Programming Languages & Translators

# **COMPILER OPTIMIZATION**

Baishakhi Ray

Fall 2020

These slides are motivated from Prof. Alex Aiken and Prof. Calvin Lin



- Optimization is our last compiler phase
- Most complexity in modern compilers is in the optimizer
  - Also by far the largest phase
- Optimizations are often applied to intermediate representations of code

# When should we perform optimizations?

### On AST

- Pro: Machine independent
- Con: Too high level

#### On assembly language

- Pro: Exposes optimization opportunities
- Con: Machine dependent
- Con: Must reimplement optimizations when retargetting

#### On an intermediate language

- Pro: Machine independent
- Pro: Exposes optimization opportunities

# Intermediate Languages

#### Intermediate language = high-level assembly

- Uses register names, but has an unlimited number
- Uses control structures like assembly language
- Uses opcodes but some are higher level
  - E.g., push translates to several assembly instructions
- Most opcodes correspond directly to assembly opcodes

Each instruction is of the form

x := y op z (binary operation)

x := op y (unary operation)

- y and z are registers or constants
- Common form of intermediate code
- The expression x + y \* z is translated

t1 := y \* z t2 := x + t1

Each subexpression has a "name"

### **Optimization Overview**

- Optimization seeks to improve a program's resource utilization
  - Execution time (most often)
  - Code size
  - Network messages sent, etc.
- Optimization should not alter what the program computes
  - The answer must still be the same

### A Classification of Optimizations

#### For languages like C there are three granularities of optimizations

- 1. Local optimizations
  - Apply to a basic block in isolation
- 2. Global optimizations
  - Apply to a control-flow graph (method body) in isolation
- 3. Inter-procedural optimizations
  - Apply across method boundaries
- Most compilers do (1), many do (2), few do (3)

### Cost of Optimizations

- In practice, a conscious decision is made not to implement the fanciest optimization known
- Why?
  - Some optimizations are hard to implement
  - Some optimizations are costly in compilation time
  - Some optimizations have low benefit
  - Many fancy optimizations are all three!
- Goal: Maximum benefit for minimum cost

- The simplest form of optimizations
- No need to analyze the whole procedure body
  - Just the basic block in question
- Example: algebraic simplification

Some statements can be deleted

x := x + 0 x := x \* 1

Some statements can be simplified

 $x := x * 0 \Rightarrow x := 0$ 

 $y := y^{**} 2 \Rightarrow y := y^* y$ 

 $x := x * 8 \Rightarrow x := x \ll 3$ 

 $x := x * 15 \Rightarrow t := x \ll 4; x := t - x$ 

(on some machines << is faster than \*; but not on all!)

### **Constant Folding**

- Operations on constants can be computed at compile time
  - If there is a statement x := y op z
  - And y and z are constants
  - Then y op z can be computed at compile time
- Example:  $x := 2 + 2 \Rightarrow x := 4$
- Example: if 2 < 0 jump L can be deleted</p>
- When might constant folding be dangerous?
  - Floating point errors in cross-architecture compilation

#### Eliminate unreachable basic blocks:

- Code that is unreachable from the initial block
  - E.g., basic blocks that are not the target of any jump or "fall through" from a conditional
- Removing unreachable code makes the program smaller
  - And sometimes also faster
    - Due to memory cache effects (increased spatial locality)

# Single Assignment Form

- Some optimizations are simplified if each register occurs only once on the left-hand side of an assignment
- Rewrite intermediate code in single assignment form

x := z + y		b := z + y
a := x	$\Rightarrow$	a := b
x := 2 * x		x := 2 * b

(b is a fresh register)

More complicated in general, due to loops

# Static Single Assignment (SSA) Form

#### Idea

- Each variable has only one static definition
- Makes it easier to reason about values instead of variables
- The point of SSA form is to represent use-def information explicitly

#### Transformation to SSA

- Rename each definition
- Rename all uses reached by that definition
- Example:

### SSA and Control Flow

Problem : A use may be reached by several definitions



### SSA and Control Flow (cont)

#### Merging Definitions

Ø-functions merge multiple reaching definitions



### SSA and Control Flow (cont)

#### Merging Definitions

Ø-functions merge multiple reaching definitions



### SSA vs. use-def chain

- SSA form is more constrained
- Advantages of SSA
  - More compact
  - Some analyses become simpler when each use has only one def
  - Value merging is explicit
  - Usually, easier to update and manipulate

#### Furthermore

Eliminates false dependences (simplifying context)

### SSA vs. use-def chain

Worst case du-chains?

```
switch (c1) {
    case 1: x = 1; break;
    case 2: x = 2; break;
    case 3: x = 3; break;
}
switch (c2) {
    case 1: y1 = x; break;
    case 2: y2 = x; break;
    case 3: y3 = x; break;
    case 4: y4 = x; break;
}
```

m defs and n uses leads to m x n du chains

### Transformation to SSA Form

#### Two steps

- Insert Ø-functions
- Rename variables

#### Basic Rule of Placing Ø-Functions?

 If two distinct (non-null) paths x->z and y->z converge at node z, and nodes x and y contain definitions of variable v, then we insert a Ø-function for v at z



# Approaches to Placing Ø-Functions

#### Minimal

- As few as possible subject to the basic rule
- Briggs-Minimal
  - Same as minimal, except v must be live across some edge of the CFG
    - Briggs Minimal will not place a Ø function in this case because v is not live across any CFG edge.
    - Exploits the short lifetimes of many temporary variables



- When we see a variable on the LHS, create a new name for it
- When we see a variable on the RHS, use appropriate subscript
- Easy for straight forward code



- Harder when there's control flow
  - For each use of x, find the definition of x that dominates it

### **Common Subexpression Elimination**

#### If

- Basic block is in single assignment form
- A definition x := is the first use of x in a block

#### Then

• When two assignments have the same rhs, they compute the same value

#### • Example:

x := y + zx := y + z $\dots$  $\Rightarrow$ w := y + zw := x(the values of x, y, and z do not change in the ... code)

- If w := x appears in a block, replace subsequent uses of w with uses of x
  - Assumes single assignment form
- Example:
  - b := z + ya := bx := 2 \* ab := z + ya := bx := 2 \* b
- Only useful for enabling other optimizations
  - Constant folding
  - Dead code elimination

# Copy Propagation and Constant Folding

#### • Example:

a := 5		a := 5
x := 2 * a	$\Rightarrow$	x := 10
y := x + 6		y := 16
t := x * y		t := x << 4

# Copy Propagation and Dead Code Elimination

#### If

- w := rhs appears in a basic block
- w does not appear anywhere else in the program
- Then the statement w := rhs is dead and can be eliminated
  - Dead = does not contribute to the program's result
  - Example: (a is not used anywhere else)

x := z + y		b := z + y		b := z + y
a := x	$\Rightarrow$	a := b	$\Rightarrow$	x := 2 * b

x := 2 \* a x := 2 \* b

# Applying Local Optimizations

- Each local optimization does little by itself
- Typically optimizations interact
  - Performing one optimization enables another
- Optimizing compilers repeat optimizations until no improvement is possible
  - The optimizer can also be stopped at any point to limit compilation time

- Initial code:
  - a := x \*\* 2 b := 3 c := x d := c \* c e := b \* 2 f := a + d g := e \* f

### Algebraic optimization:

a := x ** 2	a := x * x
b := 3	b := 3
c := x	с := х
d := c * c	d := c * c
e := b * 2	e := b << 1
f := a + d	f := a + d
g := e * f	g := e * f

### Copy Propagation:

a := x * x	a := x * x
b := 3	b := 3
c := x	с := х
d := <b>c</b> * <b>c</b>	d := <b>x</b> * <b>x</b>
e := <mark>b</mark> << 1	e := <mark>3</mark> << 1
f := a + d	f := a + d
g := e * f	g := e * f

### Constant folding:

a := x * x	a := x * x
b := 3	b := 3
c := x	c := x
d := x * x	d := x * x
e := 3 << 1	e := 6
f := a + d	f := a + d
g := e * f	g := e * f

Common subexpression elimination:

a := x * x	a := x * x
b := 3	b := 3
c := x	c := x
d := x * x	d := a
e := 6	e := 6
f := a + d	f := a + d
g := e * f	g := e * f

### Copy propagation:

a := x * x	a := x * x
b := 3	b := 3
C := X	c := x
d := a	d := a
e := 6	e := 6
f := a + d	f := a + <mark>a</mark>
g := <mark>e</mark> * f	g := <mark>6</mark> * f

Dead code elimination:

a := x * x	a := x * x
b := 3	
c := x	
d := a	
e := 6	
f := a + a	f := a + a
g := 6 * f	g := 6 * f

### Peephole Optimizations on Assembly Code

- These optimizations work on intermediate code
  - Target independent
  - But they can be applied on assembly language also
- <u>Peephole optimization</u> is effective for improving assembly code
  - The "peephole" is a short sequence of (usually contiguous) instructions
  - The optimizer replaces the sequence with another equivalent one (but faster)

Write peephole optimizations as replacement rules

 $i_1, \ldots, i_n \rightarrow j_1, \ldots, j_m$ 

where the rhs is the improved version of the lhs

• Example:

move  $a \b$ , move  $b \a \rightarrow$  move  $a \b$ 

- Works if move \$b \$a is not the target of a jump
- Another example

addiu \$a \$a i, addiu \$a \$a j → addiu \$a \$a i+j

### Peephole Optimizations (Cont.)

- Many (but not all) of the basic block optimizations can be cast as peephole optimizations
  - Example: addiu \$a \$b 0 → move \$a \$b
  - Example: move \$a \$a → -
  - These two together eliminate addiu \$a \$a 0
- As for local optimizations, peephole optimizations must be applied repeatedly for maximum effect

- Intermediate code is helpful for many optimizations
- Many simple optimizations can still be applied on assembly language
- "Program optimization" is grossly misnamed
  - Code produced by "optimizers" is not optimal in any reasonable sense
  - "Program improvement" is a more appropriate term