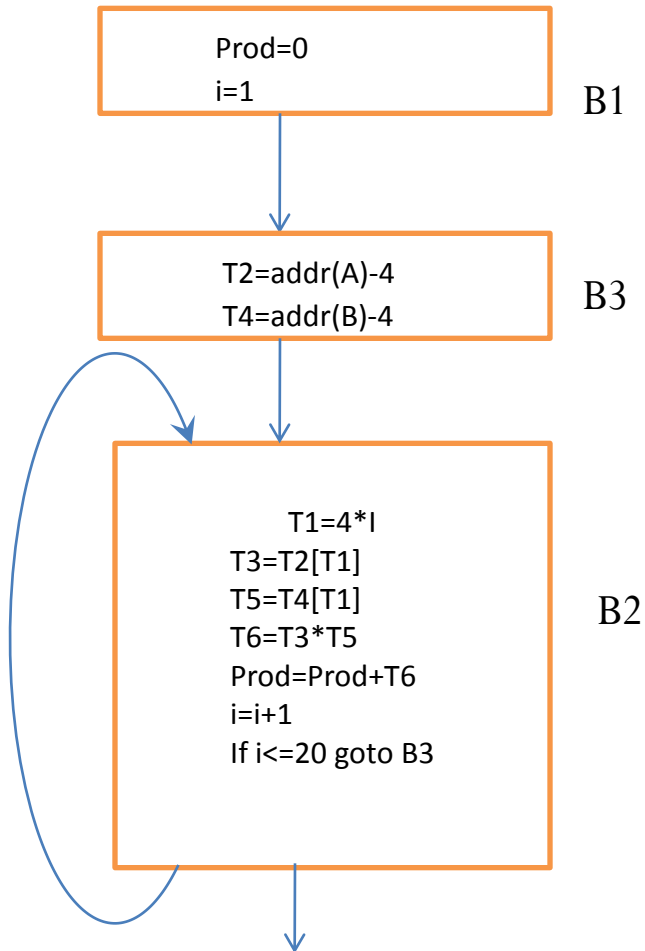
# Loops

- A loop is a cycle in the flow graph that satisfies two properties:
  - Strongly connected
    - From any node in the loop to any other, there is a path of length one or more, wholly within the loop
  - A unique entry
    - A node in the loop should have a single entry to reach a node of the loop from a node outside the loop.

# Code motion

- The running time of a program can be improved by decreasing the length of one of its loops, especially an inner loop
- Based on the assumption that the loop is executed at least once.
- **Code motion** takes a computation that yields the same result independent of the no. of times the loop executes (loop invariant) and places it before the loop.

# Code motion example



- Statements `T2=addr(A)-4` and `T4=addr(B)-4` will not change throughout the loop as the arrays are static.
  - Loop-invariant computation
- Remove these statements from the loop and add it to a new block B3.
- Add edges where ever necessary.
- Blocks B1 and B3 can also be combined.

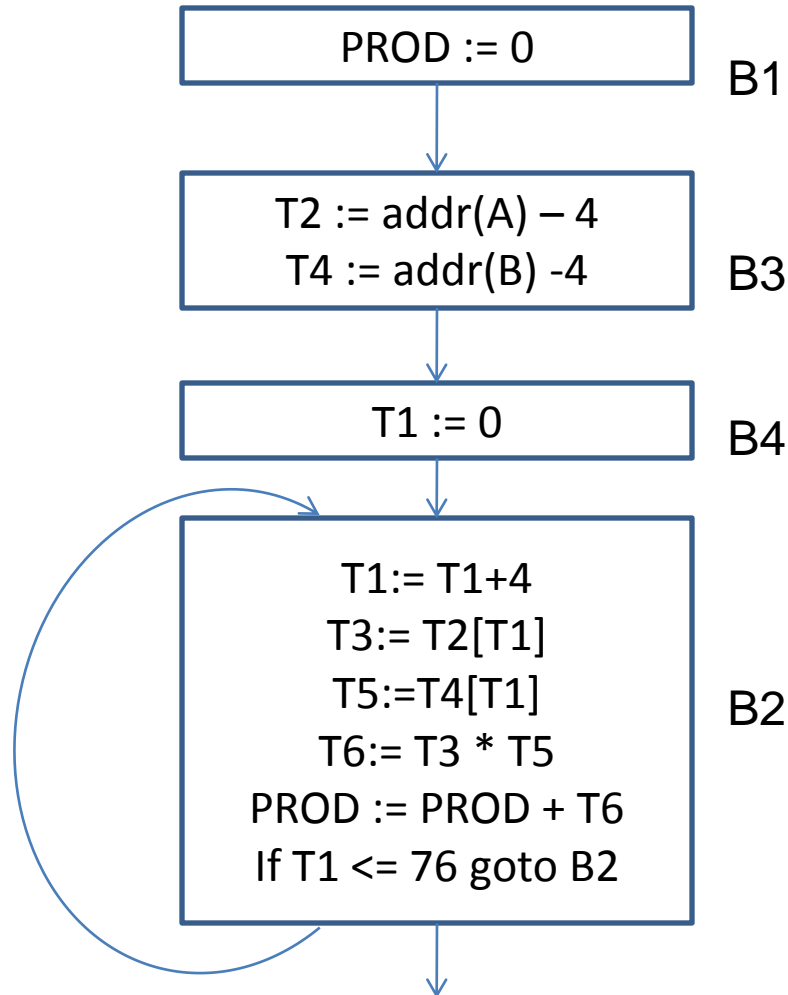
# Induction Variables

- Another optimization which may be applied to the flow graph which can decrease the total number of instructions and increase the speed.
- **Induction variables** are variables that form arithmetic progression in lock step.
- Example T1 and I

# Eliminating Induction Variables

- When there are two or more induction variables in a loop, we can remove all but one.
- In the example,  $I$  is a basic induction variable and  $T1$  is an induction variable dependent on  $I$ .
- Assuming that  $I$  is not needed outside the loop, we can eliminate  $I$  in the following manner -
  - Replace  $I$  in blocks  $B1$ ,  $B2$  and  $B3$  by  $T1$
  - Replace  $I \leq 20$  by  $T1 \leq 76$ , since the values of  $T1$  follows an arithmetic progression with a difference of 4.
  - Replace the statement  $T1 = 4 * I$  by  $T1 = T1 + 4$
  - Since  $T1$  does not have an initial value, so the statement  $T1 = 0$  can be placed outside block  $B2$ .

# Flow Graph after elimination induction variable I



# Reduction in strength

- Replacement of an expensive operation by a cheaper one.
- Example
  - Replacing  $T1 = 4 * I$  by  $T1 = T1 + 4$ 
    - Multiplication is more expensive than addition.
  - Replacing  $L = \text{Length}(S1 \parallel S2)$  by  $L = \text{Length}(S1) + \text{Length}(S2)$

# Directed Acyclic Graphs...

- A useful data structure to analyze basic blocks.
- A DAG is a directed graph with no cycles.
- It gives an idea of how the value computed by each statement in a basic block is used in subsequent statements in the block
- Constructing a DAG from three address statements provides the following advantage
  - Determine common sub-expressions within a block
  - Determine which names are used inside the block but evaluated outside the block
  - Determine which statements of the block have their value used outside the block.



# Directed Acyclic Graphs cont...

- A DAG has the following labels on nodes
  - **Leaves** are labeled by unique identifiers either *variable names* or *constants* like `addr(A)` to denote l-value while others denote r-value.
  - The leaves represent *initial* values of names and are subscripted 0 to differentiate them with labels denoting *current* values
  - Interior nodes are labeled by an operator symbol
  - **Nodes** are optionally given an extra *set of identifiers* for labels
    - **Interior nodes** represent computed values and identifiers labeling a node are deemed to have that value

# Example

## Basic Block 2

$T1 = 4 * I$

$T2 = \text{addr}(A) - 4$

$T3 = T2[T1]$

$T4 = \text{addr}(B) - 4$

$T5 = T4[T1]$

$T6 = T3 * T5$

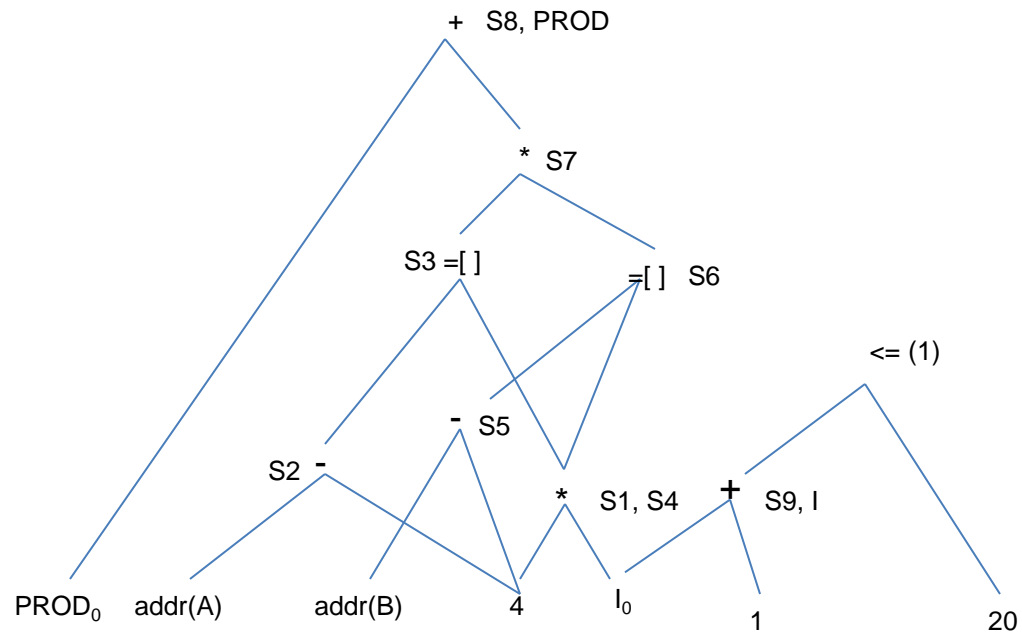
$\text{Prod} = \text{Prod} + T6$

$i = i + 1$

If  $i \leq 20$  goto (3)

# Example

- (1)  $S1 = 4 * I$
- (2)  $S2 = \text{addr}(A) - 4$
- (3)  $S3 = S2[S1]$
- (4)  $S4 = 4 * I$
- (5)  $S5 = \text{addr}(B) - 4$
- (6)  $S6 = S5[S4]$
- (7)  $S7 = S3 * S6$
- (8)  $S8 = \text{PROD} + S7$
- (9)  $\text{Prod} = S8$
- (10)  $S9 = I + 1$
- (11)  $I = S9$
- (12) If  $I \leq 20$  goto (1)



# DAG construction

- $A := B + C$
- Look for the nodes that represent the “current” values of B and C
- Could be leaves or interior nodes ( evaluated by previous statements of the block )
  - *Create* a node labeled + and give it two children and then again label this node A
  - However if there is a node already denoting the same  $B + C$ , we *do not create* a node but give it an additional label A

# DAG construction cont...

- If A(not A0) had previously labeled some node, remove it since the current value of A is the node just created
- $A := B$ 
  - We do not create a new node but append the label A to the “current” value of B

# DAG construction cont...

- Don't do the following
  - Assignment to arrays
  - Indirect assignment through pointers
  - One location having two or more names

# Algorithm

- **Input:** Basic Block
- **Output:** A DAG with the following information
  - A label for each node.
    - For **leaves** the label is an identifier/constants
    - For **interior nodes** an operator symbol
  - For each node a list of attached identifiers (constants not permitted here)

# Algorithm cont...

- **Method:**
  - **Assumption:**
    - data structures to create nodes with two children i.e *left* and *right*
    - A place for a *label* for each node and the facility to create a *linked list* of attached identifiers for each node
  - **Maintenance**
    - A set of identifiers including constants for which there is a node associated either by a leaf / interior node



# Algorithm cont...

- For constructing a basic block DAG, we make use of the function **node(id)**, which returns the most recently created node associated with id.
  - Intuitively **node(id)** is the node of the DAG which represents the value which **id** has at the current point
  - An entry in the symbol table record for **id** is the value of **node(id)**

# Algorithm cont...

- Do Steps (1) through (3) for each statement of the block, in turn
- Initially assume there are no nodes
- **node( )** is undefined for all arguments
- Suppose the “current” three address statements is either
  - i.  $A := B \text{ op } C$
  - ii.  $A := \text{op } B$
  - iii.  $A := B$
- Refer to these as cases i, ii, iii
- Treat **if**  $I \leq 20$  **goto** as case i with A undefined

# Algorithm for DAG construction

## Step 1 :

1. If node(B) is undefined, create a leaf labeled B, and let node(B) be this node.
2. In case i, if node(C) is undefined, create a leaf labeled C, and let that leaf be node(C).

## Step 2 :

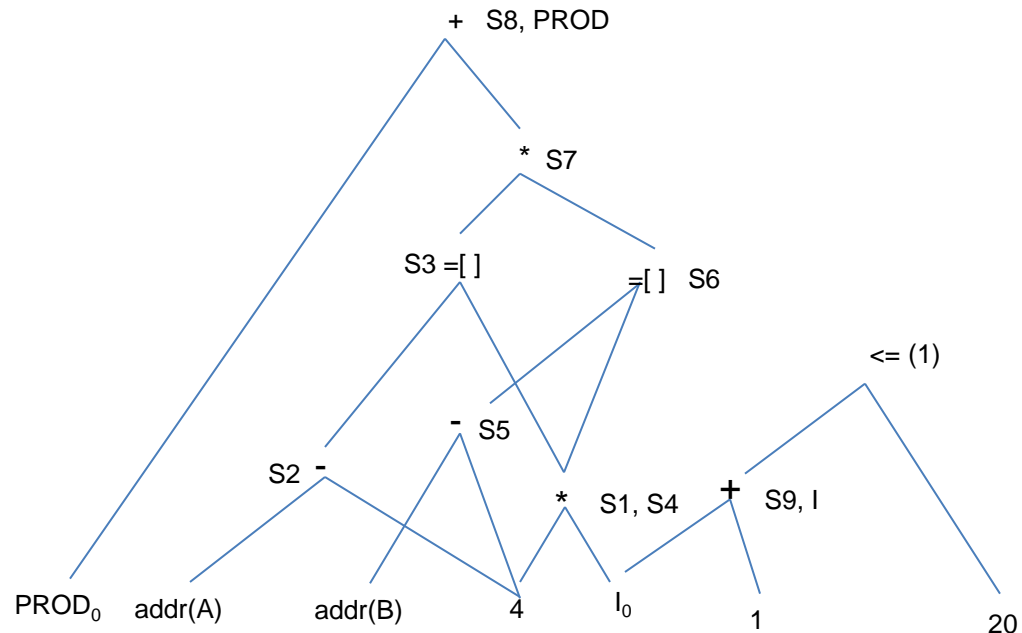
1. In case i, determine if there is a node labeled **op** whose left child is node(B) and whose right child is node(C) (to catch the common subexpressions). If not, create such a node. In either event let  $n$  be the node *found* or *created*.
2. In case ii ,determine if a node exists that is labeled **op** whose only child is node(B). If not create such a node and let  $n$  be the node *found* or *created*
3. In case iii let  $n$  be the node(B)

## Step 3

1. Append A to the list of identifiers for the node  $n$  found in step 2.
2. Delete A from the list of attached identifiers for node(A), and set node(A) to  $n$ .

# Example

- (1)  $S1 = 4 * I$
- (2)  $S2 = \text{addr}(A) - 4$
- (3)  $S3 = S2[S1]$
- (4)  $S4 = 4 * I$
- (5)  $S5 = \text{addr}(B) - 4$
- (6)  $S6 = S5[S4]$
- (7)  $S7 = S3 * S6$
- (8)  $S8 = \text{PROD} + S7$
- (9)  $\text{Prod} = S8$
- (10)  $S9 = I + 1$
- (11)  $I = S9$
- (12) If  $I \leq 20$  goto (1)



# Applications of DAG

- Automatically detects common sub-expressions.
- Determine which identifiers have their values used in the block;
  - The ones for which a leaf node is created in step 1
- Determine which statements creates values which can be used outside the block;
  - The statements  $S$  whose node  $n$  constructed or found in step 2 still has  $\text{NODE}(A)=n$  at the end of the DAG construction, where  $A$  is the identifier assigned by statement  $S$ .
  - In the e.g all interior nodes can have their values used outside the block.