CprE 488 – Embedded Systems Design

Lecture 6 – Software Optimization

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If you lie to the compiler, it will get its revenge. – Henry Spencer

A Motivating Example

• Any performance guesses?

	for (i=0; i <n; i++)<="" th=""><th>-00</th><th>-03</th></n;>	-00	-03		
a)	for $(j=0; jA[i][j] = 0;$	~1.40s	~0.84s		
b)	<pre>for (i=0; i<n; (j="0;" a[j][i]="0;</pre" for="" i++)="" j++)="" j<n;=""></n;></pre>	~21.8s	~21.8s		
c)	<pre>p = &A[0][0]; for (i=0; i<n*n; i++)<br="">*p++ = 0;</n*n;></pre>	~1.59s	~0.83s		
d)	<pre>memset((void*)&A[0][0], 0, N*N*sizeof(int));</pre>	~0.83s	~0.80s		
Accumptions					

Assumptions:

- -N = 20000 (so 400,000,000 integers)
- gcc 4.9.2 running on an Intel Core i7-6600U CPU @ 2.6 GHz

Compilers and Abstraction

- Compilers make abstraction affordable:
 - Cost of executing code should reflect the underlying work rather than the way the programmer chose to write it
 - Change in expression should bring small performance change

```
struct point {
  int x; int y;
}
void Padd(struct point p, struct point q, struct point *r) {
  r \rightarrow x = p \cdot x + q \cdot x;
  r \rightarrow y = p.y + q.y;
}
int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) {
  struct point p1, p2, p3;
  p1.x = 1; p1.y = 1;
  p2.x = 2; p2.y = 2;
                                     Example © Keith Cooper, Rice University
  Padd(p1, p2, &p3);
  printf("Result is <%d,%d>.\n", p3.x, p3.y);
}
```

Compilers and Abstraction (cont.)

_main: L5:

> %ebx popl movl \$1, -16(%ebp) \$1, -12(%ebp) movl \$2, -24(%ebp) movl Assignments to p1 and p2 \$2, -20(%ebp) movl -32(%ebp), %eax leal %eax, 16(%esp) movl -24(%ebp), %eax movl -20(%ebp), %edx movl movl %eax, 8(%esp) %edx, 12(%esp) movl Setup for call to PAdd -16(%ebp), %eax movl -12(%ebp), %edx movl %eax, (%esp) movl %edx, 4(%esp) movl call PAdd -28(%ebp), %eax movl -32(%ebp), %edx movl %eax, 8(%esp) movl %edx, 4(%esp) movl Setup for call to printf LCO-"L000000001\$pb"(%ebx), %eax leal %eax, (%esp) movl L printf\$stub call addl \$68, %esp popl %ebx leave Address calculation for format ret string in printf call

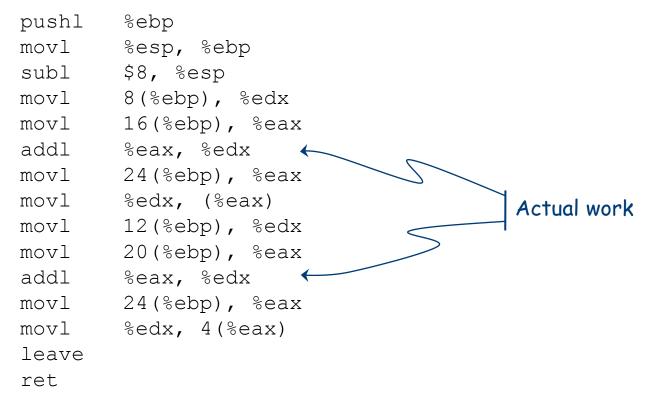
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Compilers and Abstraction (cont.)

_PAdd:



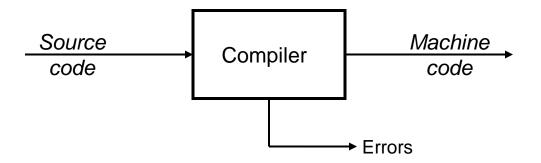
- The code does a lot of work to execute two add instructions (factor of 10 in overhead)
- Code optimization (careful compile-time reasoning & transformation) can make matters better

This Week's Topic

- The compiler's role in software optimization:
 - Early optimizations
 - Redundancy elimination
 - Loop restructuring
 - Instruction scheduling
 - Low-level optimizations
- Data representation
- Case study: MP-2 color space conversion
- Reading:
 - Wolf chapter 5

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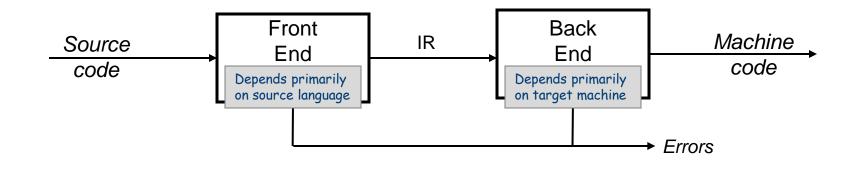
High-Level View of a Compiler



Implications

- Must recognize legal (and illegal) programs
- Must generate correct code
- Must manage storage of all variables (and code)
- Must agree with OS & linker on format for object code

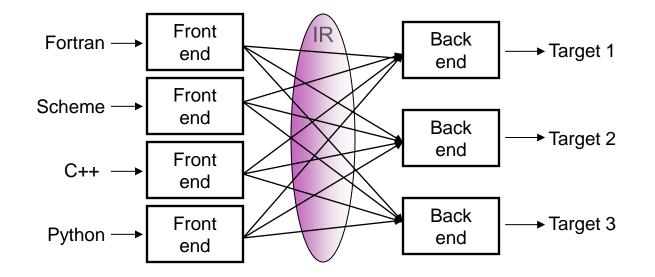
Traditional Two-Pass Compiler



Implications

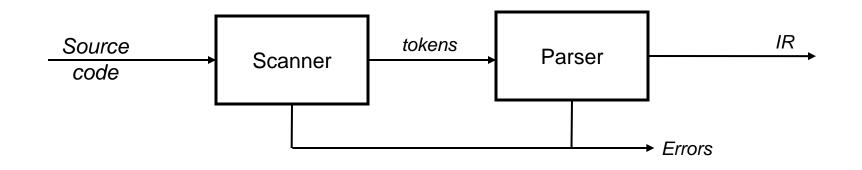
- Use an intermediate representation (IR)
- Front end maps legal source code into IR
- Back end maps IR into target machine code
- Potentially multiple front ends & multiple passes

A Common Fallacy



Can we build $n \times m$ compilers with n + m components?

- Must encode all language specific knowledge in each front end
- Must encode all features in a single IR (e.g. gcc rtl or llvm ir)
- Must encode all target specific knowledge in each back end
- Successful in systems with assembly level (or lower) IRs

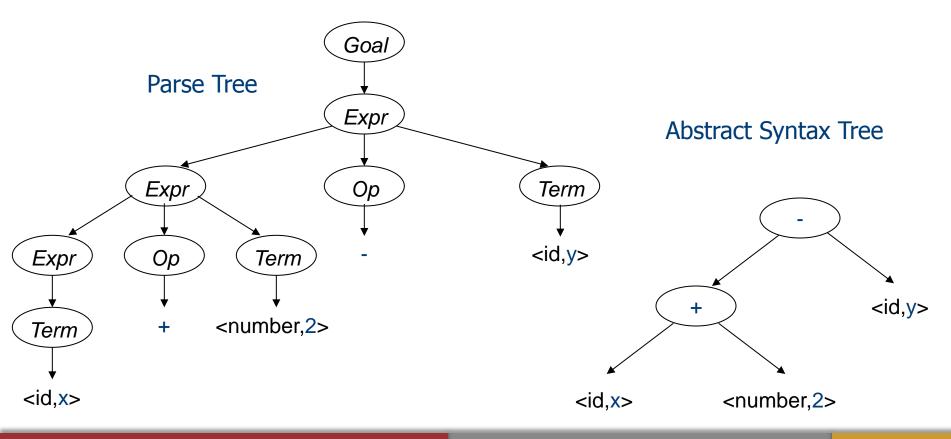


Responsibilities

- Recognize legal (and illegal) programs
- Report errors in a useful way
- Produce IR and preliminary storage map
- Shape the code for the rest of the compiler
- Much of front end construction can be automated

The Front End (cont.)

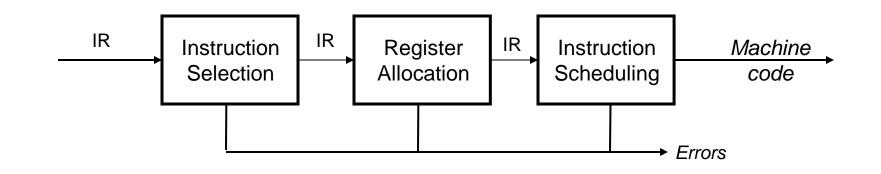
- The parser output can be represented by a parse tree or an abstract syntax tree
 - Both trees represent expression: x + 2 y



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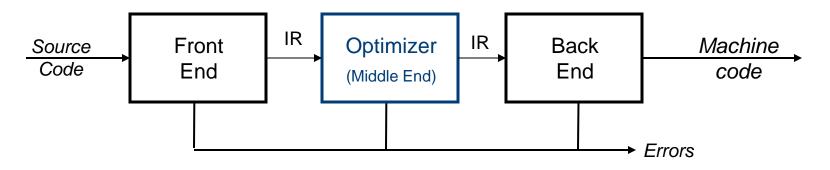
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Responsibilities

- Translate IR into target machine code
- Choose instructions to implement each IR operation
- Decide which values to keep in registers
- Ensure conformance with system interfaces

Traditional Three-Part Compiler

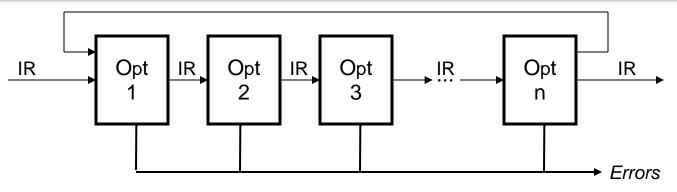


Code Improvement (or *Optimization*)

- Analyzes IR and rewrites (or *transforms*) IR
- Primary goal is to reduce running time of the compiled code
 - May also improve space, power consumption, ...
- Must preserve "meaning" of the code
 - Measured by values of named variables
- Note that "optimization" is a misnomer optimizations generally improve performance, although this is not typically guaranteed

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The Optimizer



Modern optimizers are structured as a series of passes

Typical Transformations

- Discover & propagate some constant value
- Move a computation to a less frequently executed place
- Specialize some computation based on context
- Discover a redundant computation & remove it
- Remove useless or unreachable code
- Encode an idiom in some particularly efficient form

Types of (Classical) Optimizations

- Operation-level 1 operation in isolation
 - Constant folding, strength reduction
 - Dead code elimination (global, but 1 op at a time)
- Local pairs of operations in same basic block
- Global again pairs of operations
 - But, operations in different basic blocks
 - More advanced dataflow analysis necessary here
- Loop body of a loop
- Interprocedural look across multiple function calls

Constant Folding

- Also known as constant-expression evaluation
- Simplify operation based on values of source operands
 - Constant propagation creates opportunities for this
- All constant operands
 - Evaluate the op, replace with a move
 - $r1 = 3 * 4 \rightarrow r1 = 12$
 - $r1 = 3 / 0 \rightarrow ???$ Don't evaluate excepting ops !, what about FP?
 - Evaluate conditional branch, replace with branch or nop
 - if (1 < 2) goto BB2 \rightarrow branch BB2
 - if (1 > 2) goto BB2 \rightarrow convert to a nop
- Algebraic identities

 $-r1 = r2 + 0, r2 - 0, r2 | 0, r2 \land 0, r2 << 0, r2 >> 0 \rightarrow r1 = r2$

- $r1 = 0 * r2, 0 / r2, 0 \& r2 \rightarrow r1 = 0$
- $r1 = r2 * 1, r2 / 1 \rightarrow r1 = r2$

Strength Reduction

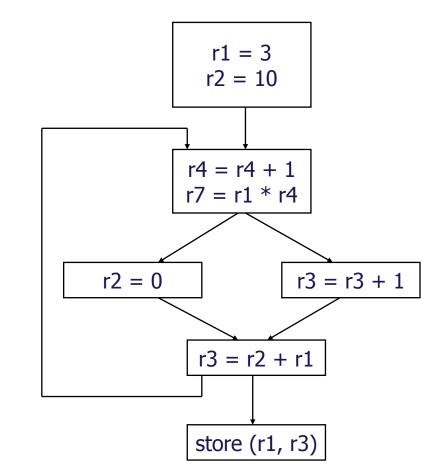
- Replace expensive ops with cheaper ones
 - Constant propagation creates opportunities for this
- Power of 2 constants
 - Mult by power of 2: $r1 = r2 * 8 \rightarrow r1 = r2 << 3$
 - Div by power of 2: $r1 = r2 / 4 \rightarrow r1 = r2 >> 2$
 - Rem by power of 2: $r1 = r2 \text{ REM } 16 \rightarrow r1 = r2 \& 15$
- More exotic
 - Replace multiply by constant by sequence of shift and adds/subs
 - r1 = r2 * 6
 - r100 = r2 << 2; r101 = r2 << 1; r1 = r100 + r101
 - r1 = r2 * 7

- r100 = r2 << 3; r1 = r100 - r2

• Can be ISA dependent (remember ARM examples)

Dead Code Elimination

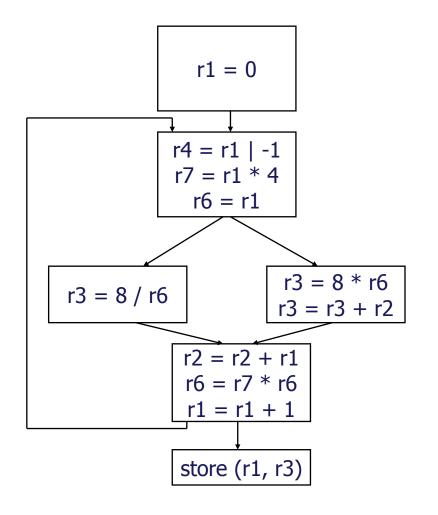
- Remove any operation whose result is never consumed
- Rules
 - X can be deleted
 - no stores or branches
 - DU chain empty or dest not live
- This misses some dead code!!
 - Especially in loops
 - Critical operation
 - store or branch operation
 - Any operation that does not directly or indirectly feed a critical operation is dead
 - Trace UD chains backwards from critical operations
 - Any op not visited is dead



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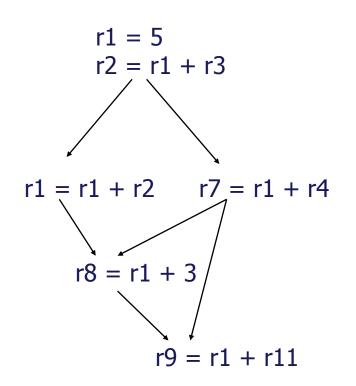
EX-06.1: Early Optimizations

- Optimize this block of code, using:
 - Constant folding
 - Strength reduction
 - Dead code elimination



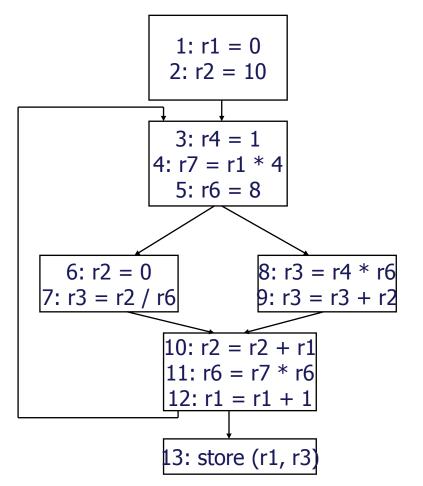
Constant Propagation

- Forward propagation of moves of the form
 - rx = L (where L is a literal)
 - Maximally propagate
 - Assume no instruction encoding restrictions
- When is it legal?
 - SRC: Literal is a hard coded constant, so never a problem
 - DEST: Must be available
 - Guaranteed to reach
 - May reach not good enough



EX-06.2: Constant Propagation

- Optimize this block of code, using:
 - Constant propagation
 - Constant folding
 - Strength reduction
 - Dead code elimination



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Local Common Subexpression Elimination

• Eliminate recomputation of an expression

```
- X: r1 = r2 * r3
- \rightarrow r100 = r1
```

- Y: r4 = r2 * r3 → r4 = r100
- Benefits
 - Reduce work
 - Moves can get copy propagated
- Rules (ops X and Y)
 - X and Y have the same opcode
 - src(X) = src(Y), for all srcs
 - for all srcs(X) no defs of srci in [X ... Y)
 - if X is a load, then there is no store that may write to address(X) between X and Y

r1 = r2 + r3
r4 = r4 +1
r1 = 6
r6 = r2 + r3
r2 = r1 -1
r6 = r4 + 1
r7 = r2 + r3
r = r Z + r 3

EX-06.3: Subexpression Elimination

• Optimize this block of code, using:

- Constant propagation
- Constant folding
- Strength reduction
- Dead code elimination
- Common subexpression elimination

```
r1 = 9
    r4 = 4
    r5 = 0
    r6 = 16
 r2 = r3 * r4
 r8 = r2 + r5
    r9 = r3
 r7 = load(r2)
  r5 = r9 * r4
 r3 = load(r2)
 r10 = r3 / r6
 store (r8, r7)
   r11 = r2
r12 = load(r11)
 store(r12, r3)
```

Loop Optimizations

- Arguably the most important set of optimizations (why?)
- Many optimizations are possible
 - Loop invariant code motion
 - Global variable migration
 - Induction variable optimizations
 - Loop restructuring (unrolling, tiling, etc.)

Loop Unswitching

Removes loop independent conditionals from a loop

```
for i=1 to N do

for j=2 to N do

if T[i] > 0 then

A[i,j] = A[i, j-1]^*T[i] + B[i]

else

A[i,j] = 0.0

endif

endfor

endfor
```

```
for i=1 to N do

if T[i] > 0 then

for j=2 to N do

A[i,j] = A[i, j-1]^*T[i] + B[i]

endfor

else

for j=2 to N do

A[i,j] = 0.0

endfor

endif

endif
```

- Advantage: reduces the frequency of execution of the conditional statement
- Disadvantages: Loop structure is more complex, code size expansion

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Loop Peeling

Separates the first (or last) iteration of the loop

for i=1 to N do A[i] = (X+Y)*B[i] endfor

```
if N >= 1 then
    A[1] = (X+Y)*B[1]
    for j=2 to N do
        A[j] = (X+Y)*B[j]
    endfor
endif
```

- Advantage: Used to enable loop fusion or remove conditionals on the index variable from inside the loop. Allows execution of loop invariant code only in the first iteration
- Disadvantages: Code size expansion

Index Set Splitting

Divides the index into two portions

```
for i=1 to 100 do

A[i] = B[i] + C[i]

if i > 10 then

D[i] = A[i] + A[i-10]

endif

endfor
```

```
for i=1 to 10 do

A[i] = B[i] + C[i]

endfor

for i=11 to 100 do

A[i] = B[i] + C[i]

D[i] = A[i] + A[i-10]

endfor
```

- Advantage: Used to enable loop fusion or remove conditionals on the index variable from inside the loop. Can remove conditionals that test index variables.
- Disadvantages: Code size expansion

Scalar Expansion

 Breaks anti-dependence relations by expanding, or promoting a scalar into an array

> for i=1 to N do T = A[i] + B[i] C[i] = T + 1/Tendfor

- Advantage: Eliminates anti-dependences and output dependences
- Disadvantages: In nested loops the size of the array might be prohibitive

Loop Fusion

• Takes two adjacent loops and generates a single loop

(1) for i=1 to N do
(2)
$$A[i] = B[i] + 1$$

(3) endfor
(4) for i=1 to N do
(5) $C[i] = A[i] / 2$
(6) endfor
(7) for i=1 to N do
(8) $D[i] = 1 / C[i+1]$
(9) endfor

(1) for i=1 to N do
(2) A[i] = B[i] + 1
(5) C[i] = A[i] / 2
(8) D[i] = 1 / C[i+1]
(9) endfor

- Advantage: Eliminates loop iteration code
- Disadvantages: Potential locality implications, anything else????

Loop Fusion (cont.)

 To be legal, a loop transformation must preserve all the data dependencies of the original loop(s)

(1) for i=1 to N do
(2)
$$A[i] = B[i] + 1$$

(3) endfor
(4) for i=1 to N do
(5) $C[i] = A[i] / 2$
(6) endfor
(7) for i=1 to N do
(8) $D[i] = 1 / C[i+1]$
(9) endfor

The original loop has the flow dependencies: $\begin{array}{c} S_2 \ \delta^f \ S_5 \\ S_5 \ \delta^f \ S_8 \end{array}$

What are the dependences in the fused loop?

```
(1) for i=1 to N do

(2) A[i] = B[i] + 1

(5) C[i] = A[i] / 2

(8) D[i] = 1 / C[i+1]

(9) endfor
```

Loop Fission (Loop Distribution)

- Breaks a loop into multiple smaller loops
 - (1) for i=1 to N do (2) A[i] = A[i] + B[i-1](3) B[i] = C[i-1]*X + Z(4) C[i] = 1/B[i](5) D[i] = sqrt(C[i])(6) endfor
- (1) for ib=0 to N-1 do
- (3) $B[ib+1] = C[ib]^*X + Z$
- (4) C[ib+1] = 1/B[ib+1]
- (6) endfor
- (1) for ib=0 to N-1 do
- (2) A[ib+1] = A[ib+1] + B[ib]
- (6) endfor
- (1) for ib=0 to N-1 do
- (5) D[ib+1] = sqrt(C[ib+1])
- (6) endfor
- (1) i = N+1
- Advantage: can improve cache use in machines with very small caches. Can be required for other transformations, such as loop interchanging.
- Disadvantages: Code size increase

Loop Interchange

• Reverses the order of nested loops

(1) for i=1 to N do
(2) for j=2 to M do
(3) A[i,j] = A[i,j-1] + B[i,j]
(4) endfor
(5) endfor

- Advantage: can reduce the startup cost of the innermost loop. Can enable vectorization
- Disadvantages: can change the locality of memory references

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Loop Unrolling

- Replicates the loop body
- Benefits:
 - Reduces loop overhead
 - Increased ILP (esp. VLIW)
 - Improved locality (consecutive elements)

```
do i = 2, n-1
a[i] = a[i] + a[i-1] * a[i+1]
end do
```

do i = 1, n-2, 2 a[i] = a[i] + a[i-1] * a[i+1] a[i+1] = a[i+1] + a[i] * a[i+2]end do if (mod(n-2,2) = 1) then a[n-1] = a[n-1] + a[n-2] * a[n]end if

Induction Variable Elimination

 Frees the register used by the variable, reduces the number of operations in the loop framework

```
for(i = 0; i < n; i++) {
a[i] = a[i] + c;
}
```

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Loop Invariant Code Motion

- A specific case of code hoisting
- Needs a register to hold the invariant value
 - Ex: multi-dim. indices, pointers, structures

```
do i = 1, n
a[i] = a[i] + sqrt(x)
end do
```

 $if (n > 0) C = sqrt(x) \\ do i = 1, n \\ a[i] = a[i] + C \\ end do$

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Strip Mining

end do

- Adjusts the granularity of an operation
 - usually for vectorization
 - also controlling array size, grouping operations
- Often requires other transforms first

TN = (n/64)*64do TI = 1, TN, 64 do i = 1, na[TI:TI+63] = a[TI:TI+63] + ca[i] = a[i] + cend do do i= TN+1, n a[i] = a[i] + cend do

Loop Tiling

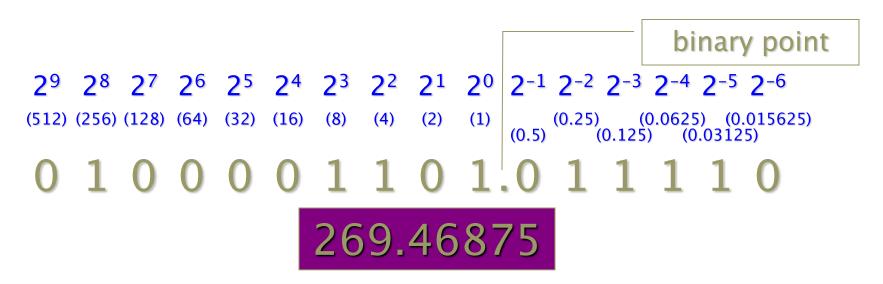
- Multidimensional specialization of strip mining
- Goal: to improve cache reuse
- Adjacent loops can be tiled if they can be interchanged

do i = 1, n do j = 1, n a[i,j] = b[j,i] end do end do

```
do TI = 1, n, 64
   do TJ = 1, n, 64
       do i = TI, min(TI+63, n)
          do j = TJ, min(TJ+63, n)
              a[i,j] = b[j,i]
          end do
       end do
   end do
end do
```

Fixed Point Representation

- Insert implicit "binary point" between two bits
- Bits to left of point have value ≥ 1
- Bits to right of point have value < 1



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Converting to Fixed point

- 1. Take fractional part and multiply by 2
- 2. If the result is > 1, then answer is 1, if 0 then answer is 0
- 3. Start again with the remaining decimal part, until you get an answer of 0

• E.g.

Convert 0.75 to fixed point

0.75 * 2	= 1.5	Use 1
0.5 * 2	= 1.0	Use 1

Ans: 0.75 in Decimal = 0.11 in binary

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Fixed Point Pros and Cons

• Pros – simplicity:

- The same hardware that does integer arithmetic can do fixed point arithmetic
- In fact, the programmer can use ints with an implicit fixed point (ints are just fixed point numbers with the binary point to the right of b₀)
- Cons there is no good way to pick where the fixed point should be
 - Sometimes you need range, sometimes you need precision. The more you have of one, the less of the other
 - Can only exactly represent numbers of the form $x/2^k$
 - Other rational numbers have repeating bit representations

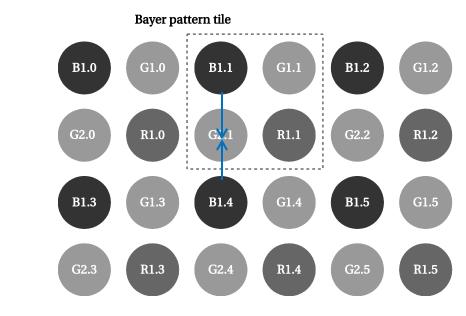
Value	Representation
1/3	0.0101010101[01] ₂
1/5	$0.001100110011[0011]{2}$
1/10	$0.0001100110011[0011]{2}$

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Putting it All Together: MP-2 Optimization



• Color filter array:

• Color space conversion:

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y & Cb & Cr \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.183 & 0.614 & 0.062 \\ -0.101 & -0.338 & 0.439 \\ 0.439 & -0.399 & -0.040 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} R \\ G \\ B \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 16 \\ 128 \\ 128 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Chroma resampling:
 - Output pattern Cb-Y, Cr-Y, Cb-Y, Cr-Y, ...

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