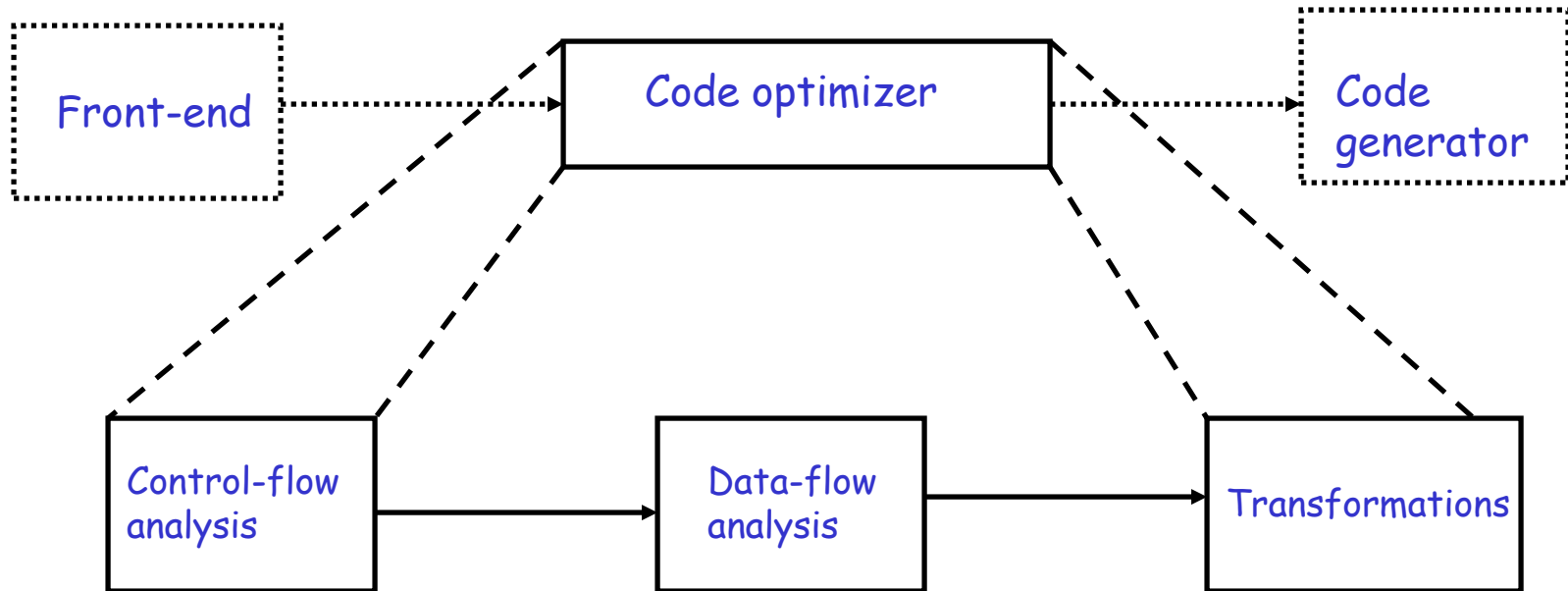


Global Optimization

Lecture 9 Part 2

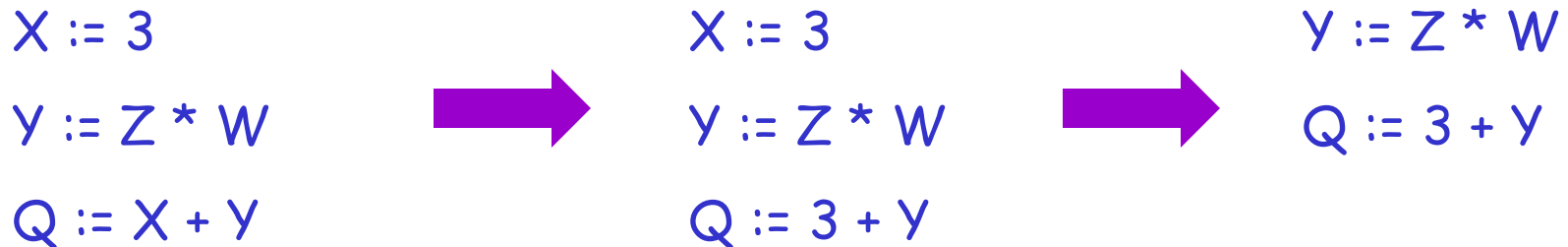
Organization of a Code Optimizer (Revisited)



Local Optimization

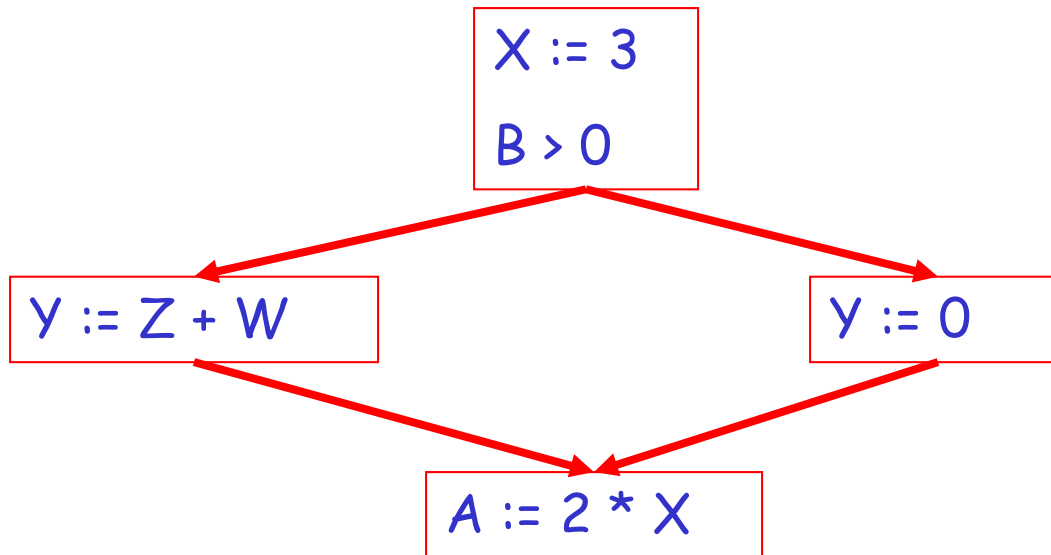
Recall the simple basic-block optimizations

- Constant propagation
- Dead code elimination



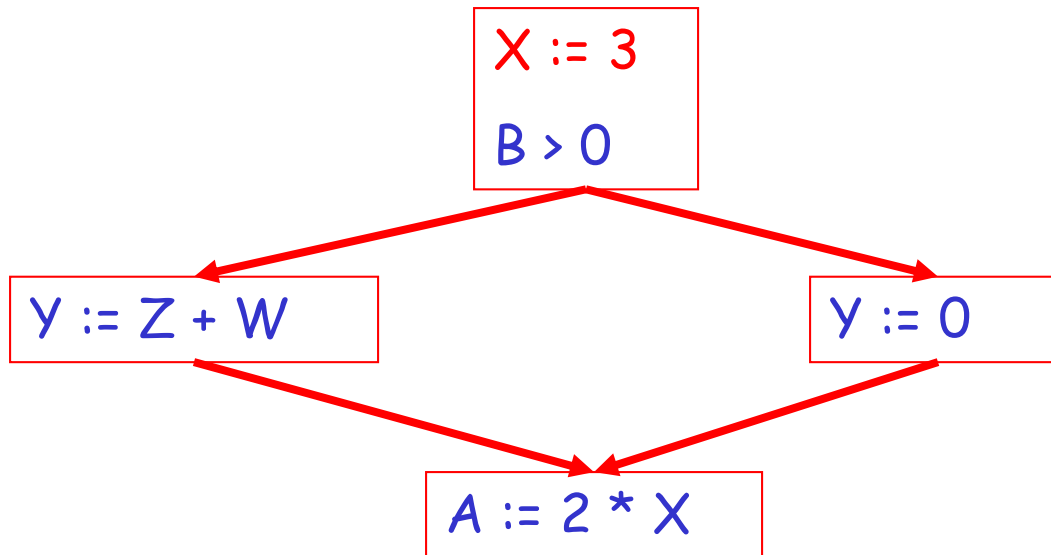
Global Optimization

These optimizations can be extended to an entire control-flow graph



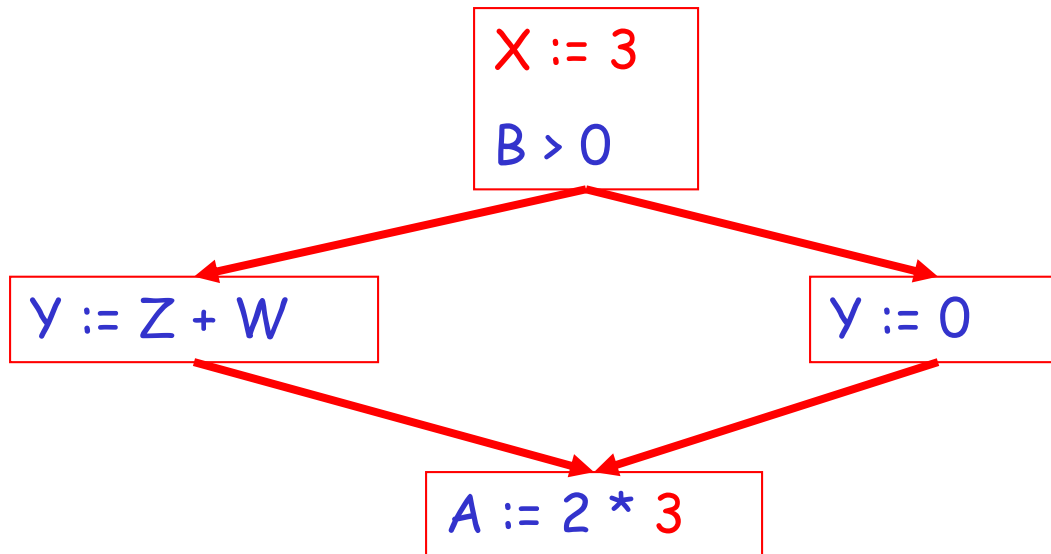
Global Optimization

These optimizations can be extended to an entire control-flow graph



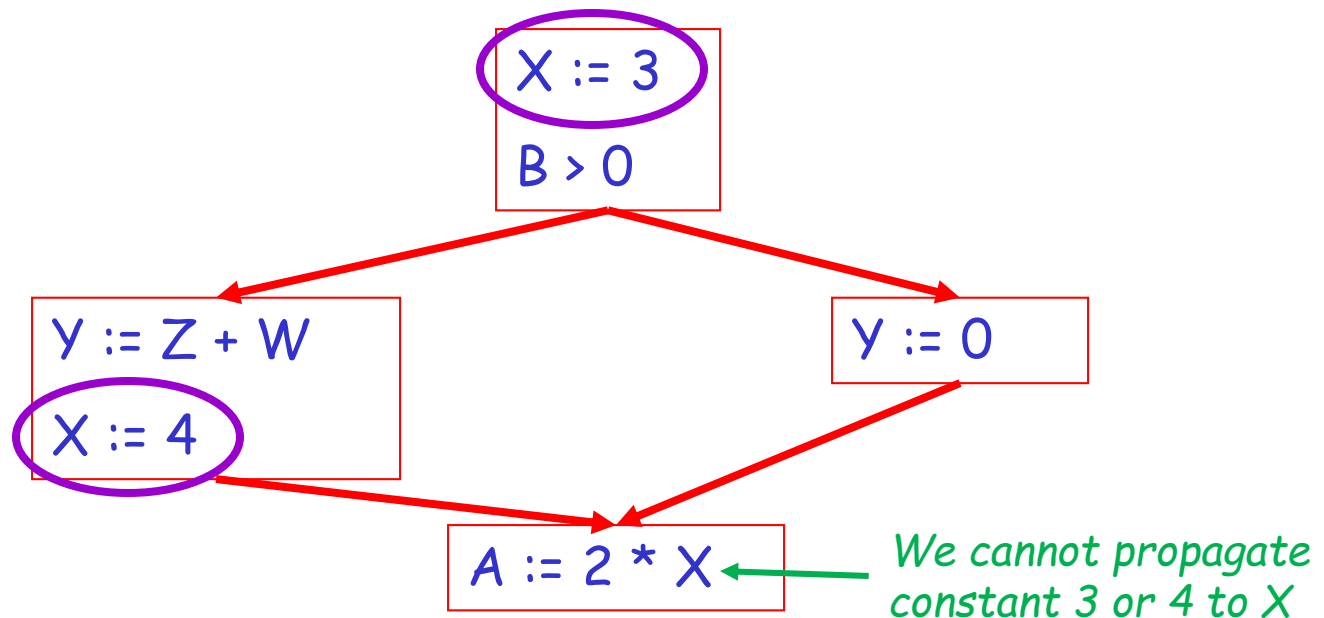
Global Optimization

These optimizations can be extended to an entire control-flow graph



Correctness

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

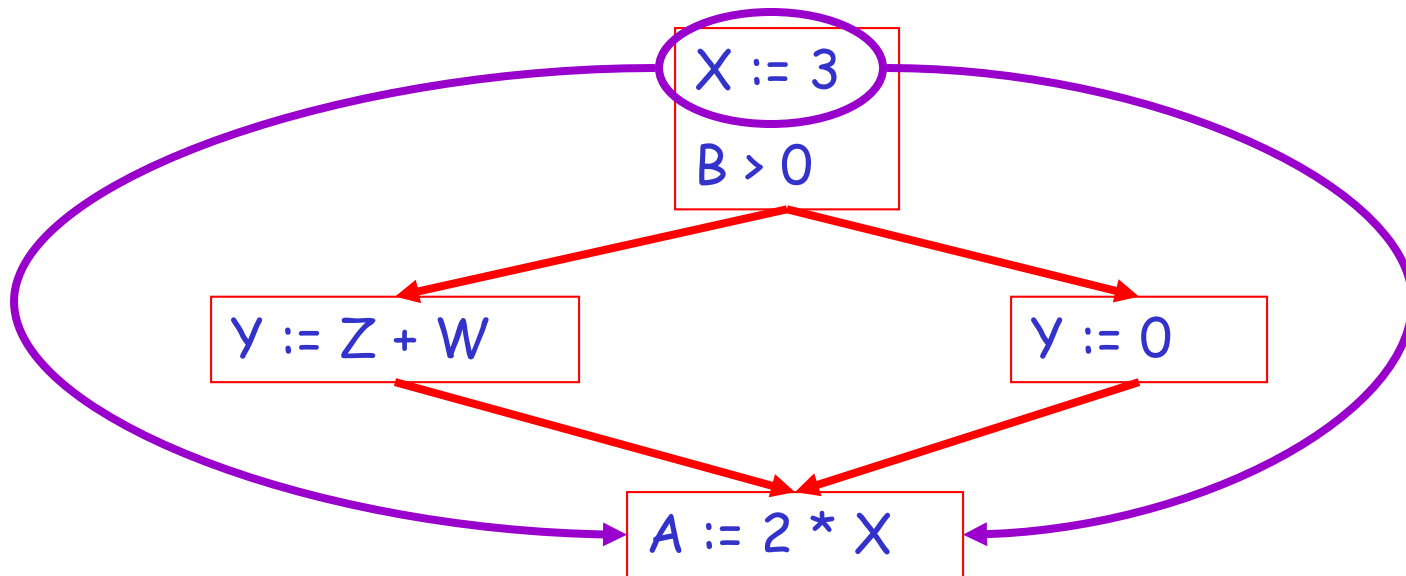


Correctness (Cont.)

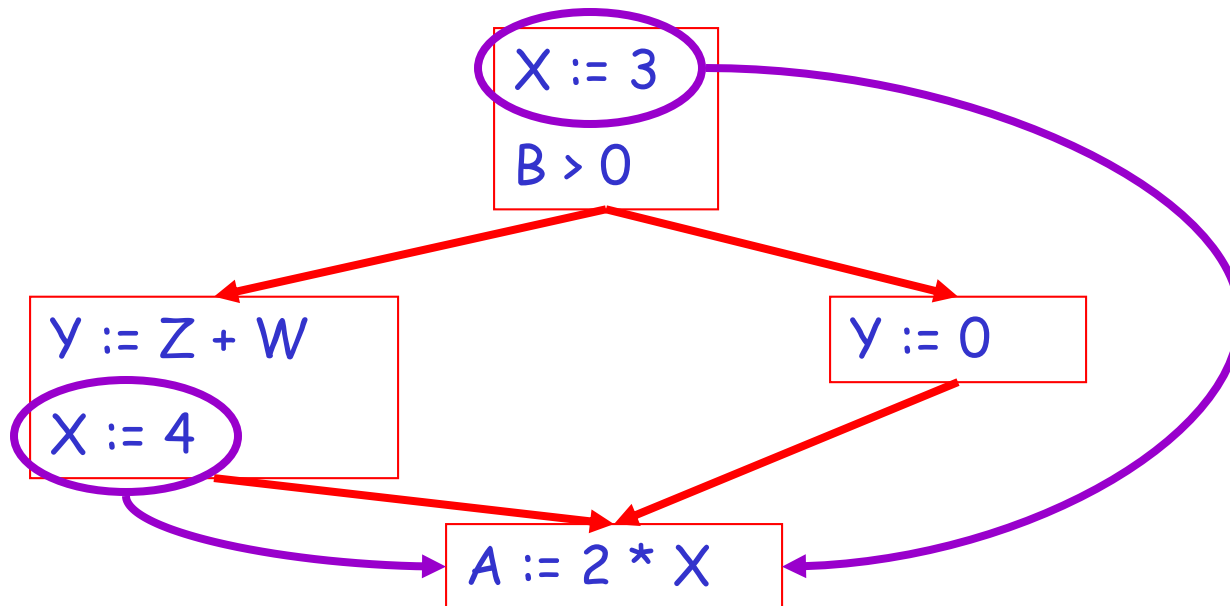
To replace a use of x by a constant k we must know that:

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

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 dataflow analysis
 - An analysis of the entire control-flow graph

Global Analysis

Global optimization tasks share several traits:

- The optimization depends on knowing a property X at a particular point in program execution
- Proving X at any point requires knowledge of the entire program
- It is OK to be conservative. If the optimization requires X to be true, then want to know either
 - X is definitely true
 - Don't know if X is true (we don't do the optimization)
- It is always safe to say “don't know”

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

Global Constant Propagation

- Global constant propagation can be performed at any point where ****** holds

*On every path to the use of x , the last assignment to x is $x := k$ (**)*

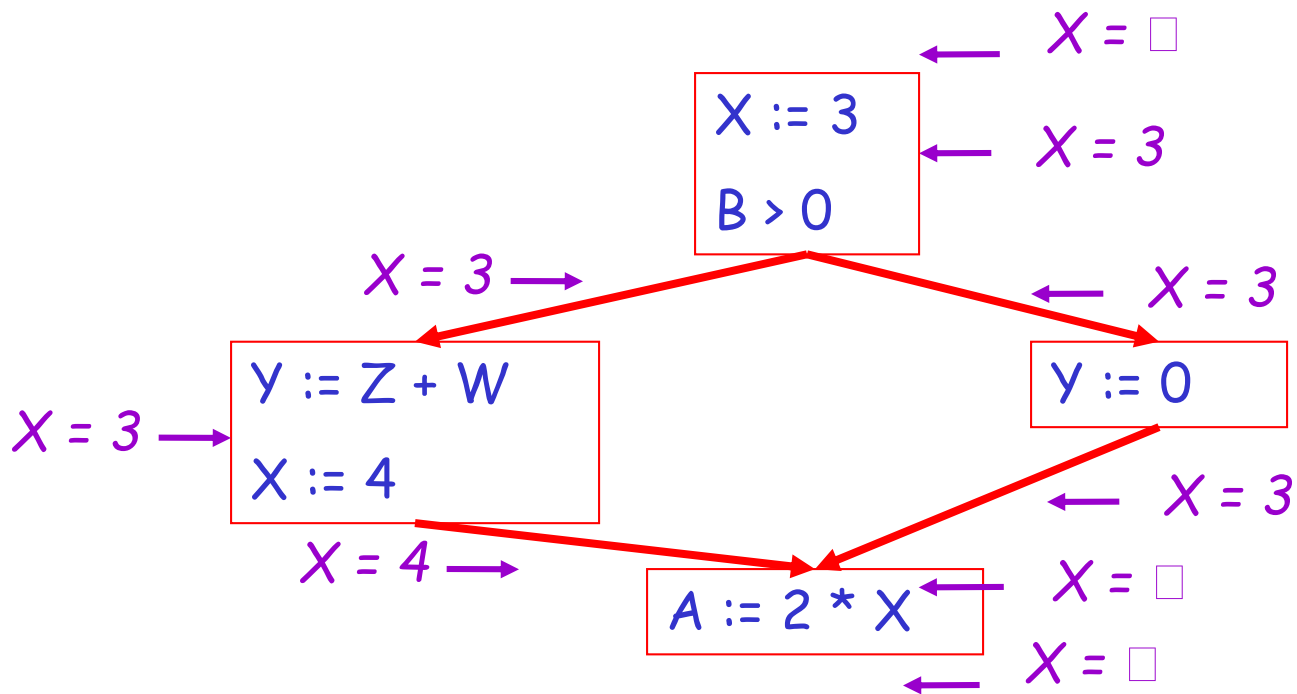
- Consider the case of computing ****** for a single variable x at all program points

Global Constant Propagation (Cont.)

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

<i>value</i>	<i>interpretation</i>
\otimes	This statement never executes
c	$X = \text{constant } c$
\square	X is not a constant

Example



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 x is constant at that point replace that use of x by the constant
- But how do we compute the properties $x = ?$

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

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

$C(x,s,in)$ = value of x before s is executed

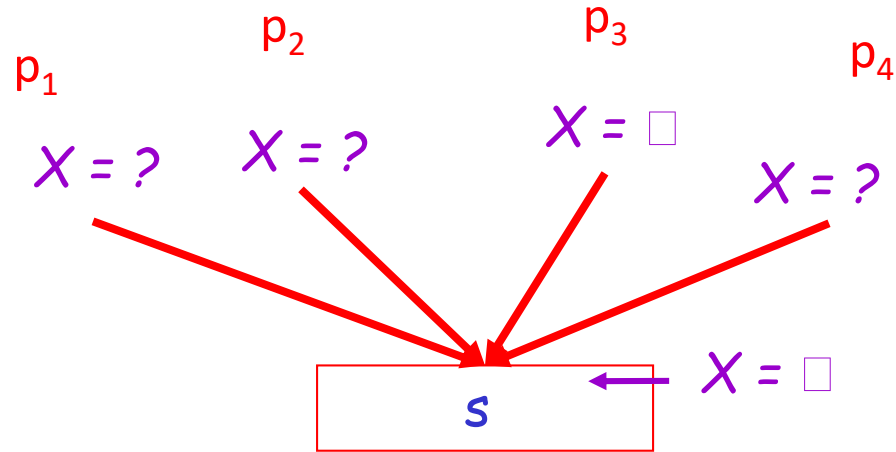
$C(x,s,out)$ = value of x after s is executed

*Stands for
'constant'
information*

Transfer Functions

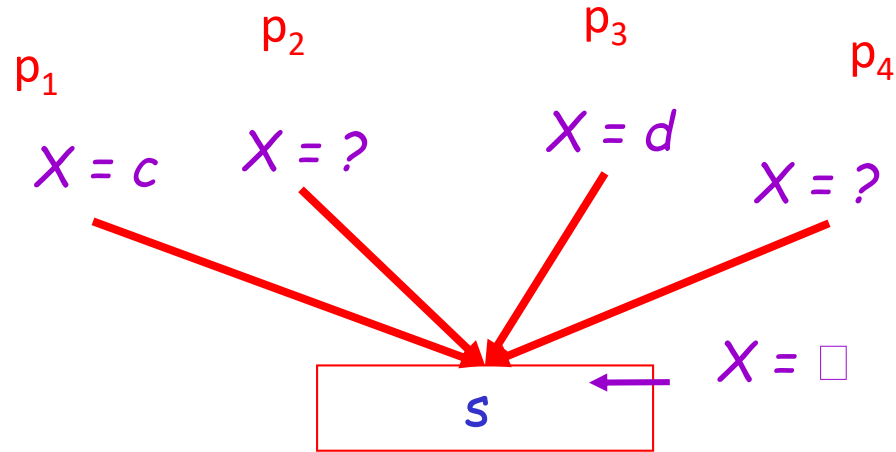
- Define a *transfer* function that transfers information one statement to another
- In the following rules, let statement s have immediate predecessor statements p_1, \dots, p_n

Rule 1



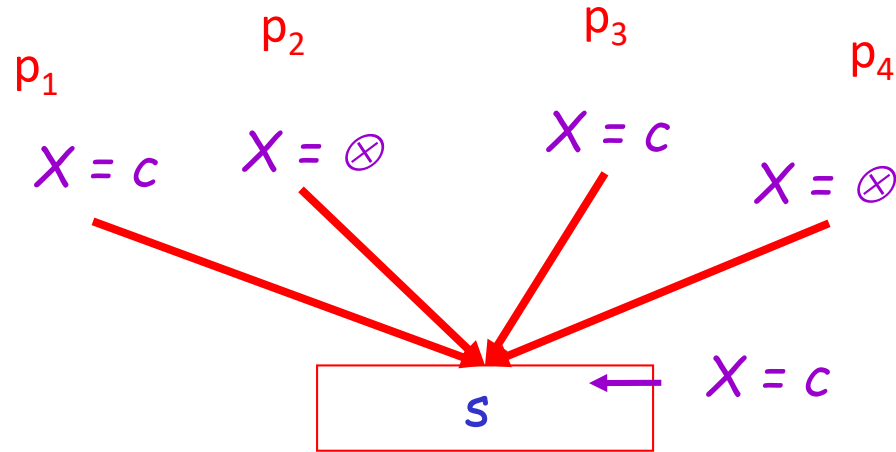
if $\exists_i (C(p_i, x, \text{out}) = \square)$
then $C(s, x, \text{in}) = \square$

Rule 2



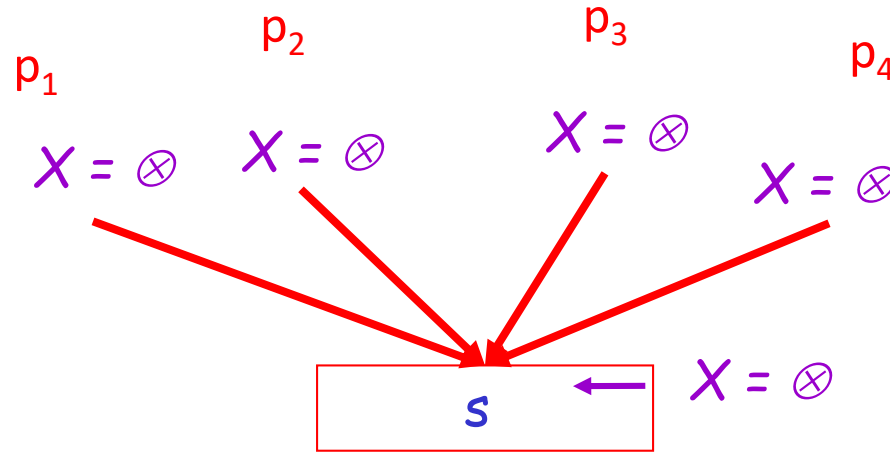
if $\exists_{i,j} (C(p_i, x, \text{out}) = c \ \& \ C(p_j, x, \text{out}) = d \ \& \ d \leftrightarrow c)$
then $C(s, x, \text{in}) = \square$

Rule 3



if $\forall_i (C(p_i, x, \text{out}) = c \text{ or } \oplus)$
then $C(s, x, \text{in}) = c$

Rule 4

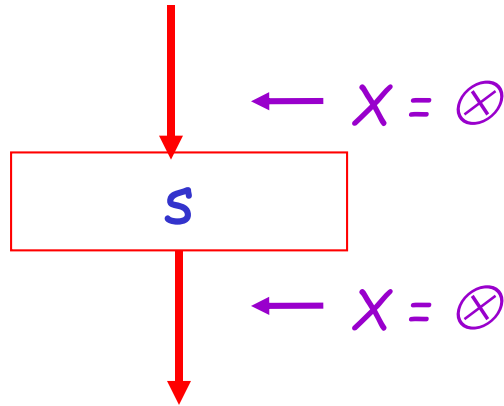


if $\forall_i (C(p_i, x, \text{out}) = \oplus)$
then $C(s, x, \text{in}) = \oplus$

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

Rule 5

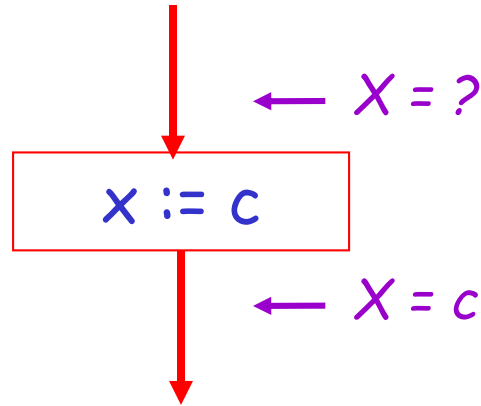


if $C(s, x, \text{in}) = \otimes$
then $C(s, x, \text{out}) = \otimes$

Rule 6

Rule 6 has a lower priority than Rule 5

R6 is checked only when R5 cannot be applied

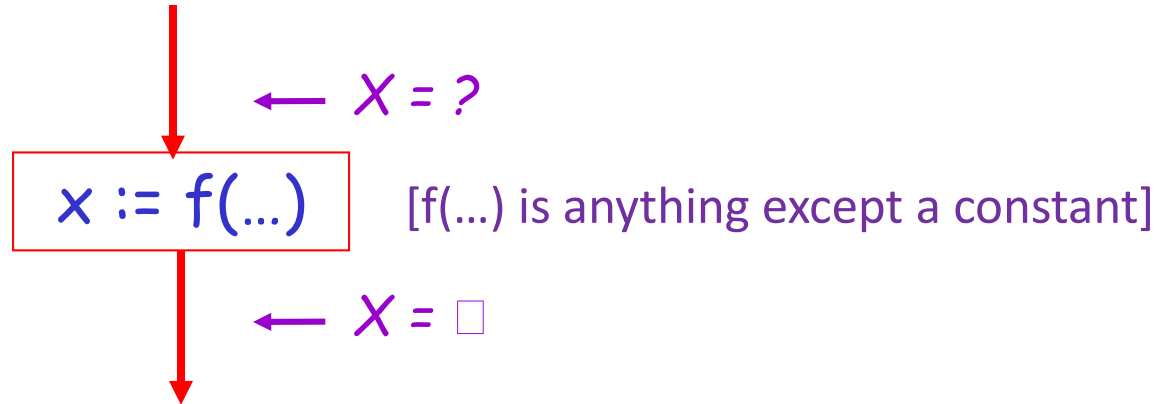


if c is a constant
then $C(x := c, x, out) = c$

Rule 7

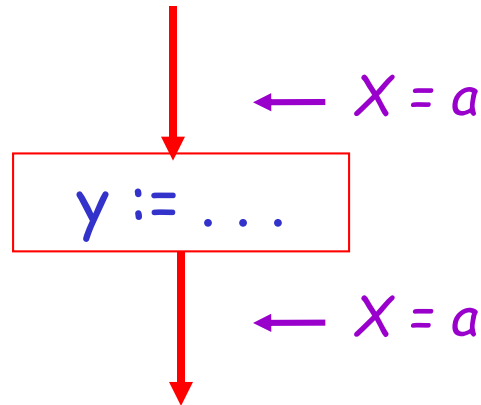
Rule 7 has a lower priority than Rule 5

R7 is checked only when R5 cannot be applied



$$C(x := f(\dots), x, \text{out}) = \square$$

Rule 8

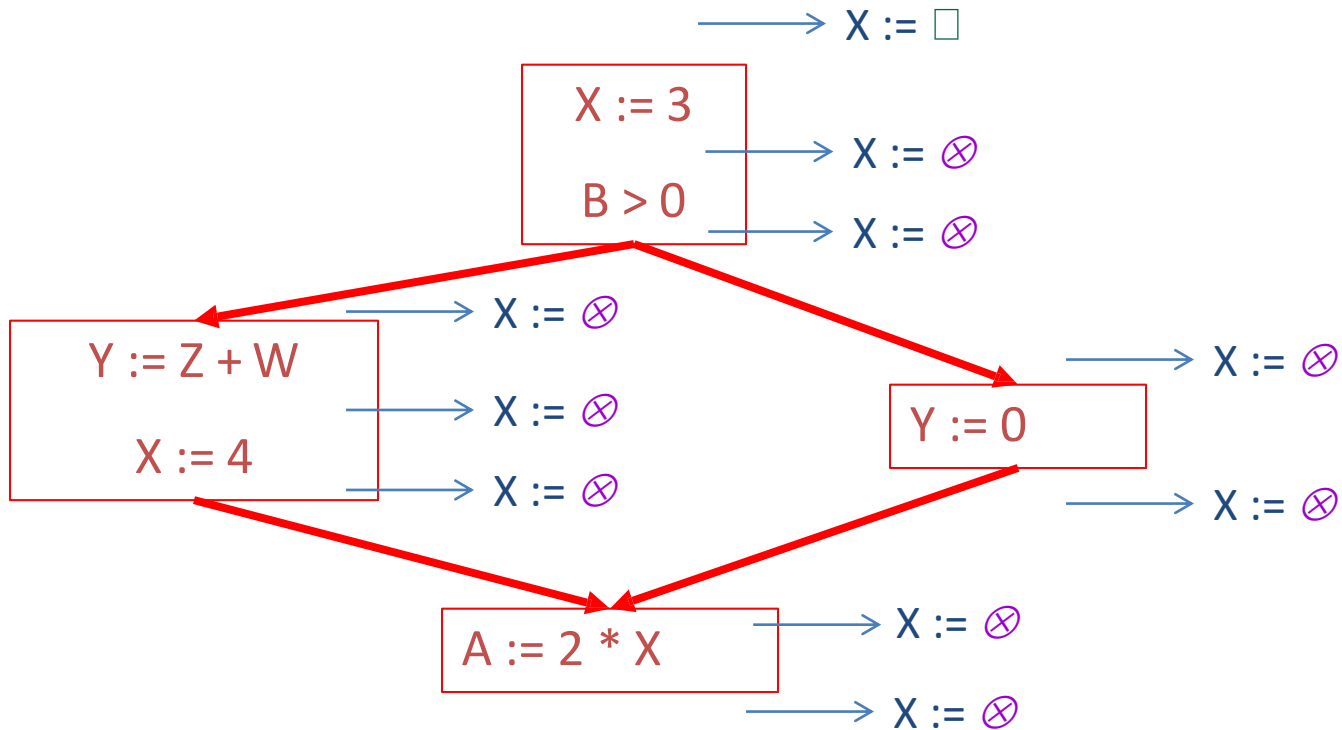


if $x \leftrightarrow y$
then $C(y := \dots, x, \text{out}) = C(y := \dots, x, \text{in})$

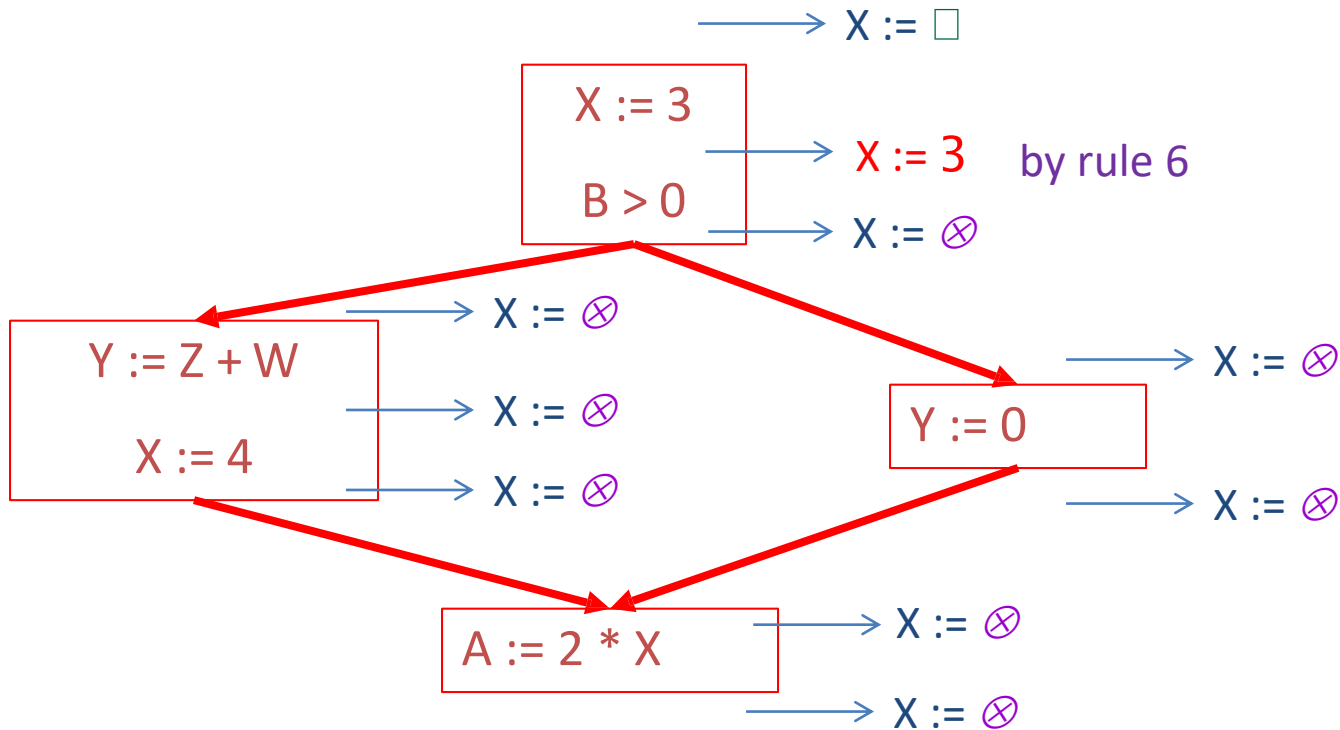
An Algorithm

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

Constant Propagation

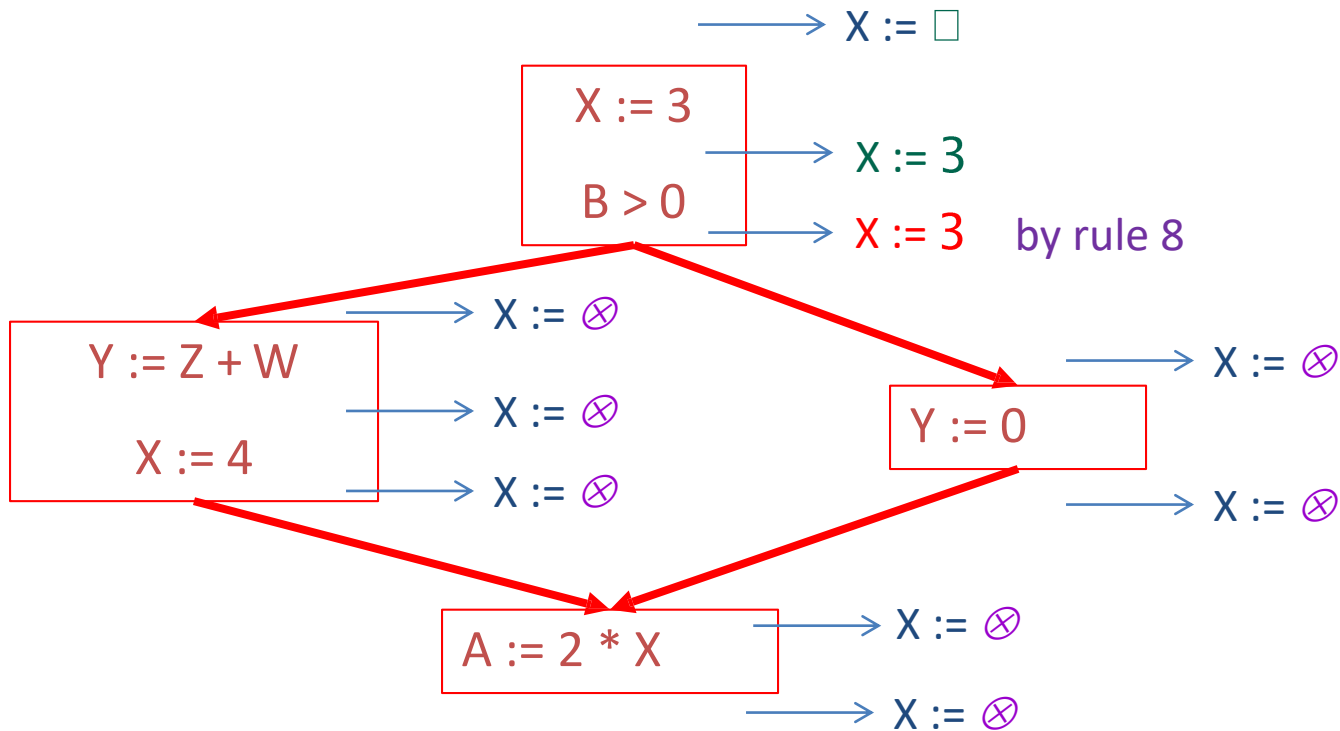


Constant Propagation



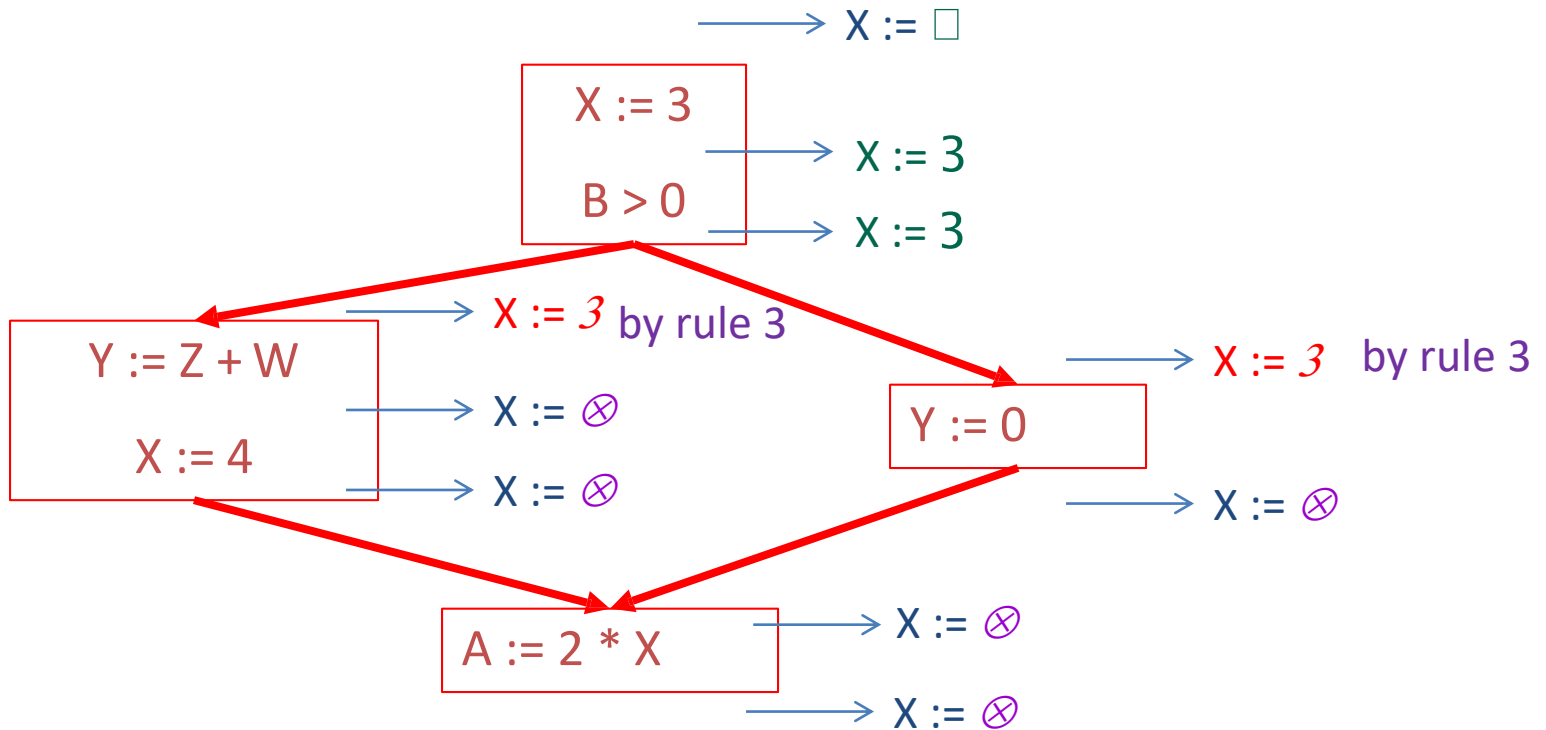
Rule 6: if c is a constant then $C(x := c, x, out) = c$

Constant Propagation



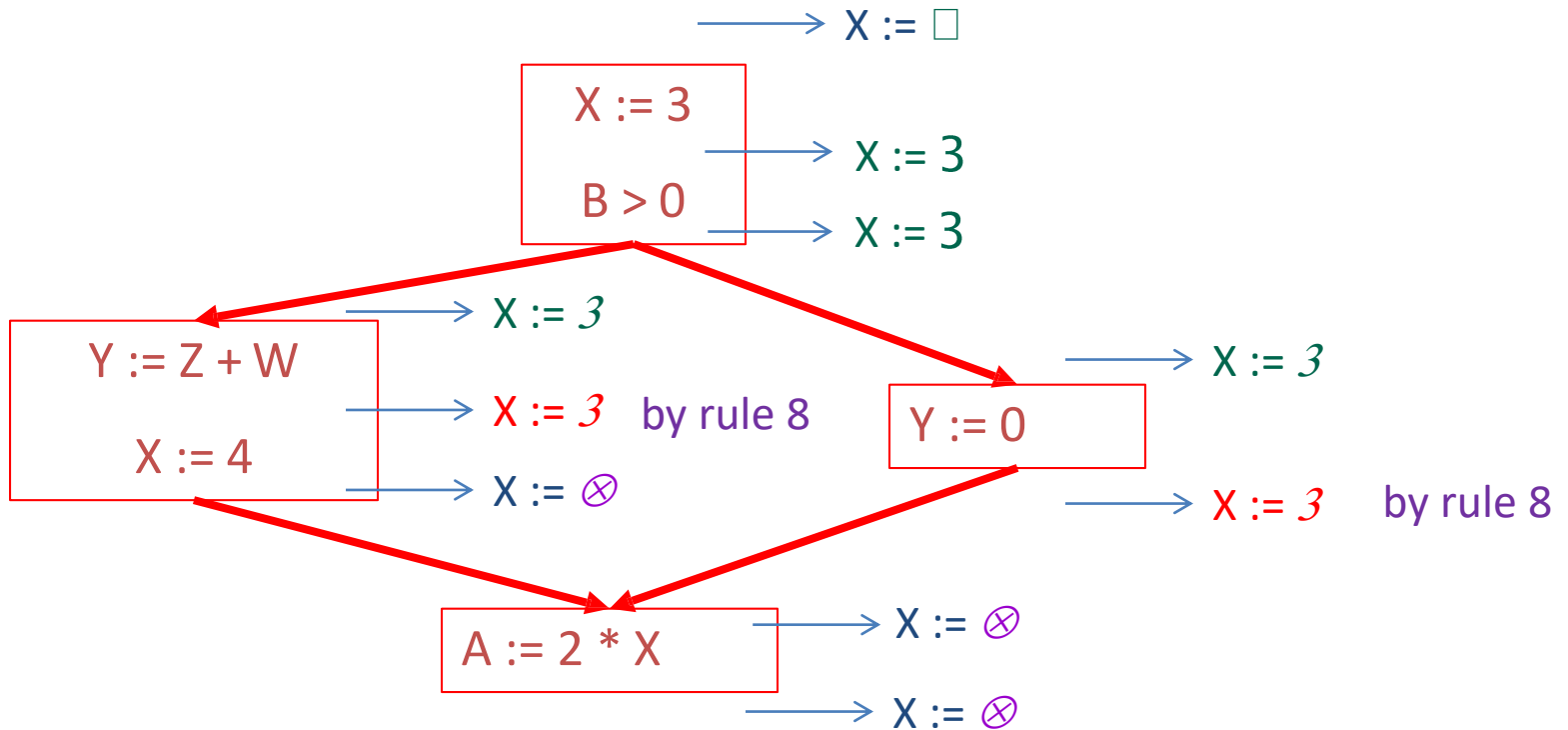
Rule 8: if $x \leftrightarrow y$ then $C(y := \dots, x, \text{out}) = C(y := \dots, x, \text{in})$

Constant Propagation



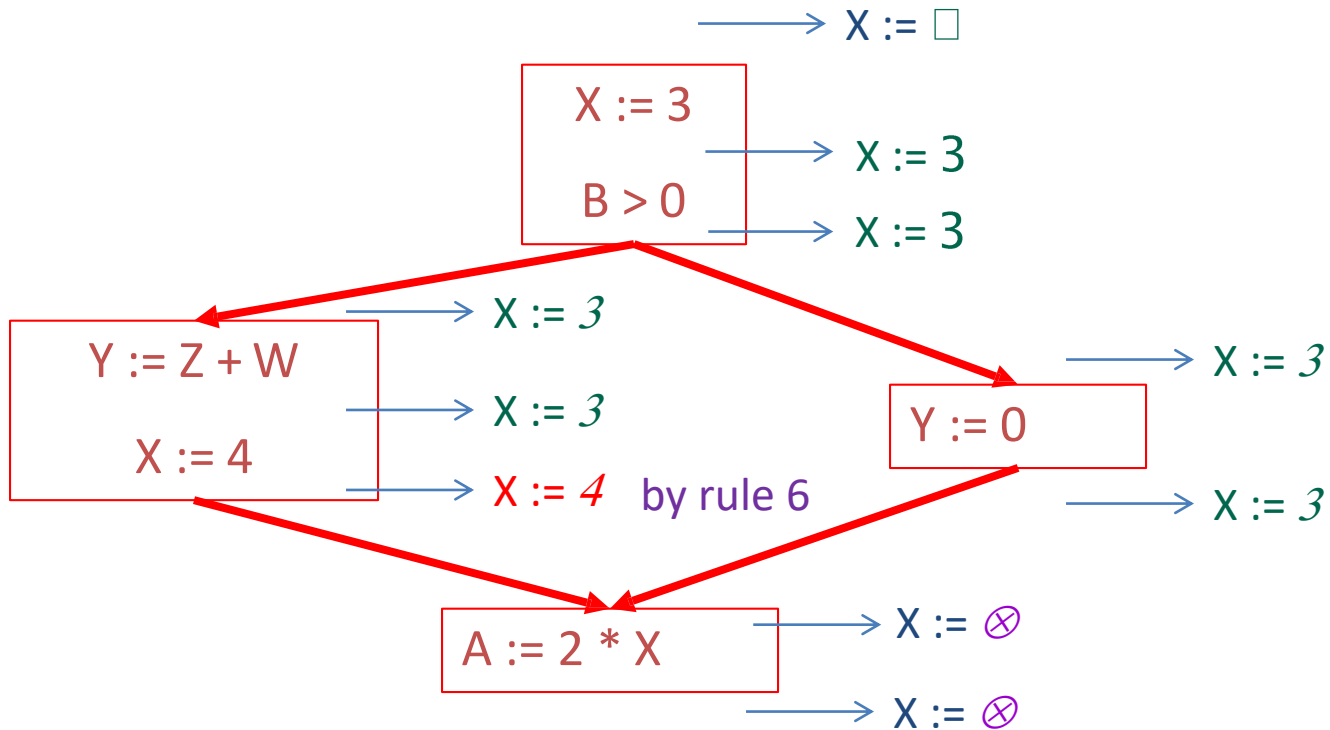
Rule 3: if $\forall_i (C(p_i, x, out) = c \text{ or } \otimes)$ then $C(s, x, in) = c$

Constant Propagation



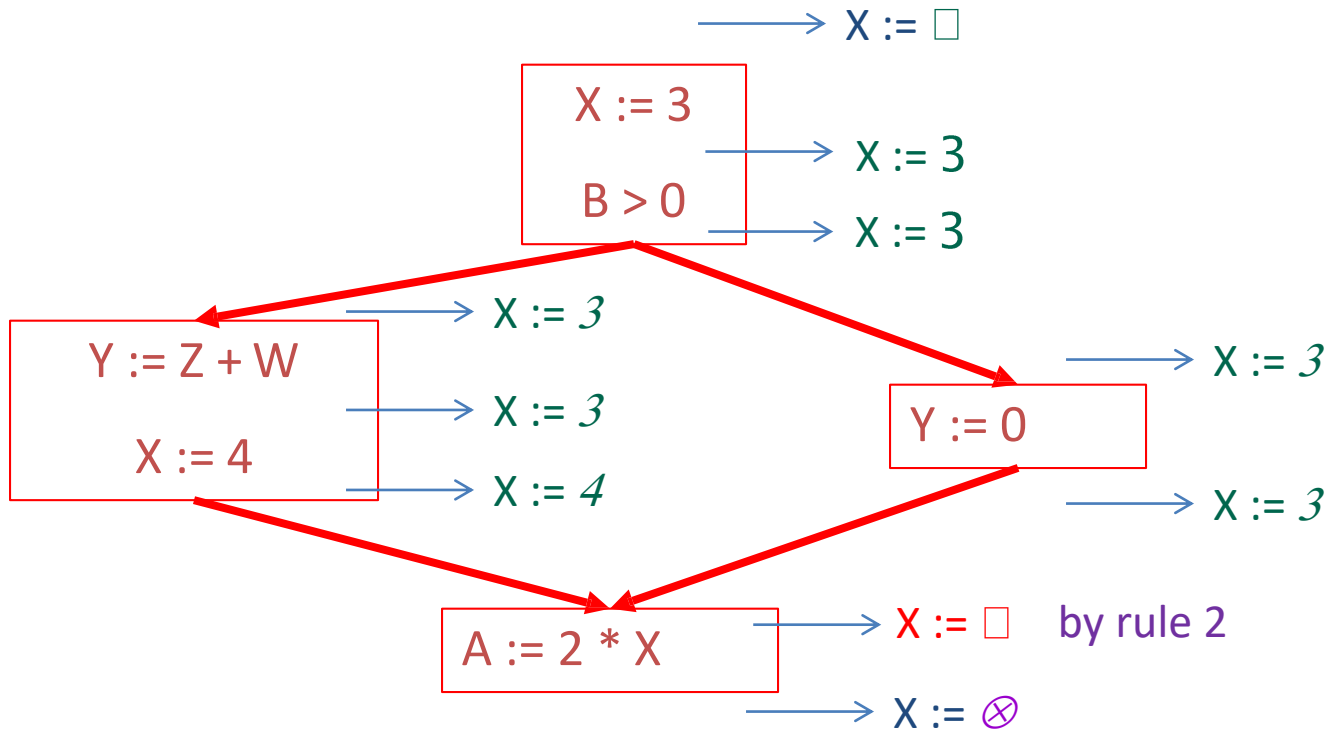
Rule 8: if $x \leftrightarrow y$ then $C(y := \dots, x, \text{out}) = C(y := \dots, x, \text{in})$

Constant Propagation



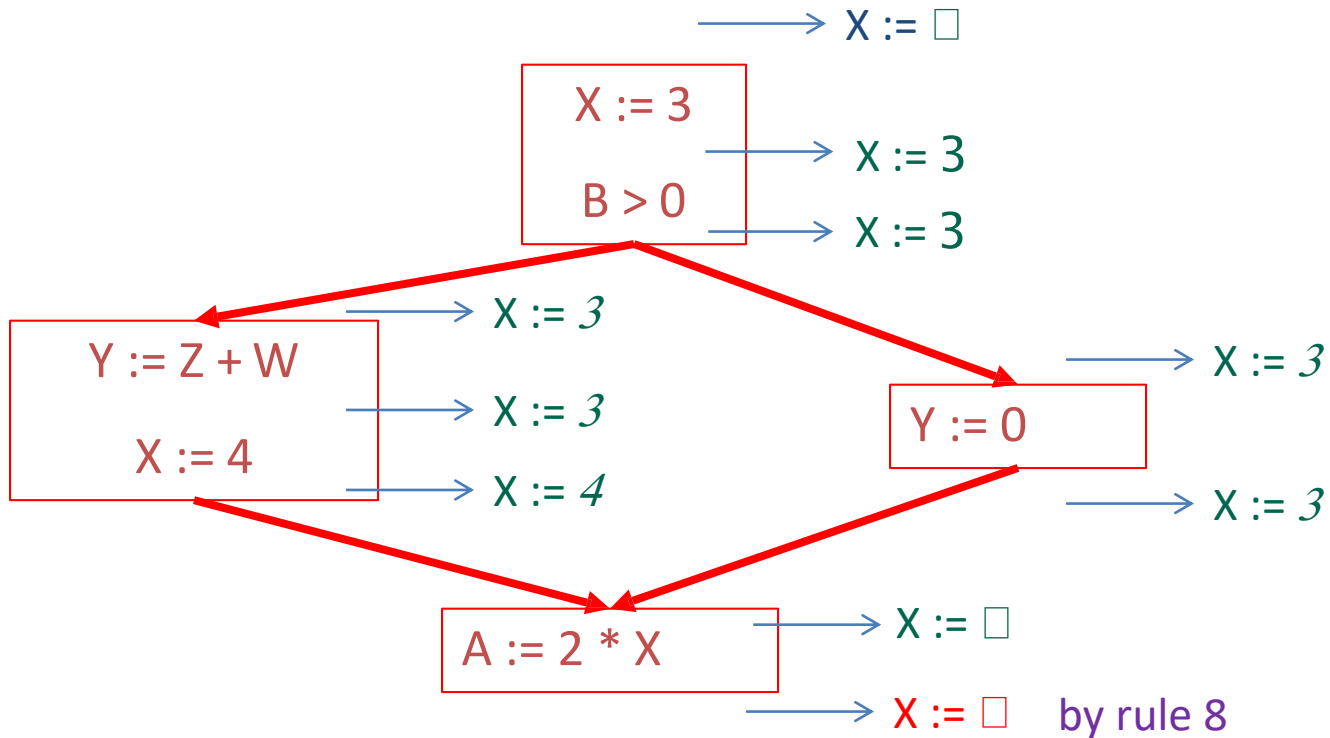
Rule 6: if c is a constant then $C(x := c, x, \text{out}) = c$

Constant Propagation



Rule 2: if $\exists_{i,j} (C(p_i, x, out) = c \ \& \ C(p_j, x, out) = d \ \& \ d \leftrightarrow c)$
 then $C(s, x, in) = \square$

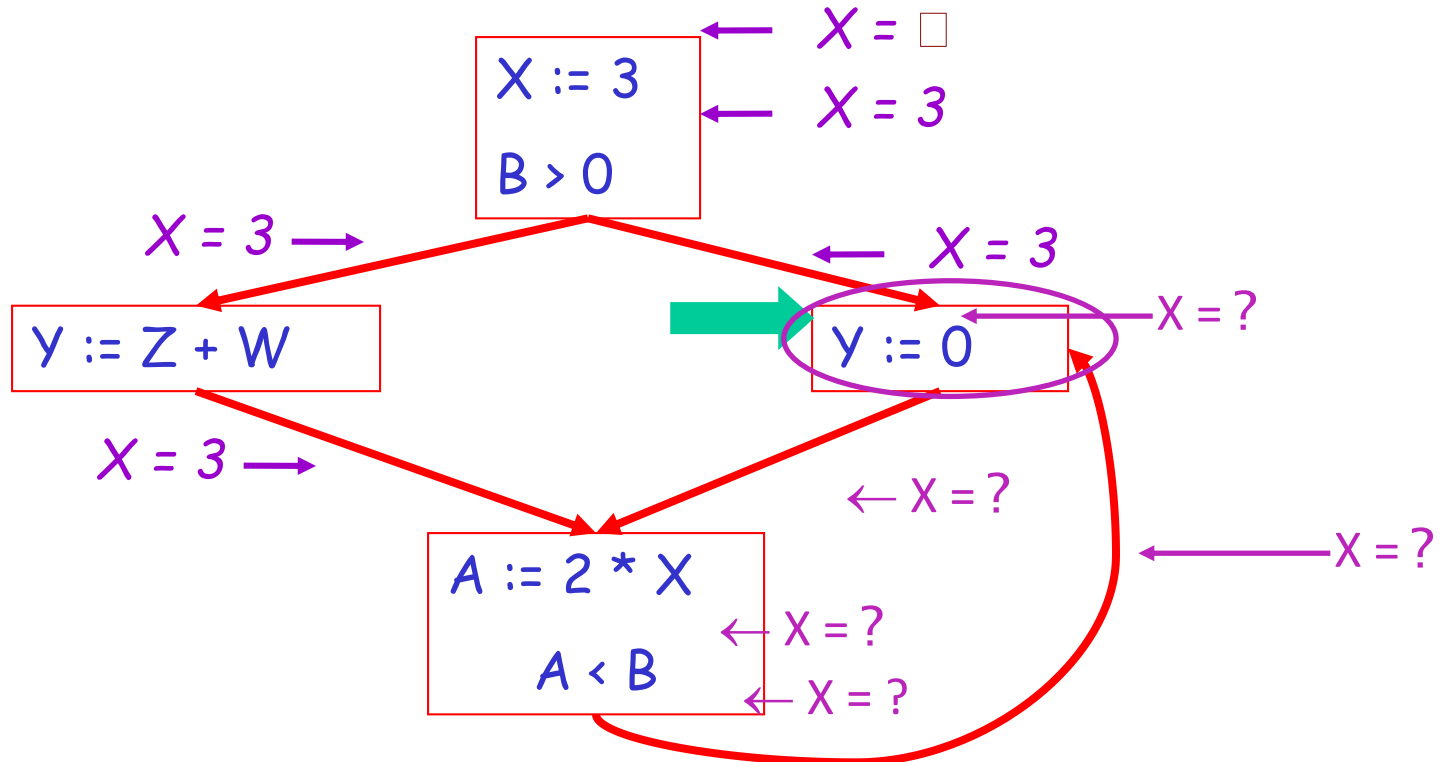
Constant Propagation



Rule 8: if $x \leftrightarrow y$ then $C(y := \dots, x, \text{out}) = C(y := \dots, x, \text{in})$

The Value \otimes

- To understand why we need \otimes , look at a loop



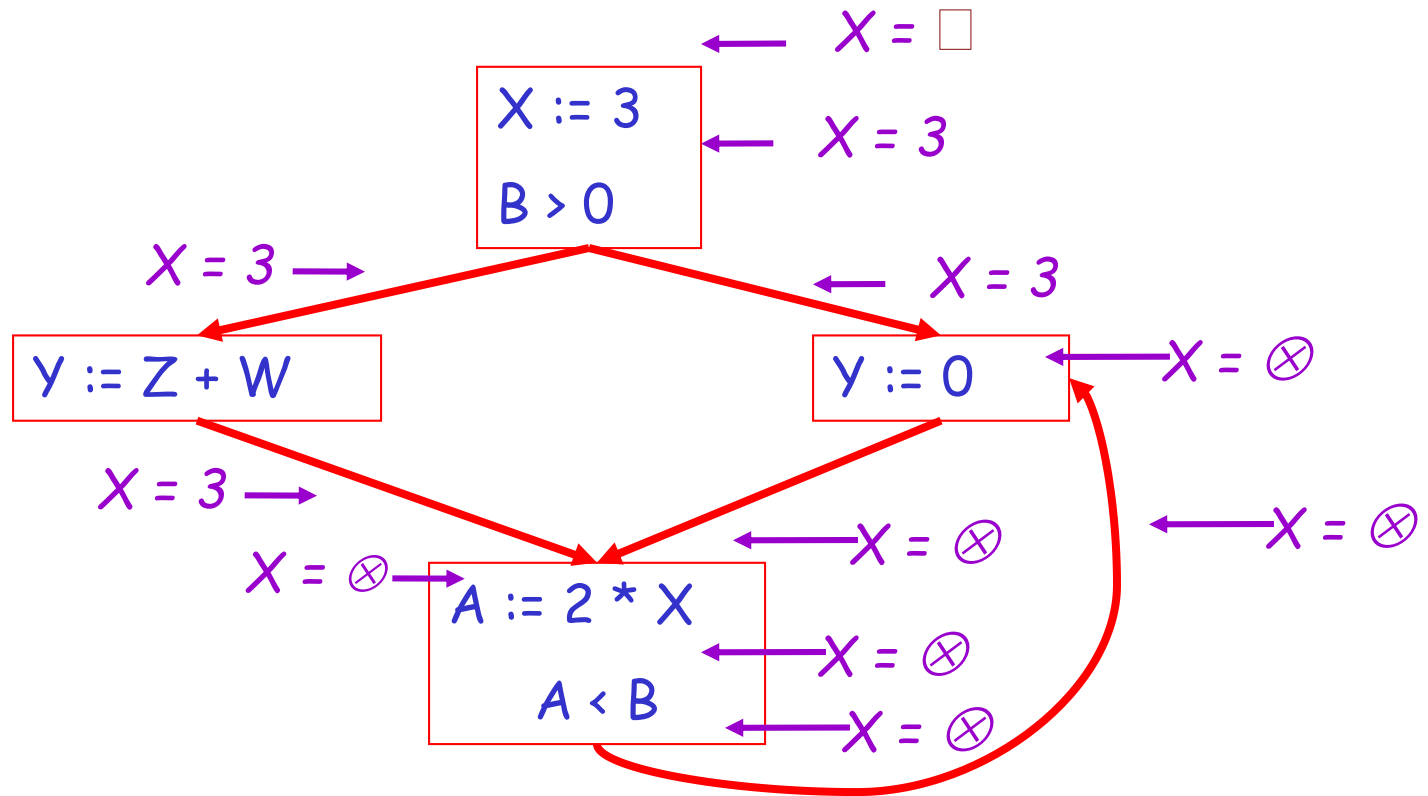
Discussion

- 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 $Y := 0$!

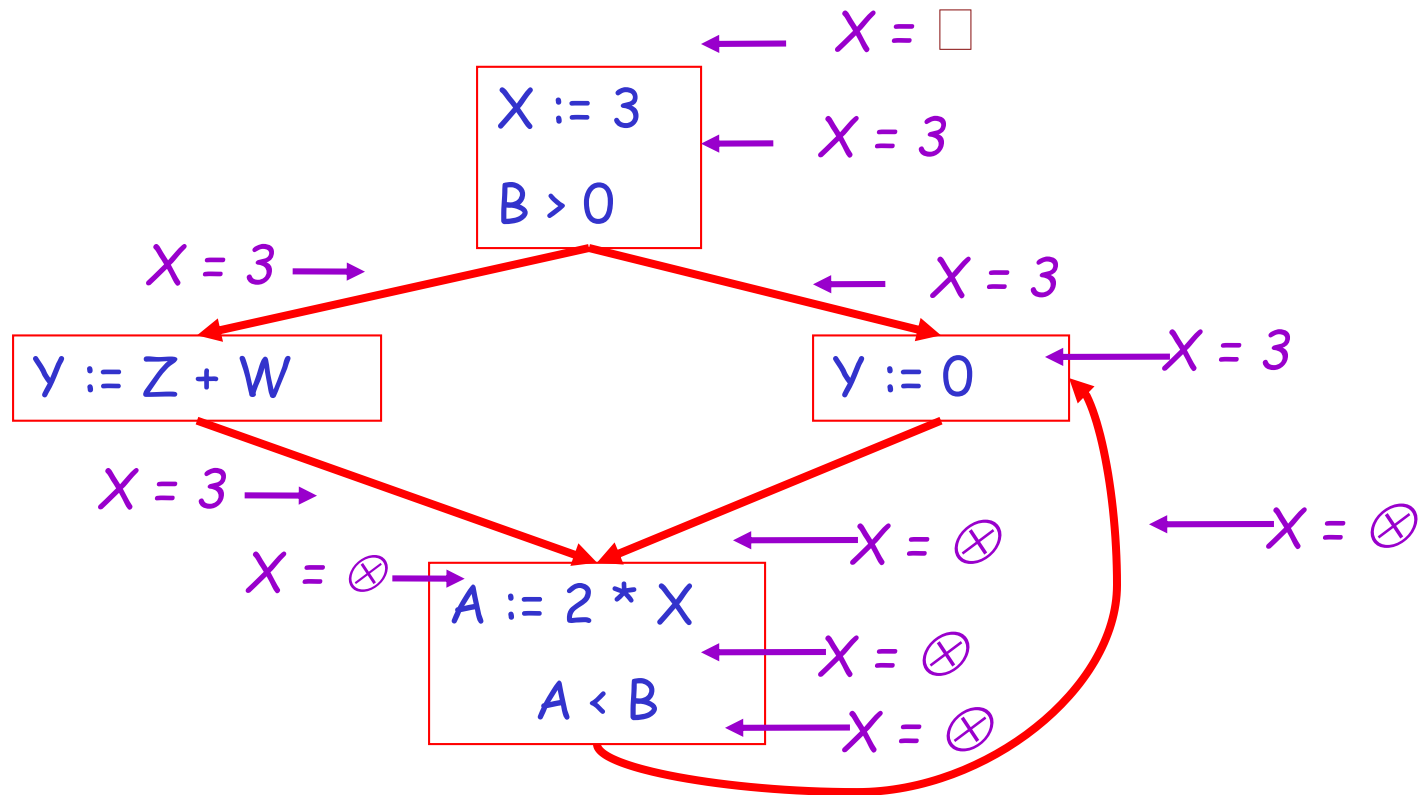
The Value \otimes (Cont.)

- 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 \otimes means “So far as we know, control never reaches this point”

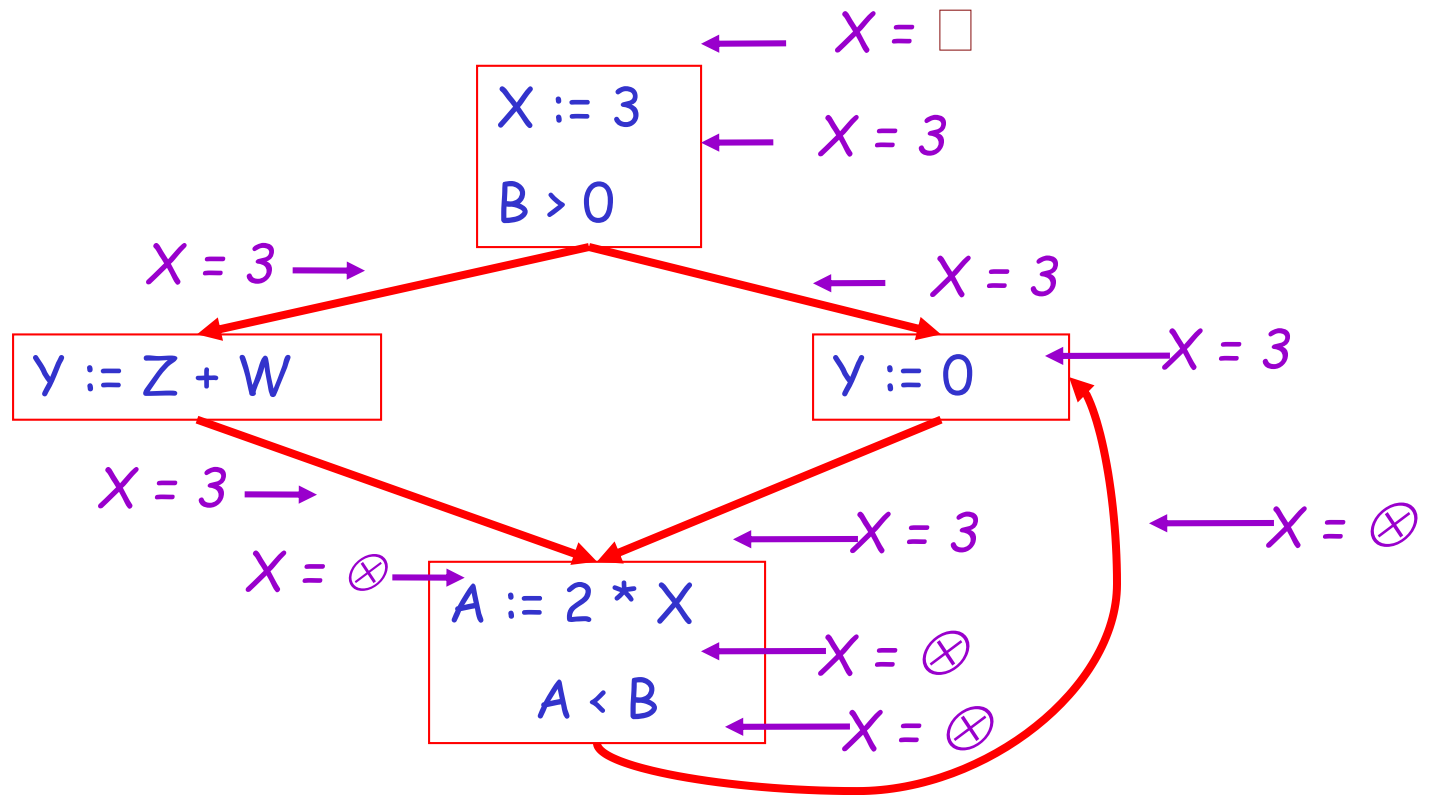
Example



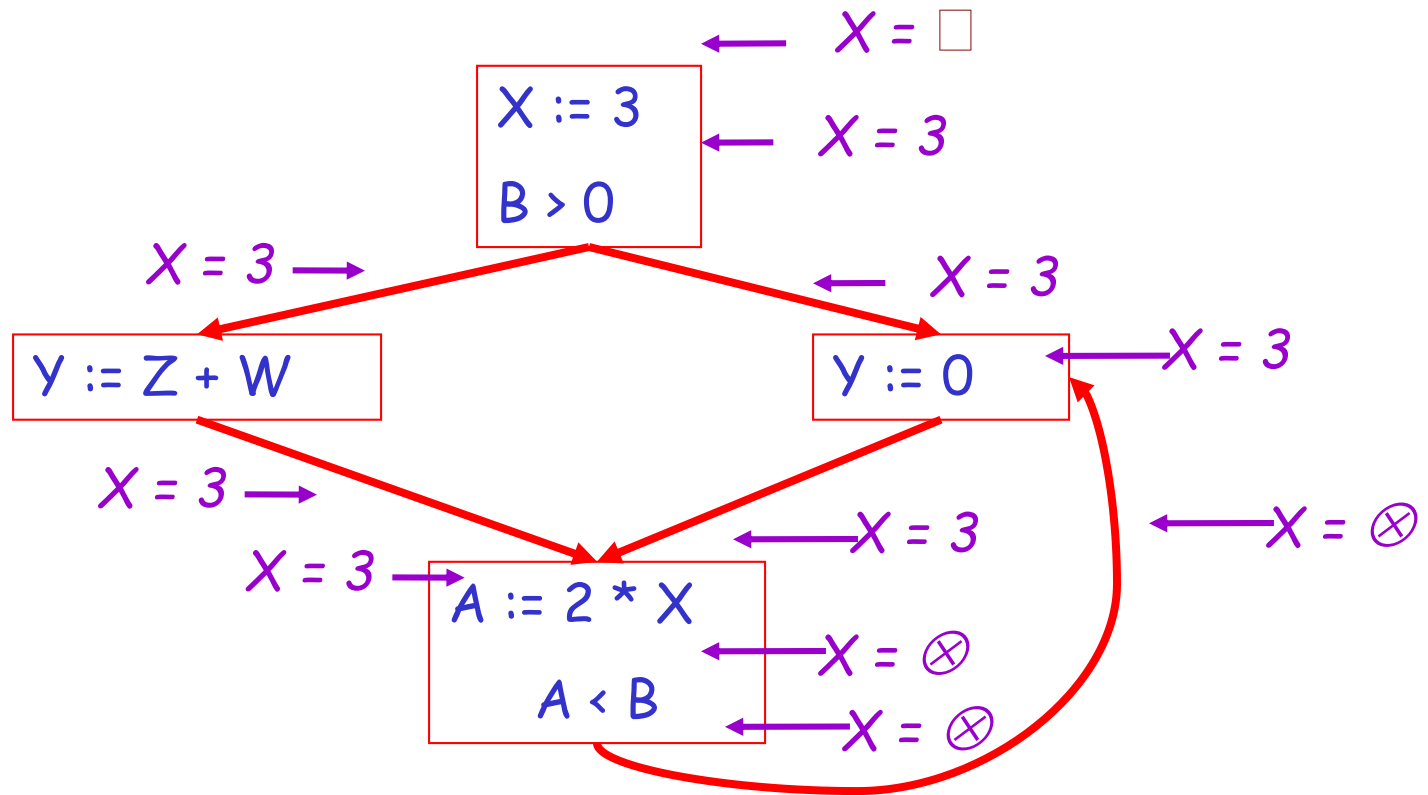
Example



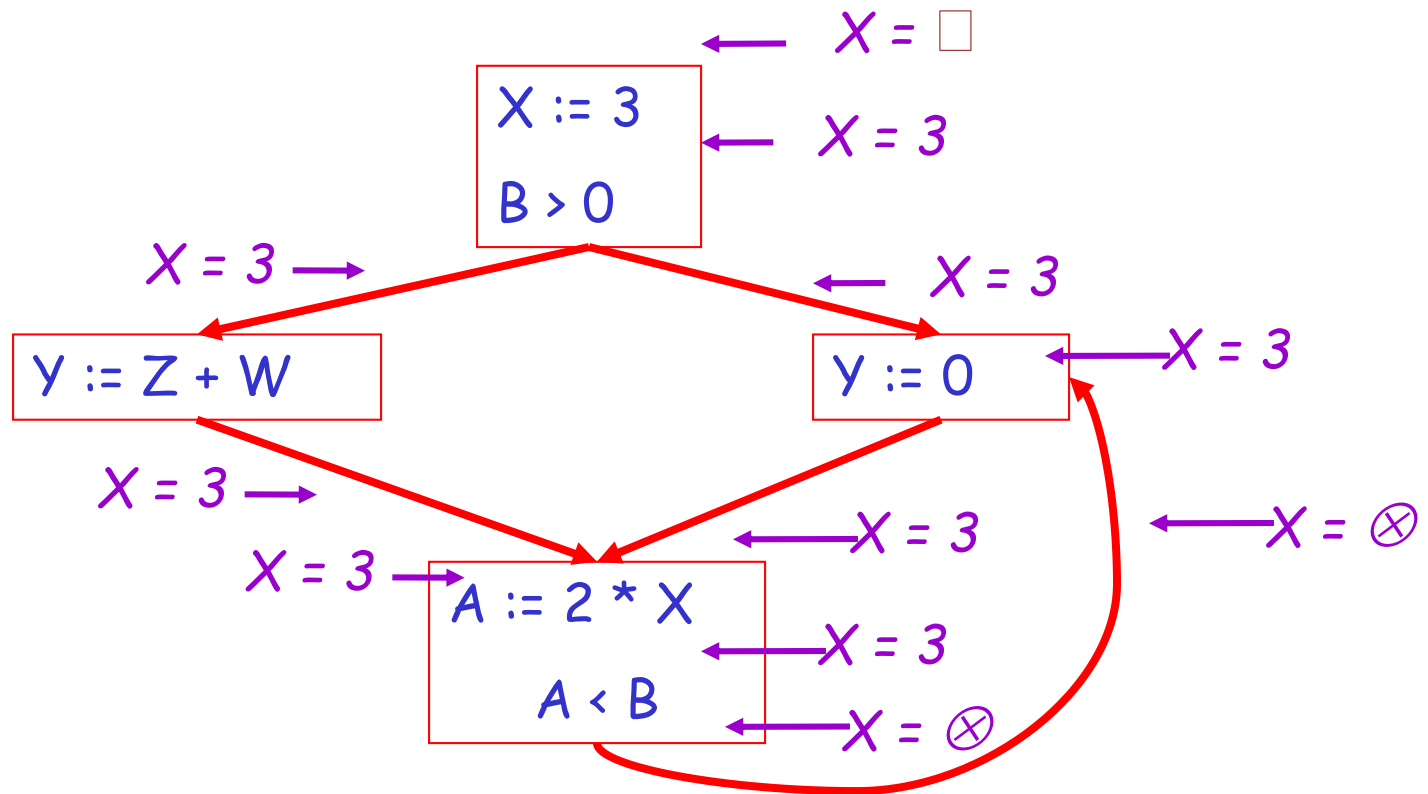
Example



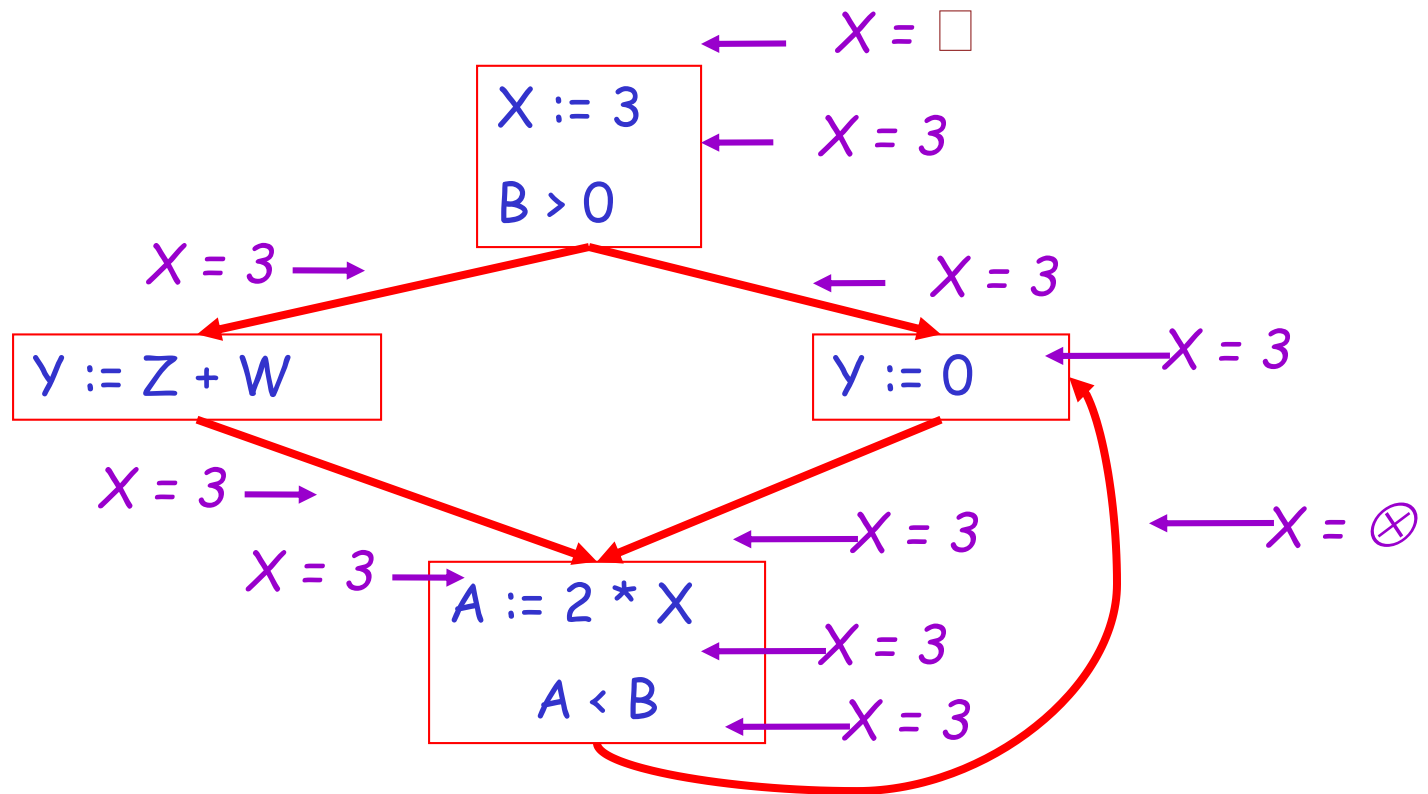
Example



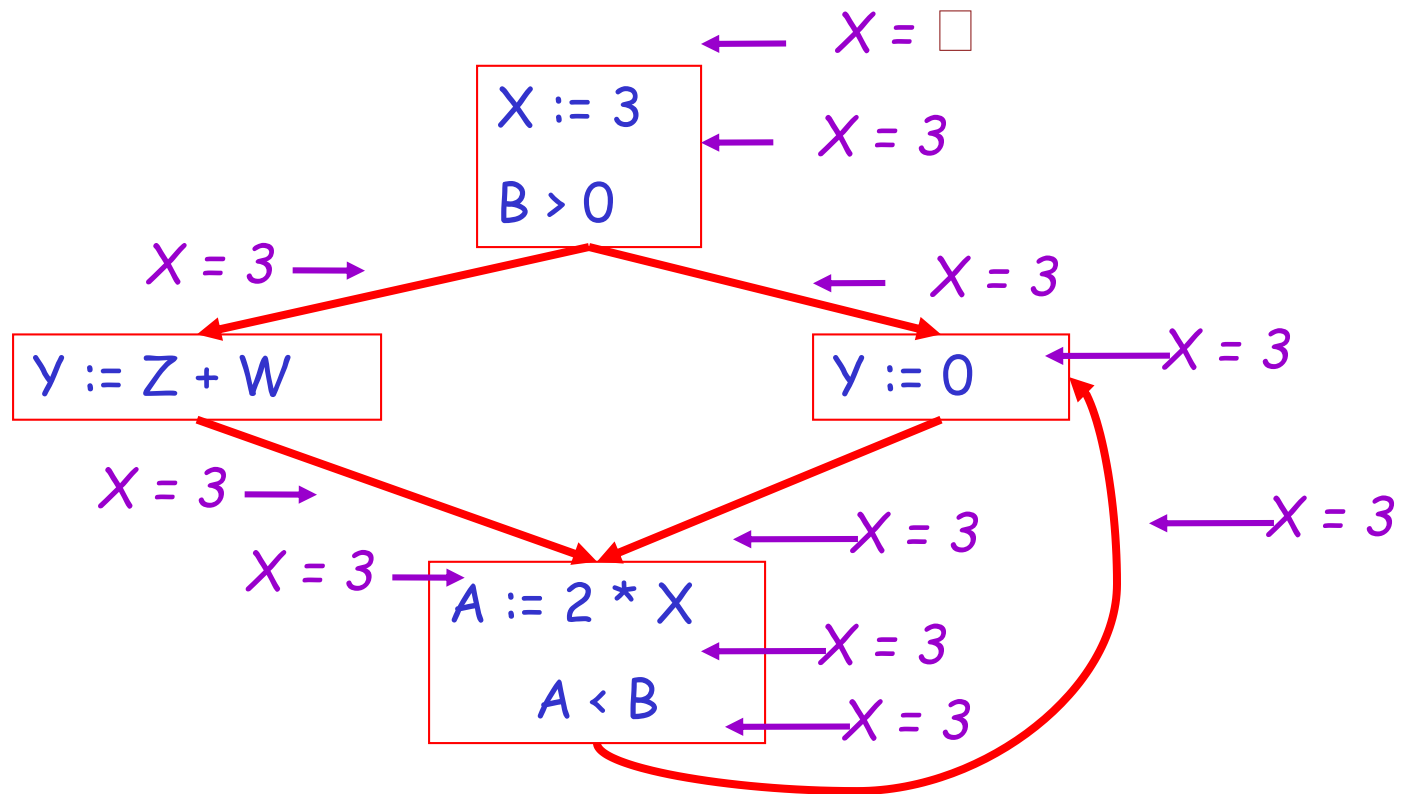
Example



Example



Example



Orderings

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

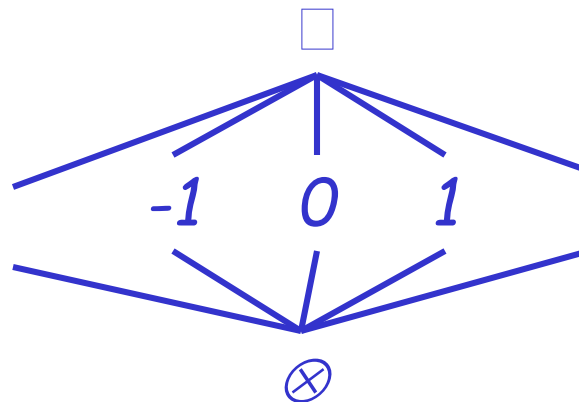
these are
abstract values

$$\otimes < c < \square$$

e.g., \square stands for any
possible run time value

- Drawing a picture with “lower” values drawn lower, we get

constants are not
comparable



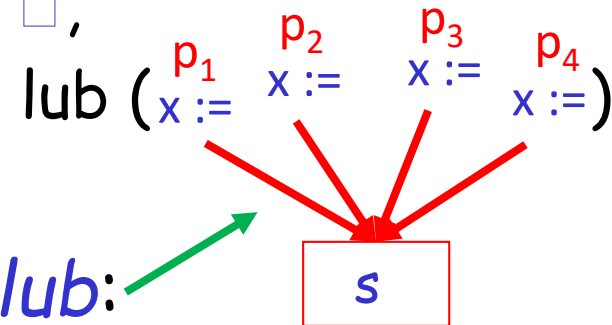
e.g., 0 is not less
than 1

Orderings (Cont.)

- \square is the greatest value, \otimes is the least
 - All constants are in between and incomparable

- Let *lub* be the least-upper bound in this ordering

- Examples: $\text{lub}(1, 2) = \square$, $\text{lub}(\square, \otimes) = \square$,
 $\text{lub}(1, \otimes) = 1, \dots$



- Rules 1-4 are in fact computing *lub*:
 $C(s, x, in) = \text{lub} \{ C(p, x, out) \mid p \text{ is a predecessor of } s \}$

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 \otimes and only *increase*
 - \otimes can change to a constant, and a constant to \square
 - Thus, $C(s, x, _)$ can change at most twice

Termination (Cont.)

Thus the algorithm is linear in program size

Number of steps =

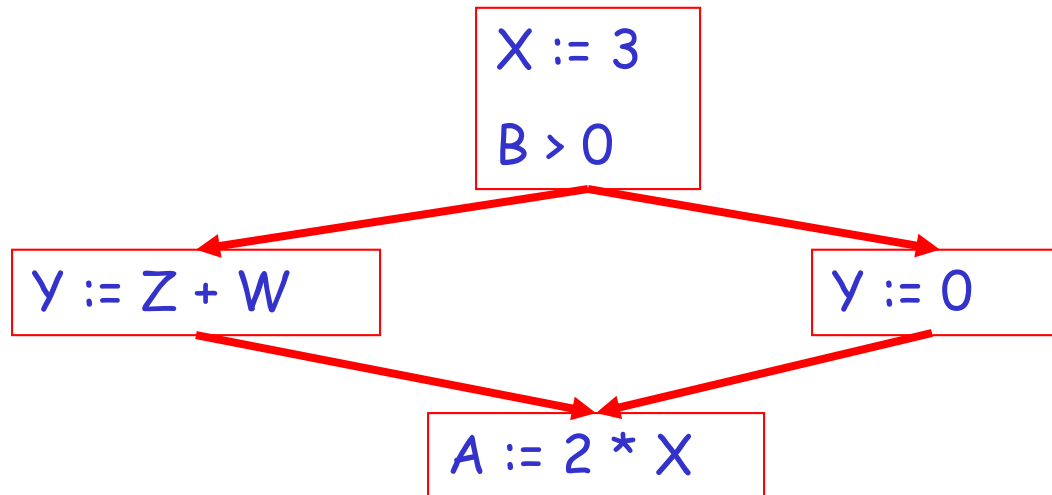
Number of $C(\dots)$ value computed * 2 =

Number of program statements * 4

for each statement s , we have
one $c(s, x, in)$ and one $c(s, x, out)$,
each can change at most twice

Liveness Analysis

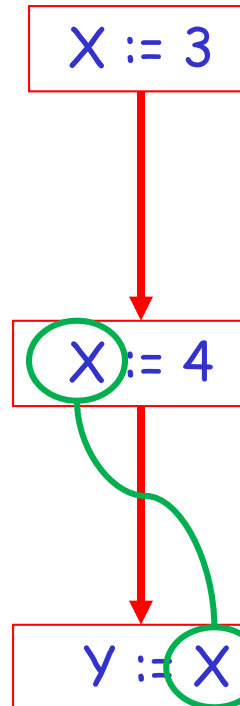
Once constants have been globally propagated, we would like to eliminate dead code



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

Live and Dead

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



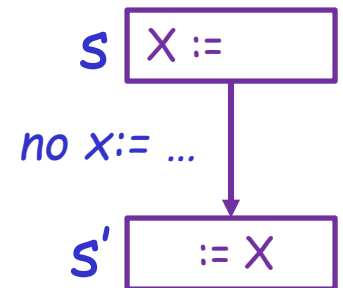
this value of x
is never used

in this eg., x
is guaranteed
to be used

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 x



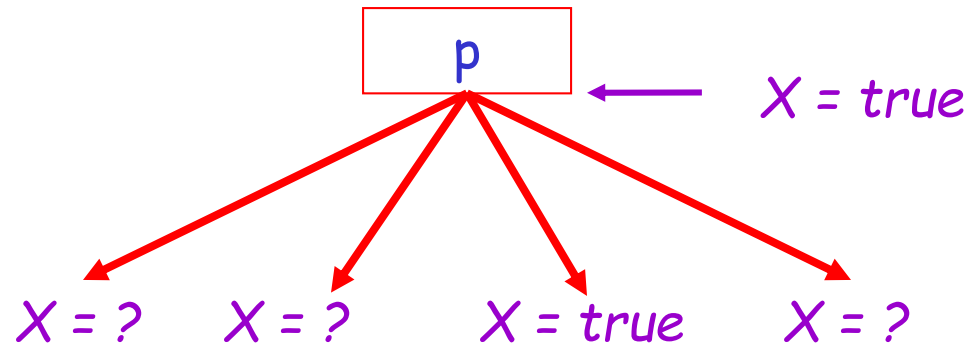
Global Dead Code Elimination

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

Computing Liveness

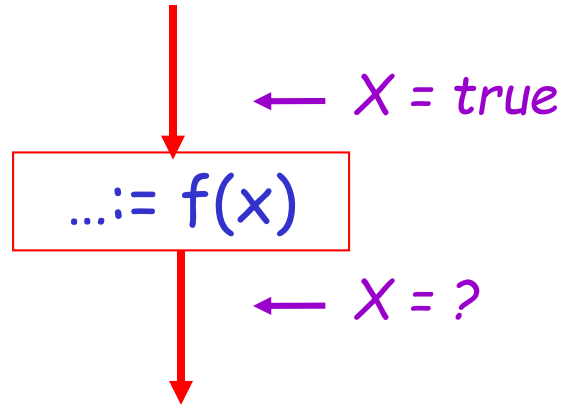
- We can express liveness in terms of information transferred between adjacent statements, just as in copy propagation
- Liveness is simpler than constant propagation, since it is a boolean property (true or false)

Liveness Rule 1



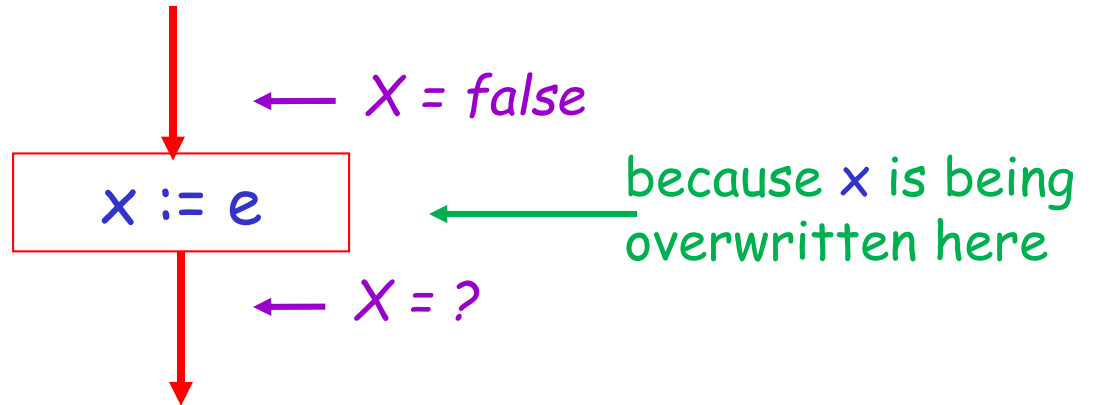
$$L(p, x, out) = \vee \{ L(s, x, in) \mid s \text{ a successor of } p \}$$

Liveness Rule 2



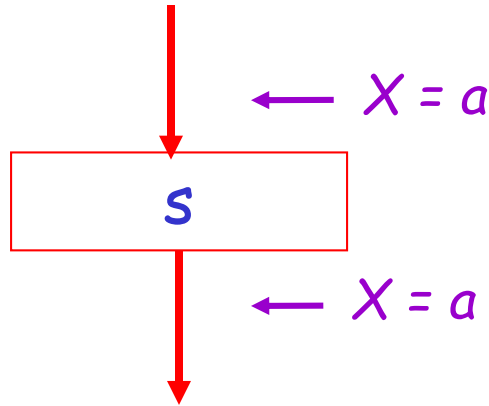
$L(s, x, \text{in}) = \text{true}$ if s refers to x on the rhs

Liveness Rule 3



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

Liveness Rule 4

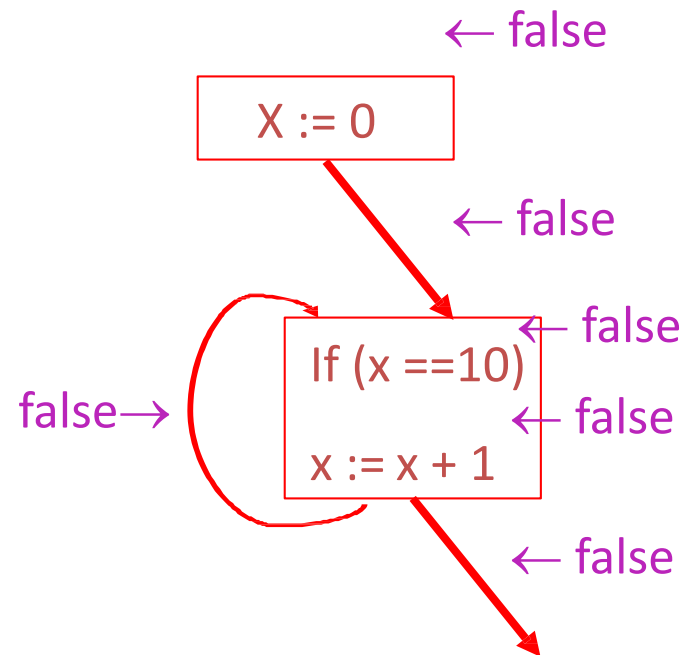


$L(s, x, in) = L(s, x, out)$ if s does not refer to x

Algorithm

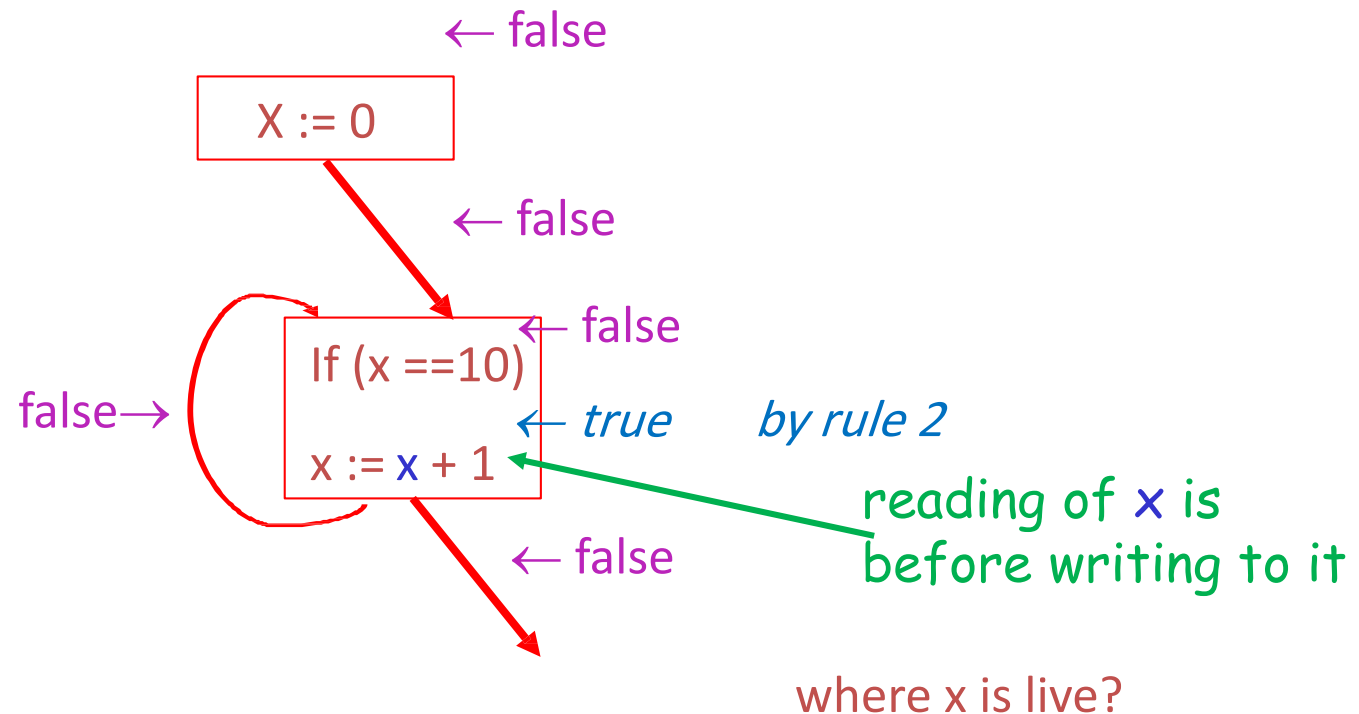
1. Let all $L(\dots) = \text{false}$ initially
2. Repeat until all statements s satisfy rules 1-4
Pick s where one of 1-4 does not hold and update using the appropriate rule

Example



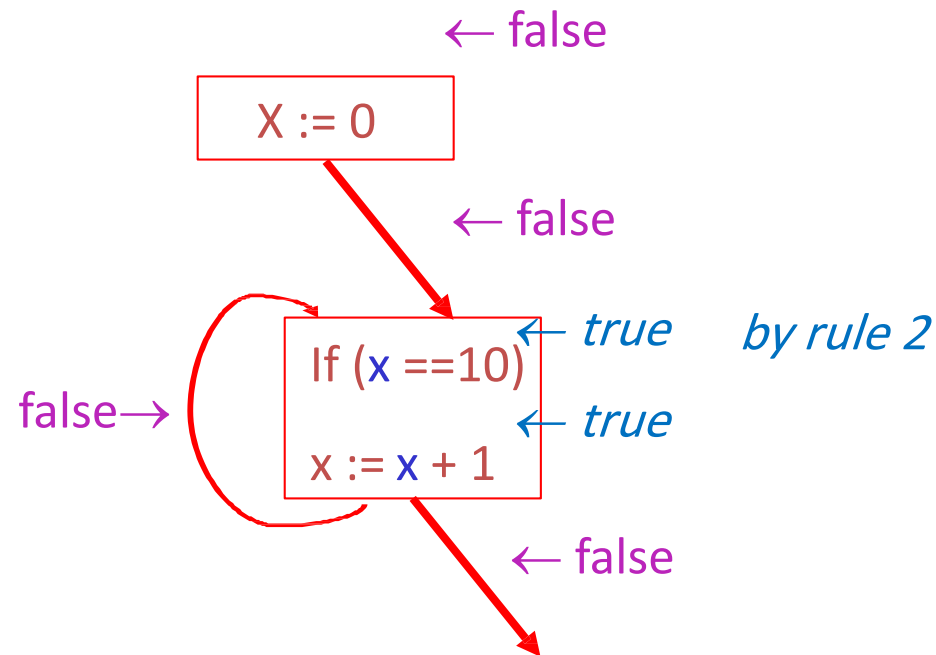
where x is live?

Example



Rule 2: $L(s, x, in) = true$ if s refers to x on the rhs

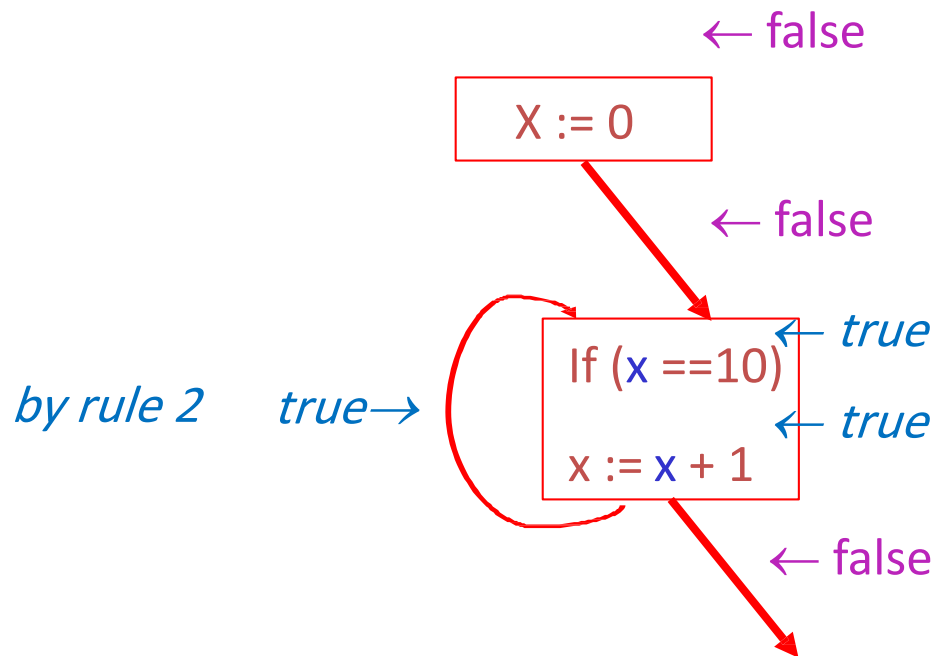
Example



where x is live?

Rule 2: $L(s, x, in) = true$ if s refers to x on the rhs

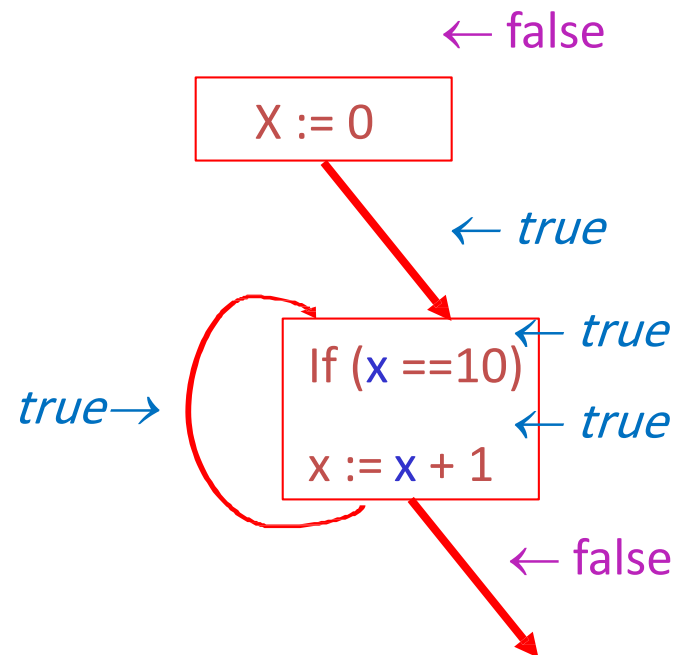
Example



where x is live?

Rule 2: $L(s, x, in) = true$ if s refers to x on the rhs

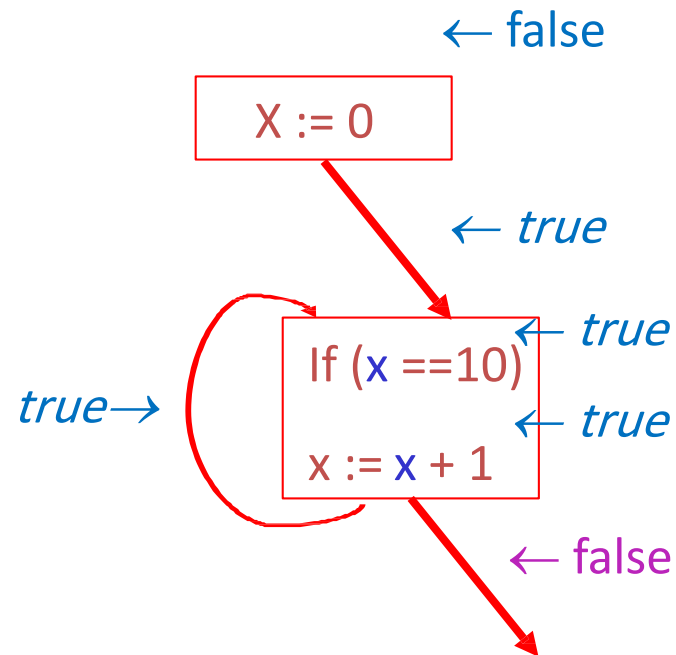
Example



where `x` is live?

Rule 1: $L(p, x, out) = \bigvee \{ L(s, x, in) \mid s \text{ a successor of } p \}$

Example



where x is live?

Rule 3: $L(x := e, x, in) = \text{false}$ if e does not refer to x

Termination

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

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

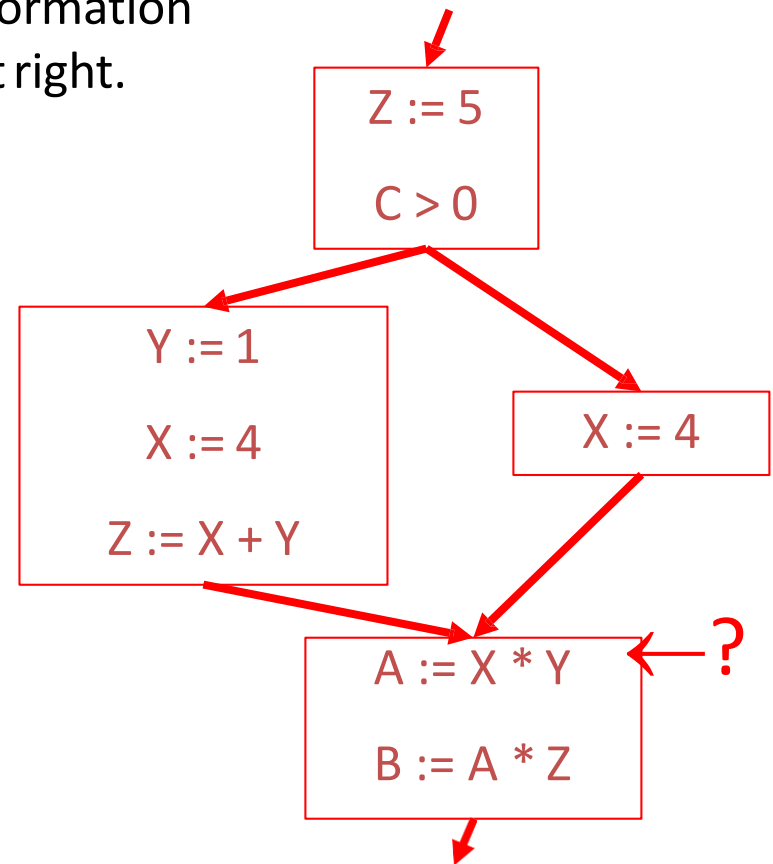
Analysis

- 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

Question?

After running the constant propagation algorithm to completion, choose the correct dataflow information for X , Y , and Z at the program point labeled at right.

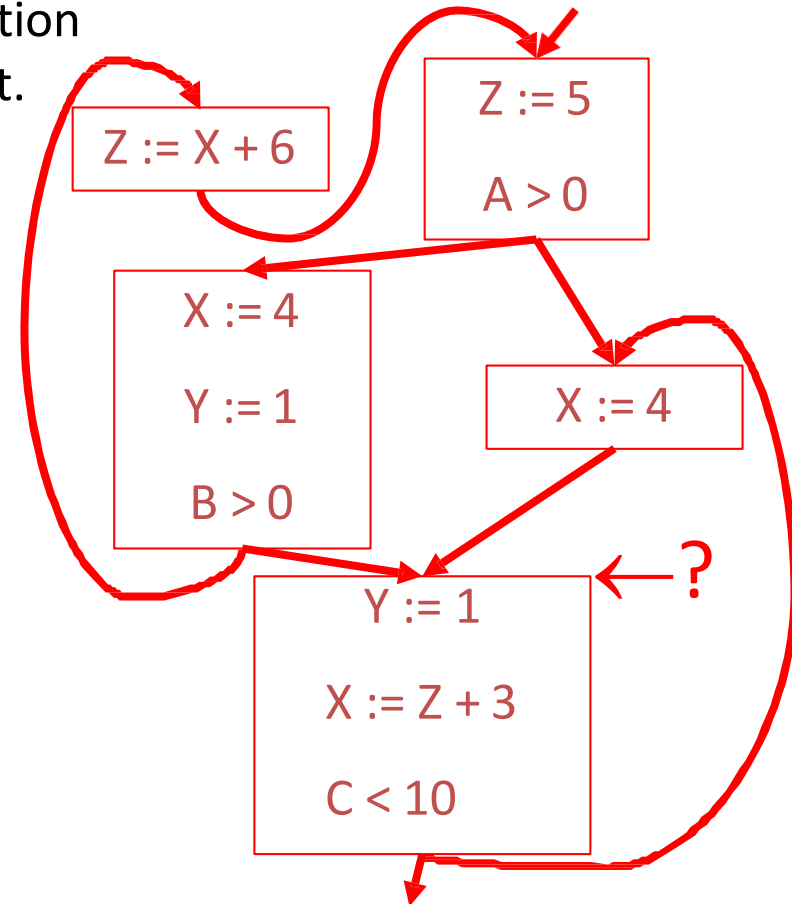
	X	Y	Z
<input type="radio"/>	4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="radio"/>	4	<input type="checkbox"/>	5
<input type="radio"/>	4	1	5
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



Question?

After running the constant propagation algorithm to completion, choose the correct dataflow information for X , Y , and Z at the program point labeled at right.

	X	Y	Z
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	1	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="radio"/>	4	<input type="checkbox"/>	5
<input type="radio"/>	4	1	5
<input type="radio"/>	4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



Question?

After running the liveness analysis algorithm to completion, which of W , X , Y , and Z are live at the program point labeled at right? Assume all variables are dead on exit.

- W
- X
- Y
- Z

