

# CSE P 501 – Compilers

Loops

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# Agenda

- Loop optimizations
  - Dominators – discovering loops
  - Loop invariant calculations
  - Loop transformations
- A quick look at some memory hierarchy issues  
(if we have time)
- Largely based on material in Appel ch. 18, 21;  
similar material in other books

# Loops

Much of the execution time of programs is spent inside loops

∴ worth considerable effort to make loops go faster

∴ want to figure out how to recognize loops and figure out how to “improve” them

# What's a Loop?

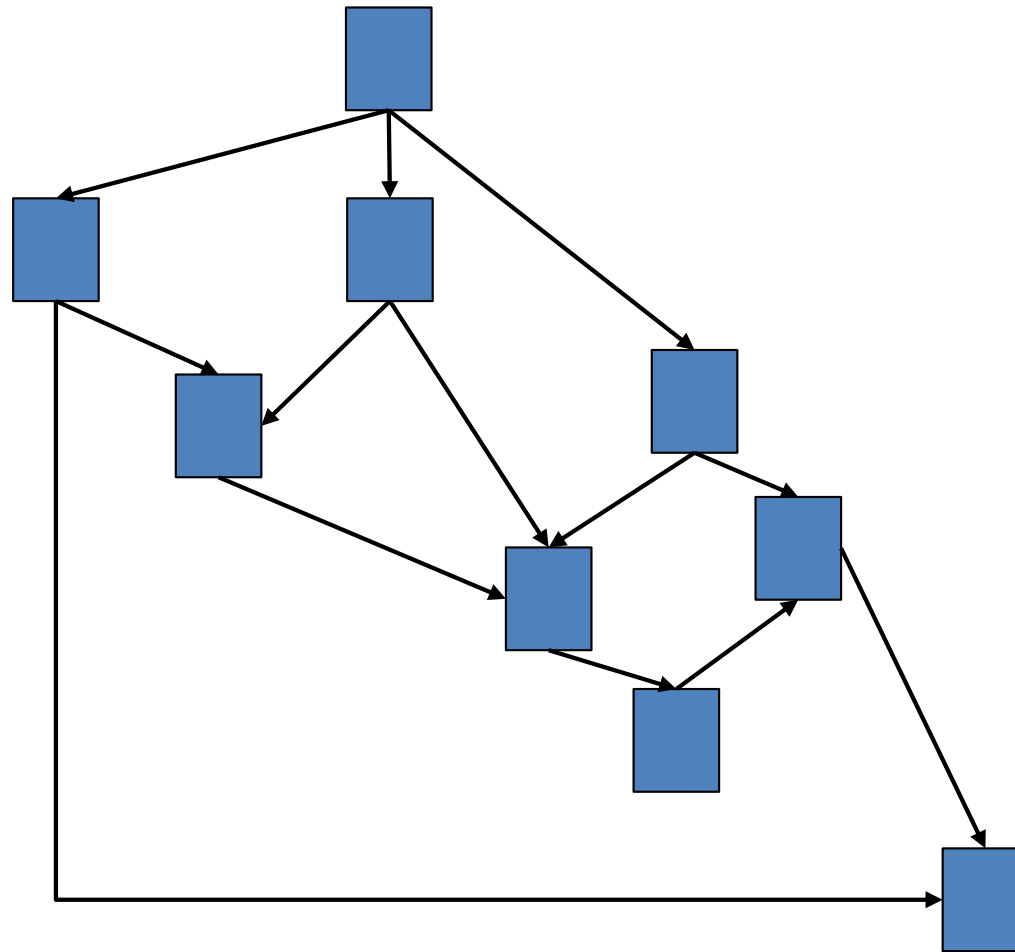
- In source code, a loop is the set of statements in the body of a **for/while** construct
- But, in a language that permits free use of **GOTOs**, how do we recognize a loop?
- In a control-flow-graph (node = basic-block, arc = flow-of-control), how do we recognize a loop?

# Any Loops in this Code?

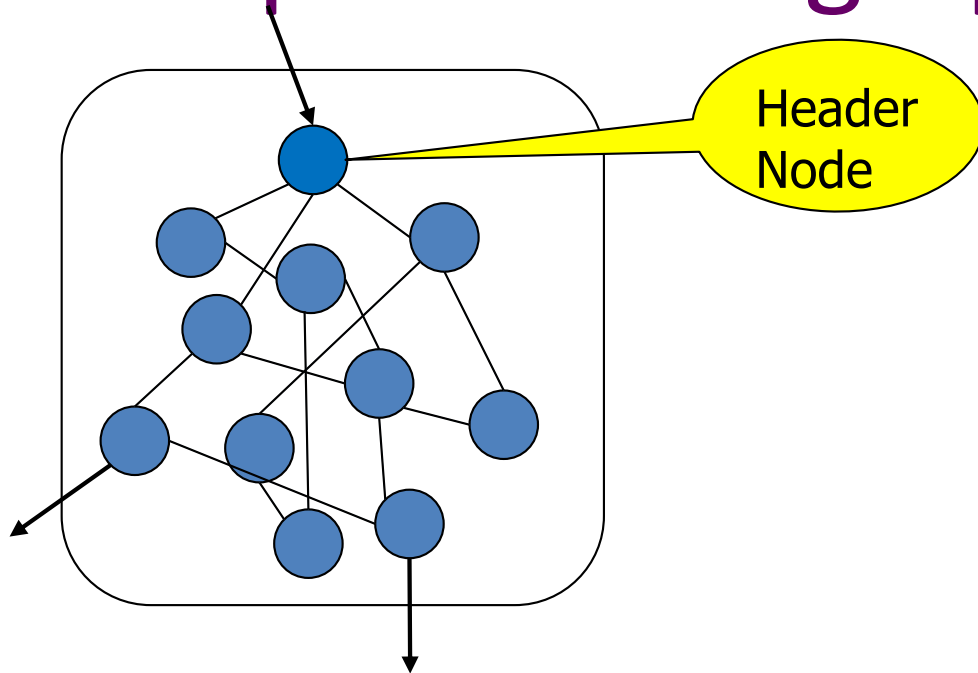
```
        i = 0
        goto L8
L7:      i++
L8:      if (i < N) goto L9
        s = 0
        j = 0
        goto L5
L4:      j++
L5:      N--
        if(j >= N) goto L3
        if (a[j+1] >= a[j]) goto L2
        t = a[j+1]
        a[j+1] = a[j]
        a[j] = t
        s = 1
L2:      goto L4
L3:      if(s != 0) goto L1 else goto L9
L1:      goto L7
L9:      return
```

Anyone recognize or guess the algorithm?

# Any Loops in this Flowgraph?



# Loop in a Flowgraph: Intuition



- Cluster of nodes, such that:
- There's one node called the "header"
- I can reach all nodes in the cluster from the header
- I can get back to the header from all nodes in the cluster
- Only once entrance - via the header
- One or more exits

# What's a Loop?

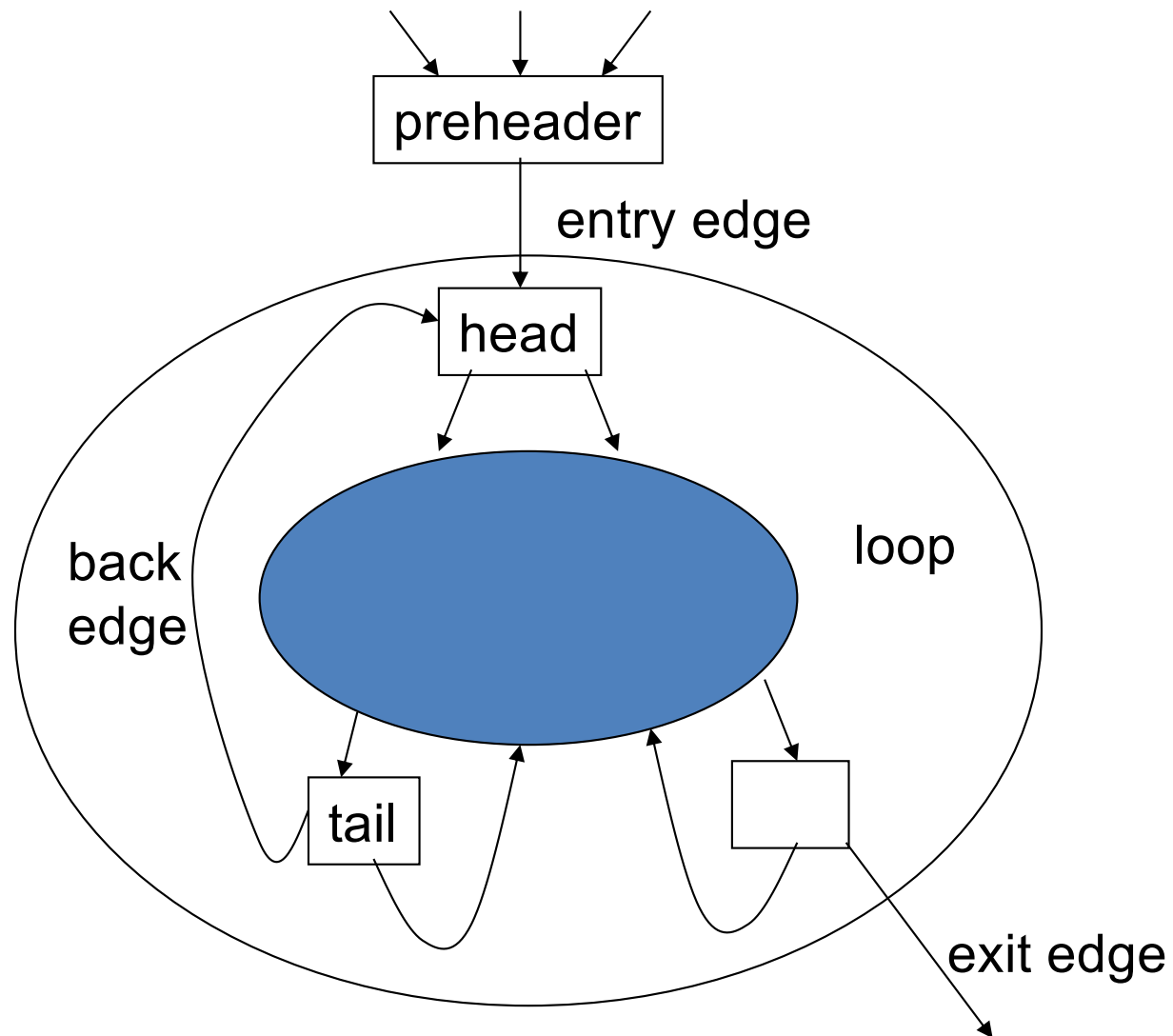
- In a control flow graph, a loop is a set of nodes  $S$  such that:
  - $S$  includes a *header node*  $h$
  - From any node in  $S$  there is a path of directed edges leading to  $h$
  - There is a path from  $h$  to any node in  $S$
  - There is no edge from any node outside  $S$  to any node in  $S$  other than  $h$



# Entries and Exits

- In a loop
  - An *entry node* is one with some predecessor outside the loop
  - An *exit node* is one that has a successor outside the loop
- Corollary: A loop may have multiple exit nodes, but only one entry node

# Loop Terminology



# Finding Loops in Flow Graphs

- We use *dominators* for this
- Recall:
  - Every control flow graph has a unique start node  $s_0$
  - Node  $x$  dominates node  $y$  if every path from  $s_0$  to  $y$  must go through  $x$
  - A node  $x$  dominates itself

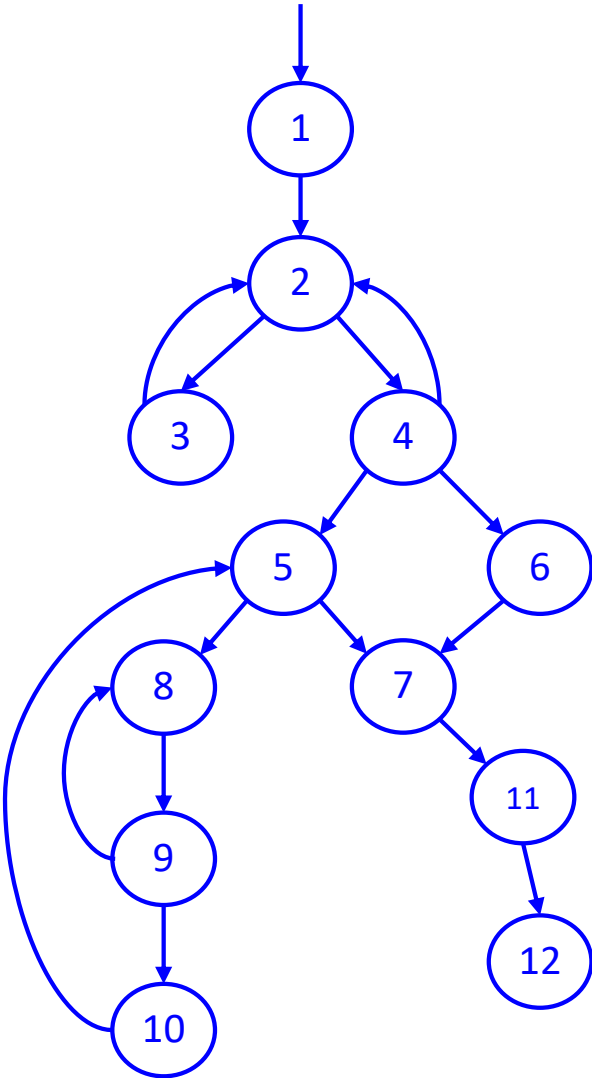
# Calculating Dominator Sets

- $D[n]$  is the set of nodes that dominate  $n$ 
  - $D[s_0] = \{ s_0 \}$
  - $D[n] = \{ n \} \cup ( \bigcap_{p \in \text{pred}[n]} D[p] )$
- Set up an iterative analysis as usual to solve this
  - Except initially each  $D[n]$  must be all nodes in the graph – updates make these sets smaller if changed
- **WARNING:** this is different from the  $\text{DOM}(x)$  relationship we used with SSA – that was the set of all blocks *dominated by*  $x$  (sigh)

# Immediate Dominators

- Every node  $n$  has a single *immediate dominator*  $\text{idom}(n)$ 
  - $\text{idom}(n)$  dominates  $n$
  - $\text{idom}(n)$  differs from  $n$  – i.e., strictly dominates
  - $\text{idom}(n)$  does not dominate any other strict dominator of  $n$ 
    - i.e., strictly dominates and is nearest dominator
- Fact (er, theorem): If  $a$  dominates  $n$  and  $b$  dominates  $n$ , then either  $a$  dominates  $b$  or  $b$  dominates  $a$ 
  - $\therefore \text{idom}(n)$  is unique

# Example

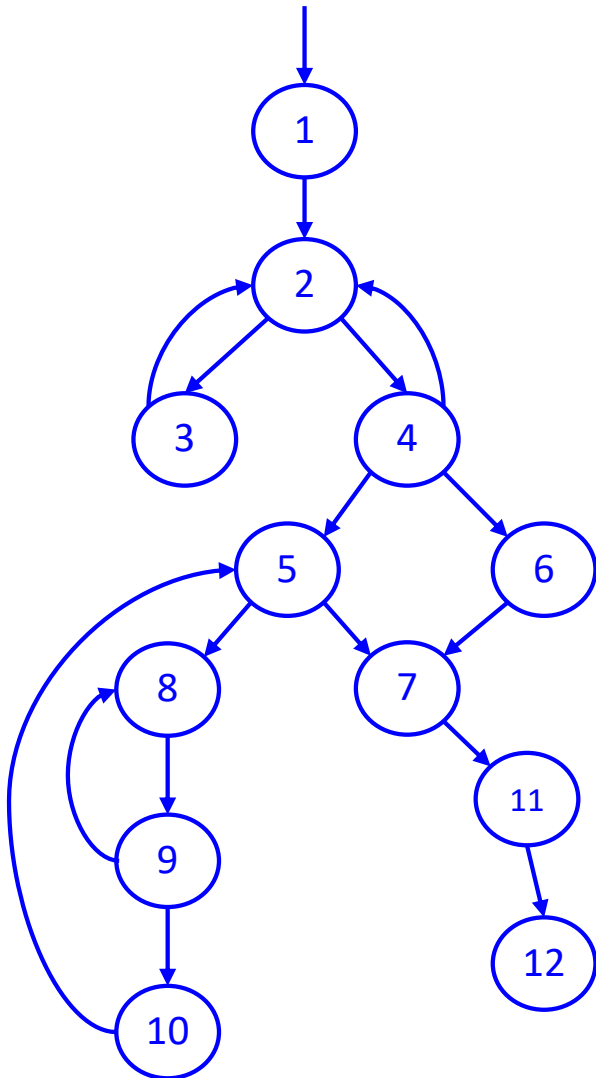


Node	D[node]	IDOM
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		
12		

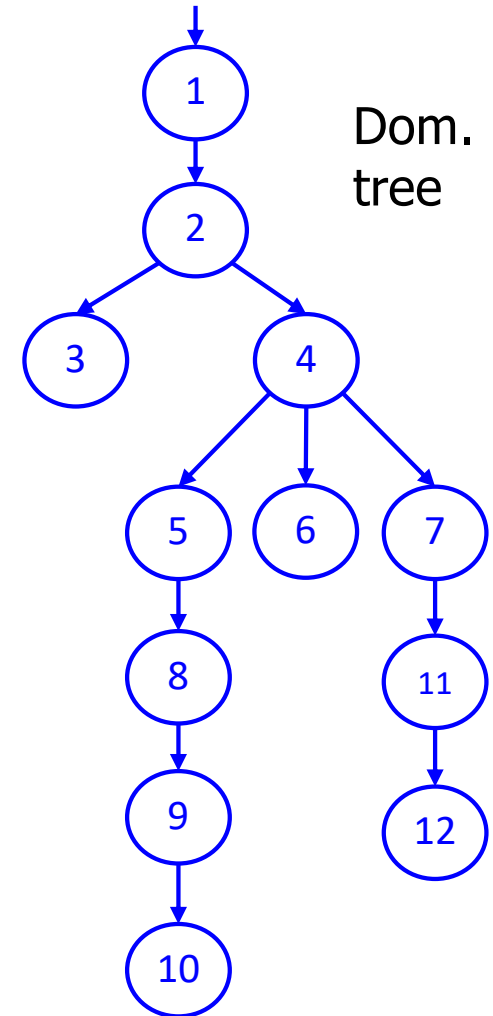
# Dominator Tree

- A *dominator tree* is constructed from a flowgraph by drawing an edge between every node  $n$  and the corresponding  $\text{idom}(n)$ 
  - This will be a tree. Why?

# Example



Node	D[node]	IDOM
1	1	--
2	1,2	1
3	1,2,3	2
4	1,2,4	2
5	1,2,4,5	4
6	1,2,4,6	4
7	1,2,4,7	4
8	1,2,4,5,8	5
9	1,2,4,5,8,9	8
10	1,2,4,5,8,9,10	9
11	1,2,4,7,11	7
12	1,2,4,7,11,12	11





# Back Edges & Loops

- A flow graph edge from a node  $n$  to a node  $h$  that dominates  $n$  is a *back edge*
  - In our example, from nodes 3 and 4 to 2; from 9 to 8; from 10 to 5
    - (And a node can have a back edge to itself! – although not in our example)
- For every back edge there is a corresponding subgraph of the flow graph that is a loop

# Natural Loops

- If  $h$  dominates  $n$  and  $n \rightarrow h$  is a back edge, then the *natural loop* of that back edge is the set of nodes  $x$  such that
  - $h$  dominates  $x$
  - There is a path from  $x$  to  $n$  not containing  $h$
- $h$  is the *header* of this loop
- Standard loop optimizations can cope with loops whether they are natural or not

# Inner Loops

- Inner loops are more important for optimization because most execution time is expected to be spent there
- If two loops share a header, it is hard to tell which one is “inner”
  - Common way to handle this is to merge natural loops with the same header
    - Resulting loop could well not be a “natural loop”

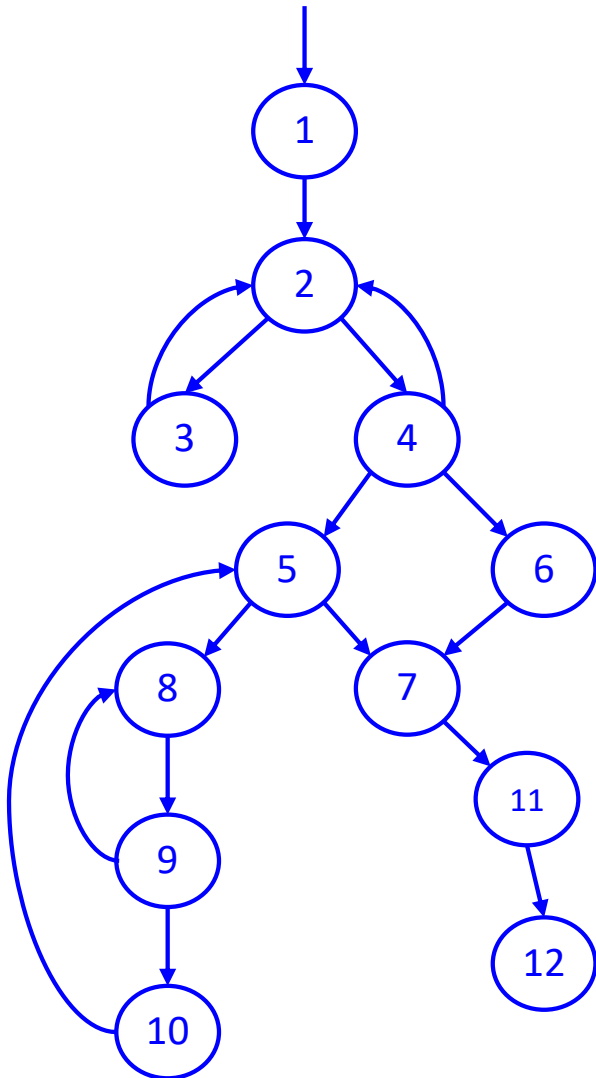
# Inner (nested) loops

- Suppose
  - A and B are loops with headers a and b
  - $a \neq b$
  - b is inside A
- Then
  - The nodes of B are a proper subset of A
  - B is nested in A, or B is the *inner loop*

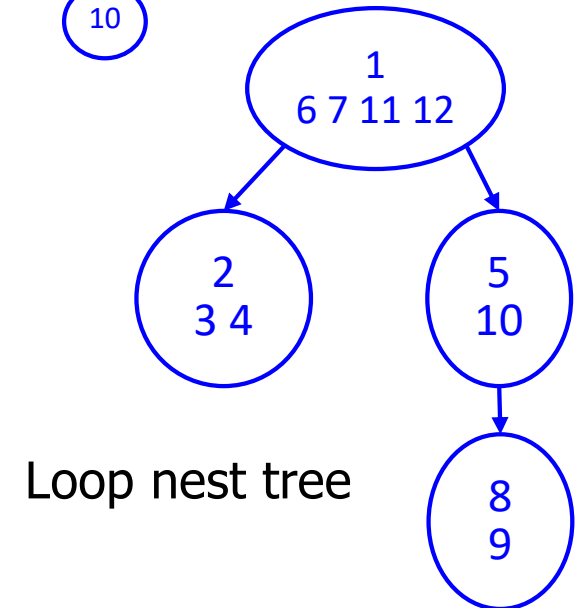
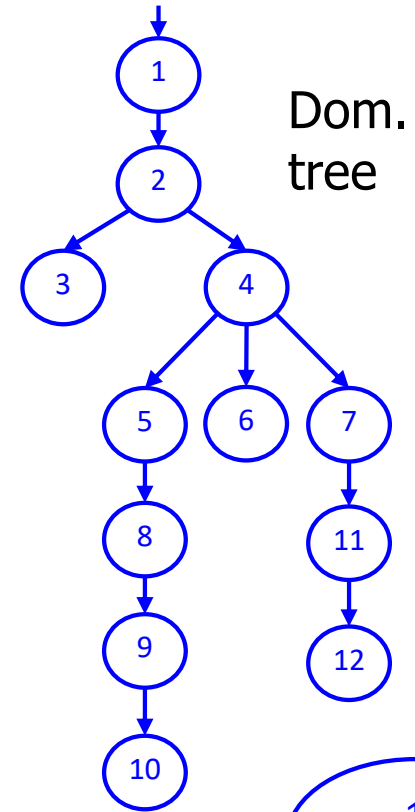
# Loop-Nest Tree

- Given a flow graph  $G$ 
  1. Compute the dominators of  $G$
  2. Construct the dominator tree
  3. Find the natural loops (thus all loop-header nodes)
  4. For each loop header  $h$ , merge all natural loops of  $h$  into a single loop:  $\text{loop}[h]$
  5. Construct a tree of loop headers s.t.  $h_1$  is above  $h_2$  if  $h_2$  is in  $\text{loop}[h_1]$

# Example



Node	DOM	IDOM
1	1	--
2	1,2	1
3	1,2,3	2
4	1,2,4	2
5	1,2,4,5	4
6	1,2,4,6	4
7	1,2,4,7	4
8	1,2,4,5,8	5
9	1,2,4,5,8,9	8
10	1,2,4,5,8,9,10	9
11	1,2,4,7,11	7
12	1,2,4,7,11,12	11



# Loop-Nest Tree details

- Leaves of this tree are the innermost loops
- Need to put all non-loop nodes somewhere
  - Convention: lump these into the root of the loop-nest tree

# Loop Preheader

- Often we need a place to park code right before the beginning of a loop
- Easy if there is a single node preceding the loop header  $h$ 
  - But this isn't the case in general
- So insert a *preheader* node  $p$ 
  - Include an edge  $p \rightarrow h$
  - Change all edges  $x \rightarrow h$  to be  $x \rightarrow p$



# Loop-Invariant Computations

- Idea: If  $x := a1 \text{ op } a2$  always does the same thing each time around the loop, we'd like to *hoist* it and do it once outside the loop
- But can't always tell if  $a1$  and  $a2$  will have the same value
  - Need a conservative (safe) approximation

# Loop-Invariant Computations

- $d: x := a_1 \text{ op } a_2$  is *loop-invariant* if for each  $a_i$ 
  - $a_i$  is a constant, or
  - All the definitions of  $a_i$  that reach  $d$  are outside the loop, or
  - Only one definition of  $a_i$  reaches  $d$ , and that definition is loop invariant
- Use this to build an iterative algorithm
  - Base cases: constants and operands defined outside the loop
  - Then: repeatedly find definitions with loop-invariant operands

# Hoisting

- Assume that  $d: x := a1 \text{ op } a2$  is loop invariant. We can hoist it to the loop preheader if
  - $d$  dominates all loop exits where  $x$  is live-out, and
  - There is only one definition of  $x$  in the loop, and
  - $x$  is not live-out of the loop preheader
- Need to modify this if  $a1 \text{ op } a2$  could have side effects or raise an exception

# Hoisting $t:=a \text{ op } b$ Possible?

- Example 1

L0:  $t := 0$

L1:  $i := i + 1$

d:  $t := a \text{ op } b$

$M[i] := t$

if  $i < n$  goto L1

L2:  $x := t$

- Example 2

L0:  $t := 0$

L1: if  $i \geq n$  goto L2

$i := i + 1$

d:  $t := a \text{ op } b$

$M[i] := t$

goto L1

L2:  $x := t$

# Hoisting $t:=a \text{ op } b$ Possible?

- Example 3

L0:  $t := 0$

L1:  $i := i + 1$

d:  $t := a \text{ op } b$

$M[i] := t$

$t := 0$

$M[j] := t$

if  $i < n$  goto L1

L2:  $x := t$

- Example 4

L0:  $t := 0$

L1:  $M[j] := t$

$i := i + 1$

d:  $t := a \text{ op } b$

$M[i] := t$

if  $i < n$  goto L1

L2:  $x := t$

# Hoisting $t:=a \text{ op } b$ Possible?

- Example 1

L0:  $t := 0$

L1:  $i := i + 1$

d:  $t := a \text{ op } b$

$M[i] := t$

if  $i < n$  goto L1

L2:  $x := t$

**OK**

- Example 2

L0:  $t := 0$

L1: if  $i \geq n$  goto L2

$i := i + 1$

d:  $t := a \text{ op } b$

$M[i] := t$

goto L1

L2:  $x := t$

Not OK – can't hoist because  
loop body isn't always executed

# Hoisting $t:=a \text{ op } b$ Possible?

- Example 3

L0:  $t := 0$

L1:  $i := i + 1$

d:  $t := a \text{ op } b$

$M[i] := t$

$t := 0$

$M[j] := t$

if  $i < n$  goto L1

L2:  $x := t$

Not OK – can't hoist because  
of multiple assignments to  $t$

- Example 4

L0:  $t := 0$

L1:  $M[j] := t$

$i := i + 1$

d:  $t := a \text{ op } b$

$M[i] := t$

if  $i < n$  goto L1

L2:  $x := t$

Not OK – can't hoist because  
 $t$  is used before assigned

# Induction Variables

- Suppose inside a loop
  - Variable  $i$  is incremented or decremented
  - Variable  $j$  is set to  $i * c + d$  where  $c$  and  $d$  are loop-invariant
- Then we can calculate  $j$ 's value without using  $i$ 
  - Whenever  $i$  is incremented by  $a$ , increment  $j$  by  $a * c$



# Example

- Original

s := 0

i := 0

L1: if  $i \geq n$  goto L2

j :=  $i * 4$

k :=  $j + a$

x :=  $M[k]$

s :=  $s + x$

i :=  $i + 1$

goto L1

L2:

- To optimize, do...

- Induction-variable analysis to discover  $i$  and  $j$  are related induction variables
- Strength reduction to replace  $*4$  with an addition
- Induction-variable elimination to replace  $i \geq n$
- Assorted copy propagation

# Result

- Original

```
s := 0
i := 0
L1: if i ≥ n goto L2
j := i*4
k := j+a
x := M[k]
s := s+x
i := i+1
goto L1
L2:
```

- Transformed

```
s := 0
k' = a
b = n*4
c = a+b
L1: if k' ≥ c goto L2
x := M[k']
s := s+x
k' := k'+4
goto L1
L2:
```

Details are somewhat messy – see your favorite compiler book

# Basic and Derived Induction Variables

- Variable  $i$  is a *basic induction variable* in loop  $L$  with header  $h$  if the only definitions of  $i$  in  $L$  have the form  $i := i \pm c$  where  $c$  is loop invariant
- Variable  $k$  is a *derived induction variable* in  $L$  if:
  - There is only one definition of  $k$  in  $L$  of the form  $k := j * c$  or  $k := j + d$  where  $j$  is an induction variable and  $c, d$  are loop-invariant, *and*
  - if  $j$  is a derived variable in the family of  $i$ , then:
    - The only definition of  $j$  that reaches  $k$  is the one in the loop, *and*
    - there is no definition of  $i$  on any path between the definition of  $j$  and the definition of  $k$

# Optimizing Induction Variables

- Strength reduction: if a derived induction variable is defined with  $j:=i*c$ , try to replace it with an addition inside the loop
- Elimination: after strength reduction some induction variables are not used or are only compared to loop-invariant variables; delete them
- Rewrite comparisons: If a variable is used only in comparisons against loop-invariant variables and in its own definition, modify the comparison to use a related induction variable

# Loop Unrolling

- If the body of a loop is small, much of the time is spent in the “increment and test” code
- Idea: reduce overhead by *unrolling* – put two or more copies of the loop body inside the loop

# Loop Unrolling

- Basic idea: Given loop  $L$  with header node  $h$  and back edges  $s_i \rightarrow h$ 
  1. Copy the nodes to make loop  $L'$  with header  $h'$  and back edges  $s_i' \rightarrow h'$
  2. Change all back edges in  $L$  from  $s_i \rightarrow h$  to  $s_i \rightarrow h'$
  3. Change all back edges in  $L'$  from  $s_i' \rightarrow h'$  to  $s_i' \rightarrow h$

# Unrolling Algorithm Results

- Before

L1:  $x := M[i]$

$s := s + x$

$i := i + 4$

if  $i < n$  goto L1 else L2

L2:

- After

L1:  $x := M[i]$

$s := s + x$

$i := i + 4$

if  $i < n$  goto L1' else L2

L1':  $x := M[i]$

$s := s + x$

$i := i + 4$

if  $i < n$  goto L1 else L2

L2:

# Hmmmm....

- Not so great – just code bloat
- But: use induction variables and various loop transformations to clean up



# After Some Optimizations

- Before

L1:  $x := M[i]$

$s := s + x$

$i := i + 4$

if  $i < n$  goto L1' else L2

L1':  $x := M[i]$

$s := s + x$

$i := i + 4$

if  $i < n$  goto L1 else L2

L2:

- After

L1:  $x := M[i]$

$s := s + x$

$x := M[i+4]$

$s := s + x$

$i := i + 8$

if  $i < n$  goto L1 else L2

L2:

# Still Broken...

- But in a different, better(?) way
- Good code, but only correct if original number of loop iterations was even
- Fix: add an epilogue to handle the “odd” leftover iteration

# Fixed

- Before

```
L1: x := M[i]
    s := s + x
    x := M[i+4]
    s := s + x
    i := i + 8
    if i < n goto L1 else L2
L2:
```

- After

```
    if i < n - 8 goto L1 else L2
L1: x := M[i]
    s := s + x
    x := M[i+4]
    s := s + x
    i := i + 8
    if i < n - 8 goto L1 else L2
L2: x := M[i]
    s := s + x
    i := i + 4
    if i < n goto L2 else L3
L3:
```

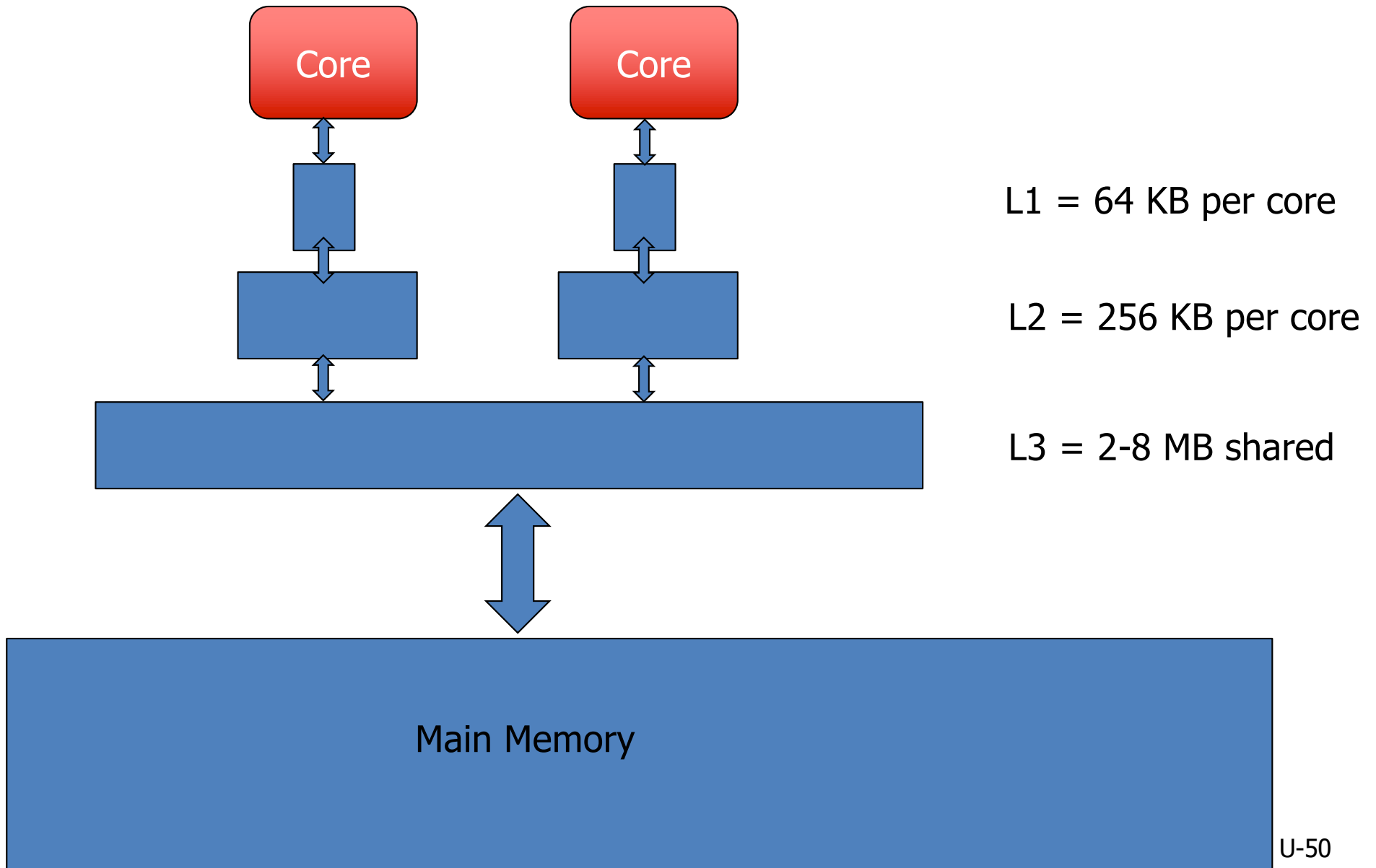
# Postscript

- This example only unrolls the loop by a factor of 2
- More typically, unroll by a factor of  $K$ 
  - Then need an epilogue that is a loop like the original that iterates up to  $K-1$  times

# Memory Hierarchies

- One of the great triumphs of computer design
- Effect is a large, fast memory
- Reality is a series of progressively larger, slower, cheaper stores, with frequently accessed data automatically staged to faster storage (cache, main storage, disk)
- Programmer/compiler typically treats it as one large store. (but not always the best idea)
- Hardware maintains cache coherency – most of the time

# Intel Haswell Caches (typical example)



# Just How Slow *is* Operand Access?

- Instruction ~5 per cycle
- Register 1 cycle
- L1 CACHE ~4 cycles
- L2 CACHE ~10 cycles
- L3 CACHE (unshared line) ~40 cycles
- DRAM ~100 ns

# Implications

- CPU speed increases have out-paced increases in memory access times
- Memory access now often determines overall execution speed
- “Instruction count” is not the only performance metric for optimization



# Memory Issues

- Byte load/store is often slower than whole (physical) word load/store
  - Unaligned access is often extremely slow
- **Temporal locality**: accesses to recently accessed data will usually find it in the (fast) cache
- **Spatial locality**: accesses to data near recently used data will usually be fast
  - “near” = in the same cache block
- But – alternating accesses to blocks that map to the same cache block will cause thrashing

# Data Alignment

- Data objects (structs) often are similar in size to a cache block ( $\approx 64$  bytes)
  - $\therefore$  Better if objects don't span blocks
- Some strategies
  - Allocate objects sequentially; bump to next block boundary if useful
  - Allocate objects of same common size in separate pools (all size-2, size-4, etc.)
- Tradeoff: speed for some wasted space

# Instruction Alignment

- Align frequently executed basic blocks on cache boundaries (or avoid spanning cache blocks)
- Branch targets (particularly loops) may be faster if they start on a cache line boundary
  - Often see multi-byte nops in optimized code as padding to align loop headers
  - How much depends on architecture (typical 16 or 32 bytes)
- Try to move infrequent code (startup, exceptions) away from hot code
- Optimizing compiler can perform basic-block ordering

# Loop Interchange

- Watch for bad cache patterns in inner loops; rearrange if possible

- Example

```
for (i = 0; i < m; i++)
```

```
  for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
```

```
    for (k = 0; k < p; k++)
```

```
      a[i,k,j] = b[i,j-1,k] + b[i,j,k] + b[i,j+1,k]
```

- $b[i,j+1,k]$  is reused in the next two iterations, but will have been flushed from the cache by the  $k$  loop

# Loop Interchange

- Solution for this example: interchange j and k loops

```
for (i = 0; i < m; i++)
```

```
  for (k = 0; k < p; k++)
```

```
    for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
```

```
      a[i,k,j] = b[i,j-1,k] + b[i,j,k] + b[i,j+1,k]
```

- Now  $b[i,j+1,k]$  will be used three times on each cache load
- Safe here because loop iterations are independent

# Loop Interchange

- Need to construct a data-dependency graph showing information flow between loop iterations
- For example, iteration  $(j,k)$  depends on iteration  $(j',k')$  if  $(j',k')$  computes values used in  $(j,k)$  or stores values overwritten by  $(j,k)$ 
  - If there is a dependency and loops are interchanged, we could get different results – so can't do it

# Blocking

- Consider matrix multiply

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
  for (j = 0; j < n; j++) {
    c[i,j] = 0.0;
    for (k = 0; k < n; k++)
      c[i,j] = c[i,j] + a[i,k]*b[k,j]
  }
```
- If a, b fit in the cache together, great!
- If they don't, then every  $b[k,j]$  reference will be a cache miss
- Loop interchange ( $i \leftrightarrow j$ ) won't help; then every  $a[i,k]$  reference would be a miss

# Blocking

- Solution: reuse rows of A and columns of B while they are still in the cache
- Assume the cache can hold  $2 \cdot c \cdot n$  matrix elements ( $1 < c < n$ )
- Calculate  $c \times c$  blocks of C using c rows of A and c columns of B



# Blocking

- Calculating  $c \times c$  blocks of  $C$   
for ( $i = i_0; i < i_0+c; i++$ )  
  for ( $j = j_0; j < j_0+c; j++$ ) {  
     $c[i,j] = 0.0;$   
    for ( $k = 0; k < n; k++$ )  
       $c[i,j] = c[i,j] + a[i,k]*b[k,j]$   
  }  
}

# Blocking

- Then nest this inside loops that calculate successive  $c \times c$  blocks

```
for (i0 = 0; i0 < n; i0+=c)
  for (j0 = 0; j0 < n; j0+=c)
    for (i = i0; i < i0+c; i++)
      for (j = j0; j < j0+c; j++) {
        c[i,j] = 0.0;
        for (k = 0; k < n; k++)
          c[i,j] = c[i,j] + a[i,k]*b[k,j]
      }
}
```

# Parallelizing Code

- There is a large literature about how to rearrange loops for better locality and to detect parallelism
- Some starting points
  - Latest edition of *Dragon book*, ch. 11
  - Allen & Kennedy *Optimizing Compilers for Modern Architectures*
  - Wolfe, *High-Performance Compilers for Parallel Computing*