

COMPILER OPTIMIZATION

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Optimization

- 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

Three-Address Intermediate Code

- Each instruction is of the form
 - $x := y \text{ op } z$ (binary operation)
 - $x := \text{op } y$ (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

Local Optimizations

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

Algebraic Simplification

- Some statements can be deleted

$x := x + 0$

$x := x * 1$

- Some statements can be simplified

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

$y := y ** 2 \Rightarrow y := y * y$

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

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

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

Constant Folding

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

Flow of Control Optimizations

- **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

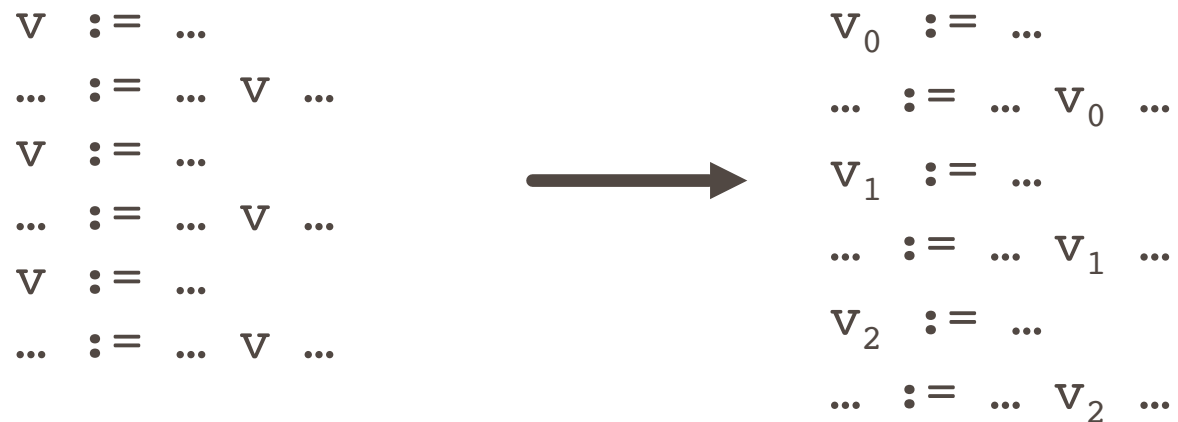
- Idea

- 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

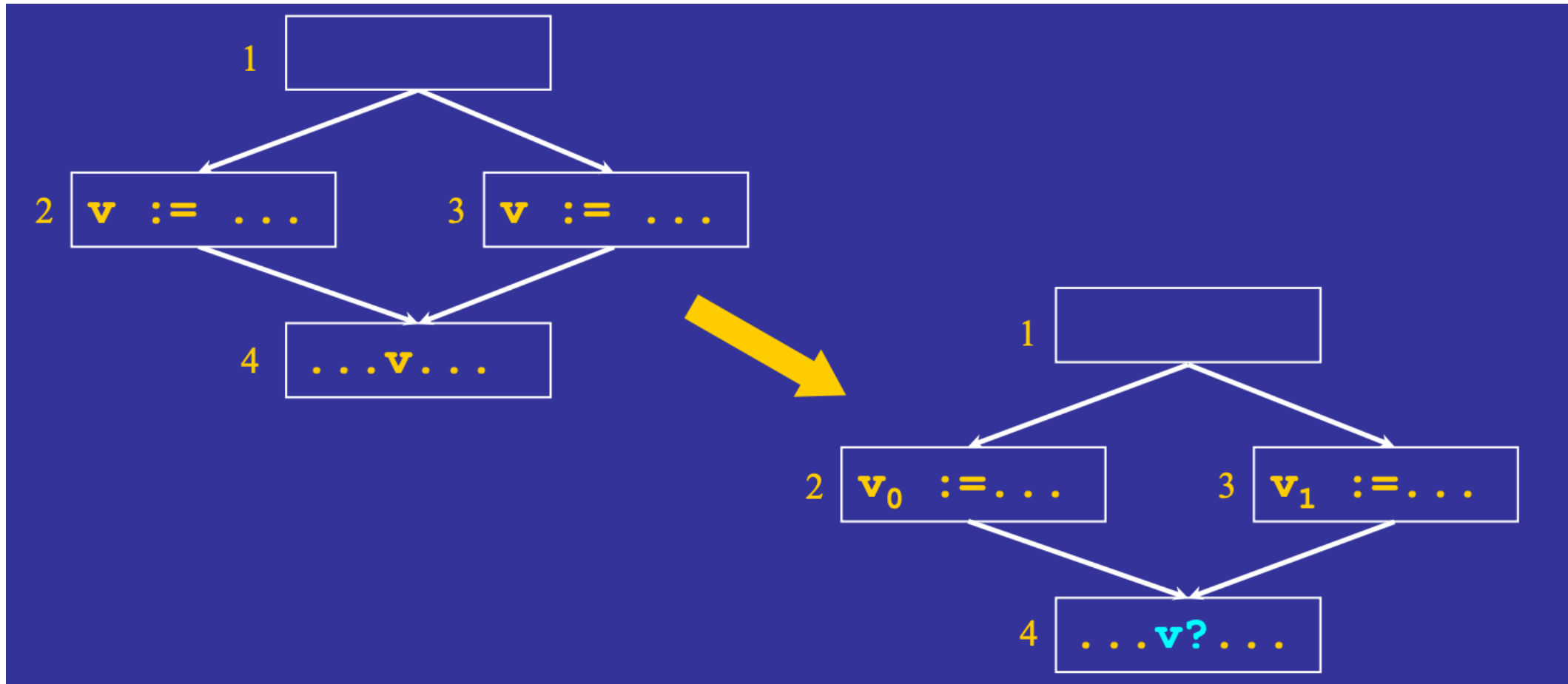
- Rename each definition
- Rename all uses reached by that definition

- Example:



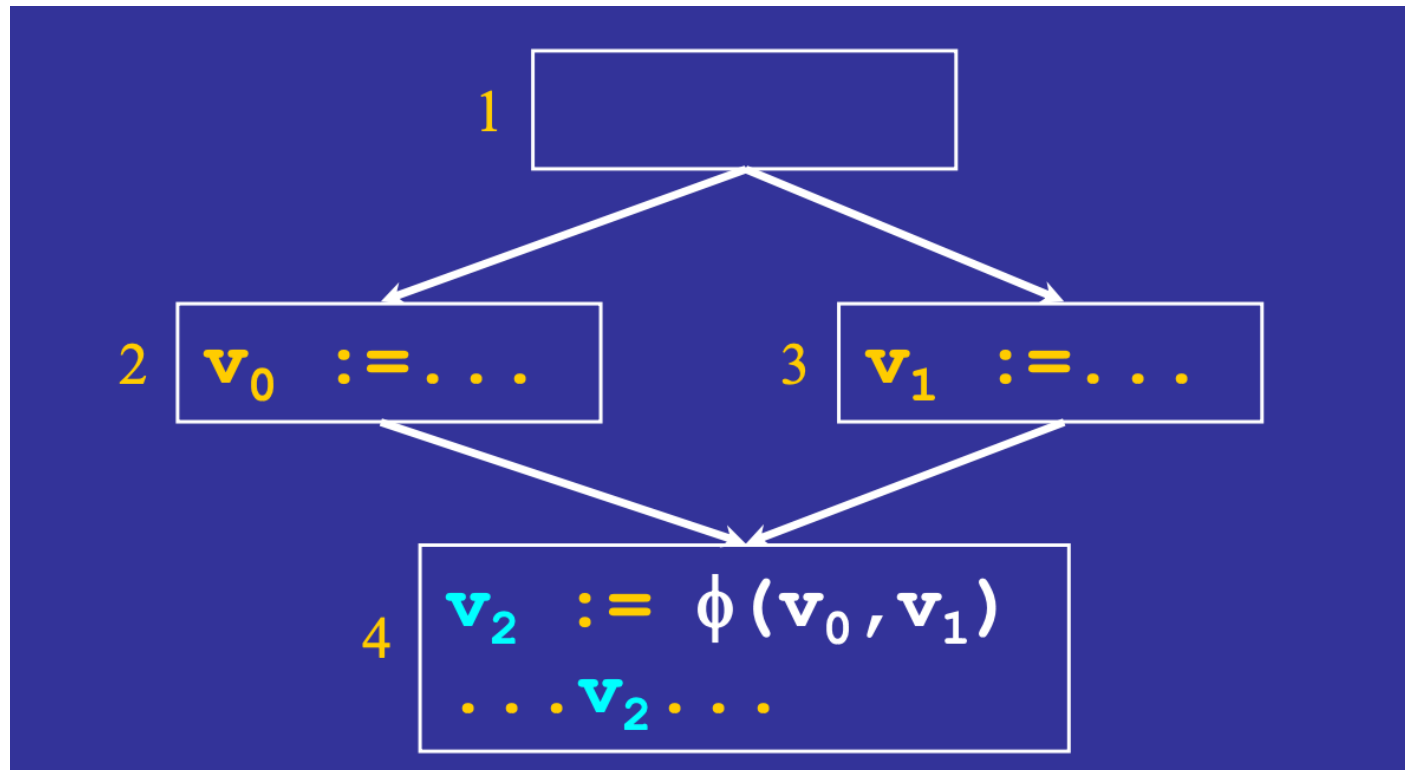
SSA and Control Flow

- Problem : A use may be reached by several definitions



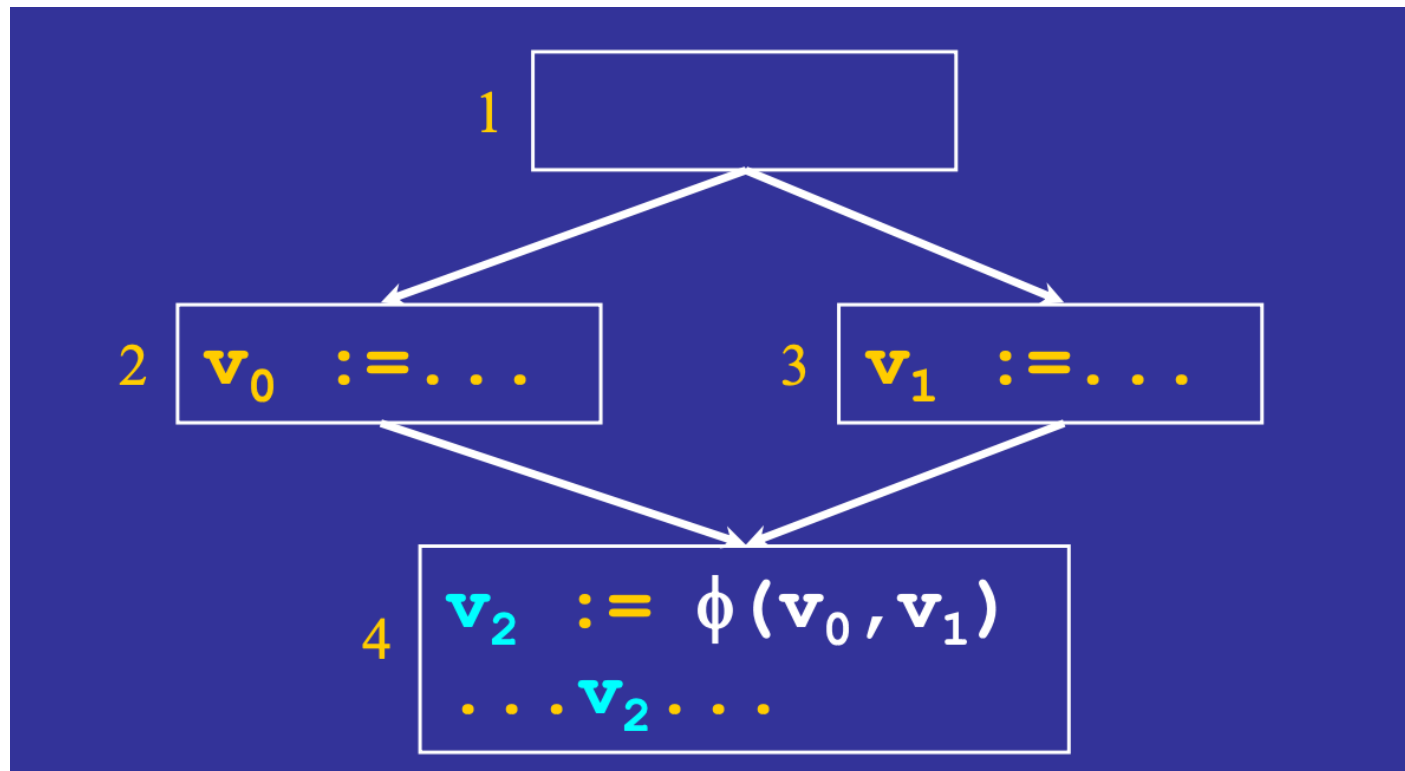
SSA and Control Flow (cont)

- Merging Definitions
 - ϕ -functions merge multiple reaching definitions



SSA and Control Flow (cont)

- Merging Definitions
 - ϕ -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

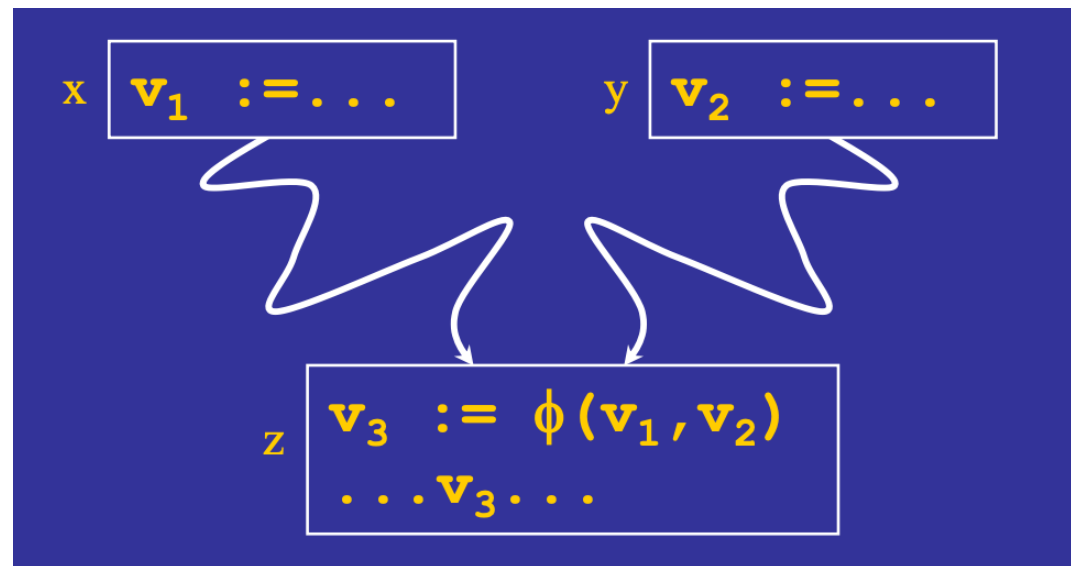
- Worst case du-chains?

```
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 $m \times n$ du chains

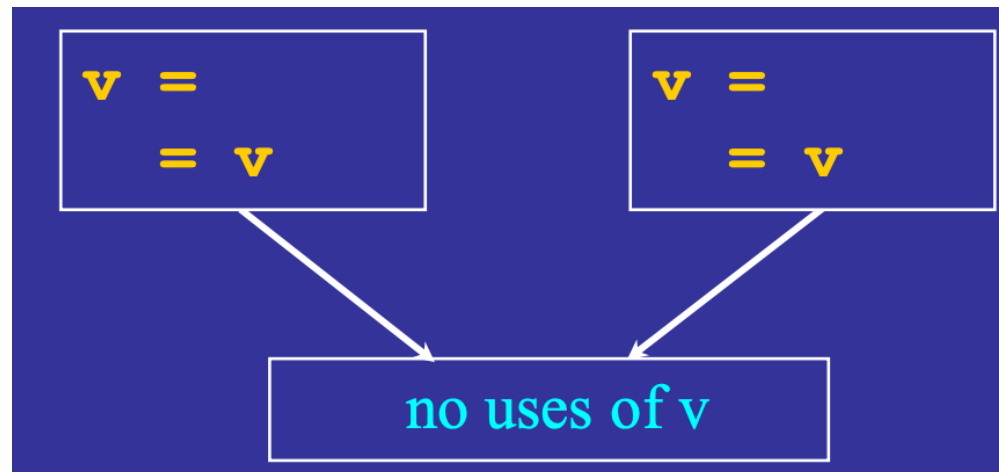
Transformation to SSA Form

- Two steps
 - Insert ϕ -functions
 - Rename variables
- Basic Rule of Placing ϕ -Functions?
 - If two distinct (non-null) paths $x \rightarrow z$ and $y \rightarrow z$ converge at node z , and nodes x and y contain definitions of variable v , then we insert a ϕ -function for v at z



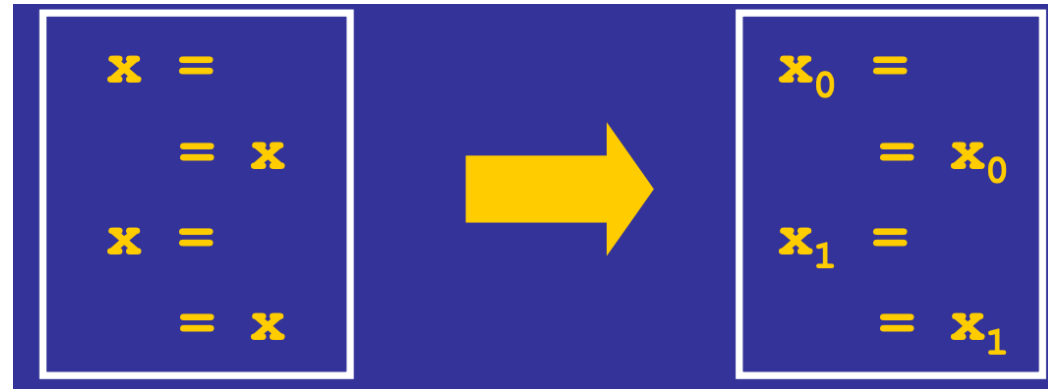
Approaches to Placing \emptyset -Functions

- 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 \emptyset function in this case because v is not live across any CFG edge.
 - Exploits the short lifetimes of many temporary variables



SSA: Variable Renaming

- 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:**

$x := y + z$		$x := y + z$
...	\Rightarrow	...
$w := y + z$		$w := x$

(the values of x , y , and z do not change in the ... code)

Copy Propagation

- If $w := x$ appears in a block, replace subsequent uses of w with uses of x
 - Assumes single assignment form

- Example:

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

- Only useful for enabling other optimizations
 - Constant folding
 - Dead code elimination

Copy Propagation and Constant Folding

- Example:

a := 5		a := 5
x := 2 * a	⇒	x := 10
y := x + 6		y := 16
t := x * y		t := x << 4

Copy Propagation and Dead Code Elimination

- **If**
 - $w := \text{rhs}$ appears in a basic block
 - w does not appear anywhere else in the program
- Then the statement $w := \text{rhs}$ 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

An Example

- Initial code:

a := x ** 2

b := 3

c := x

d := c * c

e := b * 2

f := a + d

g := e * f

An Example

- Algebraic optimization:

`a := x ** 2`

`b := 3`

`c := x`

`d := c * c`

`e := b * 2`

`f := a + d`

`g := e * f`

`a := x * x`

`b := 3`

`c := x`

`d := c * c`

`e := b << 1`

`f := a + d`

`g := e * f`

An Example

- Copy Propagation:

a := x * x

b := 3

c := x

d := c * c

e := b << 1

f := a + d

g := e * f

a := x * x

b := 3

c := x

d := x * x

e := 3 << 1

f := a + d

g := e * f

An Example

- Constant folding:

a := x * x

b := 3

c := x

d := x * x

e := 3 << 1

f := a + d

g := e * f

a := x * x

b := 3

c := x

d := x * x

e := 6

f := a + d

g := e * f

An Example

- Common subexpression elimination:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := x * x$

$e := 6$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := a$

$e := 6$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

An Example

- Copy propagation:

a := x * x

b := 3

c := x

d := a

e := 6

f := a + d

g := e * f

a := x * x

b := 3

c := x

d := a

e := 6

f := a + a

g := 6 * f

An Example

- Dead code elimination:

a := x * x

b := 3

c := x

d := a

e := 6

f := a + a

g := 6 * f

a := x * x

f := a + a

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
- Peephole optimization 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)

Peephole Optimizations (Cont.)

- Write peephole optimizations as replacement rules

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

where the rhs is the improved version of the lhs

- Example:

move \$a \$b, move \$b \$a → 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