A Dictionary Construction Technique for Code Compression Systems with Echo Instructions

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Abstract

Dictionary compression mechanisms identify redundant sequences of instructions that occur in a program. The sequences are extracted and copied to a dictionary. Each sequence is then replaced with a codeword that acts as an index into the dictionary, thereby enabling decompression of the program at runtime. The problem of optimally organizing a dictionary consisting solely of redundant sequences in order to maximize compression has long been known to be NP-Complete [23]. This paper addresses the problem of dictionary construction when redundant code fragments are represented as *Data Flow Graphs* (*DFGs*) rather than linear sequences of instructions. Since there are generally multiple legal schedules for a given DFG *G*, a compiler must determine a schedule for *G* so that other DFGs that are subgraphs of *G* can reference some substring of *G*'s final code sequence. This reduces the size of the dictionary, and in turn, the size of the compressed program. Our experiments with 10 MediaBench [18] applications yielded reductions in dictionary size ranging from 21.14% to 29.76% compared to a naïve approach.

Categories and Subject Descriptors C.3 [**Special-Purpose and Application-Based Systems**]: Real-time and embedded systems; D.3.4 [**Processors**]: Compilers

General Terms Algorithms, Performance, Design.

Keywords (Dictionary) Compression, Scheduling, Echo Instructions

1. Introduction

Dictionary compression methods [19][21] identify and extract repeated sequences of instructions within a program. A single instance of each sequence is placed into a dictionary; all instances of the sequence in the program are replaced with a codeword that points into the dictionary. When a codeword is encountered during program execution, control is transferred to the dictionary and the sequence is executed; afterward, control is transferred to the instruction following the codeword in the original program.

Compiler support for dictionary compression has mostly focused on identifying redundant code sequences in a post-compilation pass, often at link time. Little attention has been paid to the construction and layout of code within the dictionary, despite the fact that it has long been known that the problem is NP-Complete [23]. It is well known that two code sequences, one of which is a contiguous subsequence of the other, can share the same dictionary entry. For example, the sequence ABC, if entered into a dictionary, includes the contiguous subsequences AB and BC.

This paper develops a compiler technique for laying out the code within the dictionary. A dynamic programming heuristic is presented to perform dictionary construction targeting embedded systems with *Echo Instructions* [10][17][3], an emerging dictionary compression technology that provides low-overhead decompression at runtime with minimal hardware cost. Echo instructions (or some variant thereof) are a likely candidate for inclusion in the next generation of embedded architectures due to their low cost and wide applicability.

In our compiler, code sequences are represented as DFGs rather than sequences of instructions. This eliminates the initial/default schedule of each basic block in the program as a factor that may affect the quality of compression. Scheduling constraints for large DFGs are established in order to maximize the number of smaller DFGs that can reference the dictionary entry for the larger one.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses related work. Section 3 summarizes our technique for extracting identical code sequences along with extensions for dictionary organization. Section 4 details our dictionary construction algorithm. Section 5 presents experimental results. Section 6 addresses limitations and future work. Section 7 concludes the paper.

2. Related Work

The benefits associated with executing compressed programs have been well-documented over the past fifteen years. Compressed programs reduce the silicon requirements for storing a program in an on-chip ROM in an embedded system; another notable benefit is reduced power consumption [2]; finally, performance increases may result from improved I-cache utilization [4][16]. Here, we focus on the most influential techniques from a historical perspective, and those that are most relevant to our work.

2.1 Pre-Cache Decompression

Pre-cache decompression places the decompression circuitry on the cache refill path. When an I-cache miss occurs, a compressed cache block is fetched from main memory, decompressed, and then loaded into the cache. The seminal work in this field was the *Compressed Code RISC Processor* (*CCRP*) [24][20]; IBM commercialized this approach with CodePack [14][19], a CCRP-influenced decompressor for the PowerPC architecture.

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2.2 Variable Bitwidth Instruction Formats

By the early 1990s, RISC had emerged as the dominant paradigm for general purpose computing. RISC processors typically had a fixed 32-bit instruction format. 16-bit instruction formats—which sacrificed the number of addressable registers, and the bitwidth of immediate operands—were introduced to reduce code size. The number of raw instructions typically increased by 15-20%; however, overall code size was reduced significantly more. Commercial examples include Arm/Thumb [1] and MIPS16 [15].

2.3 Procedural Abstraction

Procedural abstraction replaces redundant code sequences with procedure calls. This requires no hardware support, but the benefits are limited by procedure call overhead—parameter passing, saving/restoring registers, allocating and deallocating the stack frame, etc. To date, the most widely recognized approaches for procedural abstraction are linear substring matching [11] coupled with register renaming [6][8][9], and local reordering of instructions [8][17], parameterization [7], and predication [17]. More recently, this optimization has been performed prior to register allocation using isomorphism or some variant thereof [22][3].

De Sutter et al. [8] developed a set of abstraction techniques for programs written in C++, where redundancy may arise due to class inheritance and template instantiation. Basic blocks having a similar *fingerprint* are identified, and register renaming is applied to enhance the quality of procedural abstraction. De Sutter also reported an experiment with instruction rescheduling that yielded minimal effects on the quality of abstraction.

2.4 Dictionary Compression

The *Call Dictionary* (*CALD*) instruction [21] was an early hardware-supported implementation of dictionary compression. The dictionary is simply a list of instructions. Each sequence of instructions extracted by the compiler is inserted into the dictionary and replaced with a CALD instructions, which has the form CALD(Addr, N), where CALD is an opcode and Addr and N are fields. Addr is the address of the beginning of the code sequence as an offset from the beginning of the dictionary. To execute a CALD instruction, control is transferred to dictionary address ADDR, the next N instructions are executed, and then control is returned to the call point.

Assuming a fixed 32-bit ISA, further compression can be achieved if the size of the CALD instruction is reduced to less than 32 bits (e.g., 8 or 16). Single instruction sequences can be compressed using the same basic dictionary mechanism [19].

Echo instructions [9][17] are similar to CALD instructions. Rather than storing instruction sequences externally, one instance of each is left *inline* in the program; all other instances refer to the inlined sequence. Control is transferred to memory location PC – Addr rather than treating Addr as an offset from the start of the dictionary. Echo instructions allow for dictionary entries to reside anywhere in the program. Unlike CALD instructions, dictionary entries are not likely to reside next to one another in memory.

2.5 Parameterized Compression with DISE

Dynamic Instruction Stream Editing (*DISE*) is a recent architectural innovation that offers a parameterized model for compression [7]. Recall that CALD and echo instructions require that code sequences have identical register usage; DISE eliminates this requirement by providing a local set of registers. Each call to a dictionary sequence under DISE must provide an explicit mapping from machine registers to local registers; in other words, register names are passed as parameters.

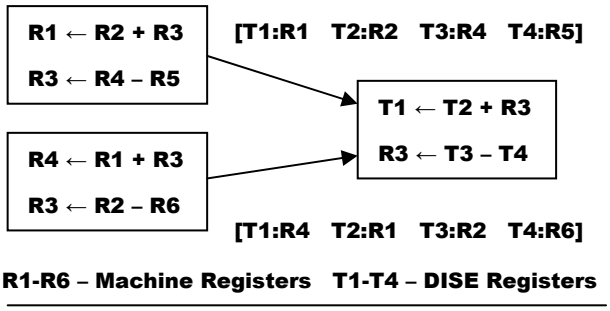

Figure 1.
Illustration of parameterized compression

Fig. 1 illustrates parameterized compression. R1...R6 are machine registers, and T1…T4 are local DISE registers. Two identical code sequences within a partial renaming of registers are shown on the left. On the right, an equivalent code sequence using local DISE registers is shown along with the mapping of machine registers onto DISE registers. The usage of R3 is identical in both sequences, so there is no need to replace it with a local DISE register. The advantage of parameterization is that the criteria for matching code sequences is less than for standard dictionary compression—identical register usage is no longer required; the disadvantage is that each call (to DISE) requires additional bits to specify the register mapping.

Through DISE, a parameterized implementation of echo instructions is possible. The layout optimization described in this paper could be used with either parameterized or standard echo instructions.

3. Dictionary Organization

This section presents an overview of our technique for organizing dictionaries for echo instructions. Code sequences are represented as DFGs rather than linear lists of operations. Data dependencies within each DFG impose a partial ordering on the operations within each sequence. The dictionary layout must schedule the operations within each DFG in an order that minimizes the size of the dictionary.

Fig. 2 shows two instruction sequences I_1 and I_2 represented as DFGs G_1 and G_2. G_1 has two legal schedules: {ABC, BAC}; whereas G_2 has only one: {AC}. Two dictionaries are shown: D_1 = BAC and D_2 = ACABC. D_1 is the preferable dictionary because it contains fewer instructions that D_2. The reason that D_1 is smaller is that AC is a substring of BAC. By selecting BAC as the schedule for G_1, I_2 can use the same dictionary entry as I_1.

3.1 Overview

Here, we place the analysis and optimization techniques described in this paper into the context of a larger compiler framework which we are developing. This framework will provide compile-time code compression, with specific optimizations targeting

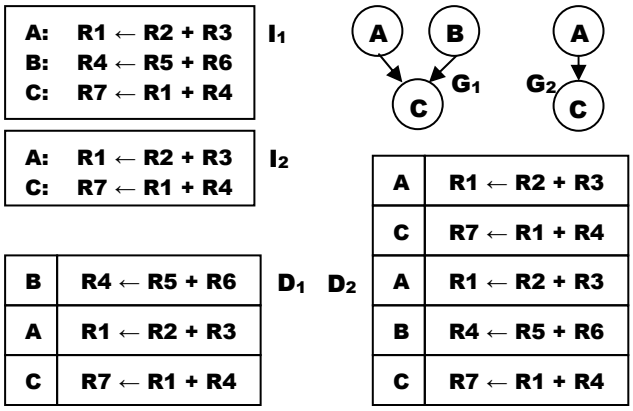

Figure 2.
The relationship between DFG scheduling and dictionary size

architectures with (parameterized) echo instructions. The first step in this framework is to identify and extract repeated non-overlapping computational patterns that occur in the compiler's intermediate representation. To accomplish this, we have adopted a technique pioneered by Kastner et al. [13] and Brisk et al. [3] to identify isomorphic subgraphs that occur within a set of DFGs representing the basic blocks of a program. These identical DFG fragments will later be replaced with echo instructions.

Register allocation tries to ensure that all instances of the same pattern occurring throughout the program have identical usage of registers. Enforcing this constraint ensures that a semantically equivalent program results when the patterns are replaced with echo instructions. The register allocation mechanism is beyond the scope of this paper. Between pattern identification and register allocation lies the topic of this paper – layout of the dictionary.

As illustrated by Fig. 2, the subgraph relation—which was not addressed previously [3]—allows patterns that are subgraphs of one another to reference the same code sequence. This information will be provided to the register allocator so that it can properly enforce code reuse constraints among patterns and sub-patterns. Henceforth, our compilation framework in the absence of dictionary layout optimization will be referred to as *naïve*.

3.2 Problem Statement

Let $G = \{G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_n\}$ be a set of uniquely identifiable patterns represented as DFGs. Let D be the *dictionary* that we intend to construct. Specifically, $D = \{D_1, D_2, \ldots, D_m\}$, where D_i, $1 \le i \le m$, is called a *dictionary entry*. Specifically, $D_i = (G_i, G_i^*)$, where $G_i = (V_i, E_i) \in G$ and $G_i^* \subseteq G$, such that every DFG $G_j \in G_i^*$ can be scheduled to use the same code sequence as G_i. In other words, D_i contains all of the DFGs whose code sequences will reference the same supersequence; for this to be legal, each DFG G_j must be isomorphic to some convex subgraph of G_i. In the final program layout, D_i will be represented by a linear sequence S_i of instructions that is a legal schedule for a pattern G_i.

An ideal dictionary will satisfy the following two criteria:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} G_i^* = G \text{, and} \quad (1)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} |V_i| \text{ is minimized} \quad (2)$$

Constraint (1) ensures that all DFGs are included in at least one dictionary entry. Constraint (2) attempts to minimize the size of the dictionary. In practice, (2) is treated as an objective function describing the quality of the solution rather than a constraint that must be met in order to guarantee the legality of a solution.

3.3 Constructing the Subgraph Hierarchy

Referring back to Fig. 2, dictionary D_2 is chosen because G_2 is a subgraph of G_1 (denoted $G_2 \subset G_1$). Unfortunately, the general problem of determining whether one graph is a subgraph of another (the well-known *Subgraph Isomorphism Problem*) is NP-Complete [11]. Rather than solve this problem directly, we describe how to compute the relation in conjunction with pattern identification as described by Brisk [3].

Brisk's algorithm uses a technique called *edge contraction* to generate a set of DFGs that occur repeatedly throughout a program. Consider a DFG $G = (V, E)$ and an edge $(u, v) \in E$. u and v are both assigned integer labels which represent their opcodes (e.g. ADD, MUL, etc.). A label can be computed for each edge as well. If many independent edges exist with the same labels as u and v, then all induced subgraphs $(\{u, v\}, \{(u, v)\})$ are isomorphic to one another, i.e. they could all be replaced with echo instructions. To model this action, the two vertices and edge are removed and replaced with a supernode (also called a *template*) that maintains the same connectivity to the rest of the graph as u and v. As the algorithm iterates, larger patterns are formed by combining adjacent nodes into templates in this fashion; additionally, two templates can be merged into a larger template. The interested reader is encouraged to consult papers by Kastner et al. [13] and Brisk et al. [3] for details.

The sequence of operations that leads to the terminating set of templates can be tracked as the algorithm progresses. The two basic operations involved are adding a vertex to a template and merging two templates into one. We encapsulate this information into a data structure called the *Subgraph Hierarchy* (*SH*).

Fig. 3 illustrates the information maintained in the SH. In (a), a MUL node is merged with template T_1, which contains two ADD nodes; the resulting template is labeled T_2. Assume that we have not yet encountered a template isomorphic to T_2. Initially, the SH contains a vertex representing T_1, and the mapping from the instance of T_1 in the original DFG to the DAG in T_1's vertex in the SH. A new SH node must be added for T_2. The mapping from the template in the DFG to the SH vertex is established via an isomorphism test performed during Brisk's algorithm.

The mapping from the instance of T_1 in the original DFG is no longer needed, since T_2 has replaced T_1; however, if another instance of pattern T_1 exists elsewhere in the program, then T_1 and T_2 may share the same code sequence in the dictionary. Therefore, it is useful to compute and maintain a mapping from the vertices of T_1, the sub-pattern, onto the vertices of T_2.

Let f_1 be the mapping from the instance of T_1 in the DFG to the node representing T_1 in the SH; define f_2 similarly for T_2. Let $g_{12} : T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ be the mapping from vertices in the DFG representation

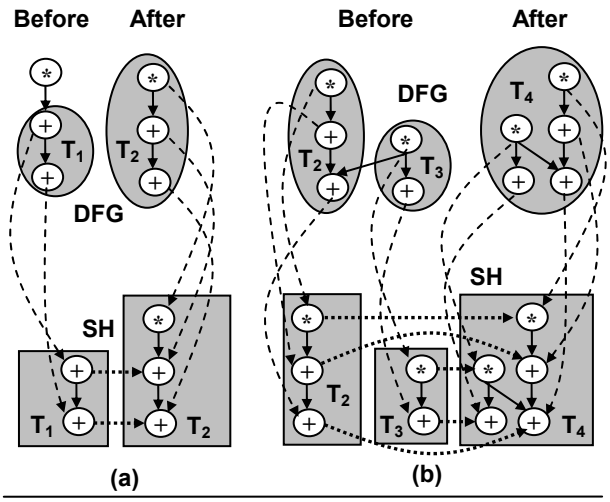

Figure 3.
Illustration of subgraph hierarchy (SH) Construction via adding a node to a template (a) and merging two templates (b)

of T_1 to a subset of those in T_2. We can establish $h_{12} : T_1 \rightarrow T_2$, the mapping between $T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ in the SH, as follows:

$$h_{12}(t) = f_2\left(g_{12}\left(f_1^{-1}(t)\right)\right),\ t \in T_1 \tag{3}$$

In Fig. 3 (a), f_1 and f_2 are represented by dashed arrows from templates in the DFG to the SH; h_{12} is represented by the dotted arrows from T_1 to T_2 in the SH. The mapping g_{12} represents the implicit temporal relationship between the vertices of T_1 and T_2 in the DFG; it is not explicitly drawn.

Fig. 3 (b) shows another example, where two templates are combined into a larger one. The fundamental principles are essentially the same as those underlying Fig. 3 (a).

In conclusion, the purpose of the SH is twofold:

(1) To maintain a single DFG to represent all instances of the same pattern that occur in the program (specifically, the mapping between each instance and the representative in the SH).

(2) To maintain the subgraph relation between patterns in the SH.

3.4 Scheduling Constraints and the Subgraph Relation

Let $G_i = (V_i, E_i)$ be a DFG. A *cut* $C_{i\rightarrow j,k} = (V_j, V_k)$, $V_k = V_i - V_j$, is a partition of the vertices of V_i into two *cut sets*, V_j and V_k. A *cut edge e* crosses $C_{i\rightarrow j,k}$ if one of its endpoints is in V_j and the other is in V_k. For a directed graph, a set of cut edges is defined as:

$$E_{(V_j,V_k)} = \left\{ (v_j, v_k) \middle| v_j \in V_j, v_k \in V_k \right\} \tag{4}$$

$C_{i\rightarrow j,k}$ is defined to be a *convex cut* if

$$E_{(V_k,V_j)} = \phi \tag{5}$$

Next, suppose that we contract edge $e_i = (v_j, v_k)$, and let G_i be the resulting pattern. W.L.O.G assume that both v_j, v_k are templates represented by DFGs G_j and G_k. Then, $G_i = (V_i, E_i)$, where

$$V_i = V_j \cup V_k, \text{ and} \tag{6}$$

$$E_i = E_j \cup E_k \cup E_{(V_j,V_k)} \tag{7}$$

The set of cut edges is maintained externally by the templates v_j and v_k; in our representation, the set of cut edges is a dynamic data structure accessible via either v_j or v_k. Let $C_{i\rightarrow j,k} = (V_j, V_k)$ be a convex cut of G_i. Let S_j and S_k be any legal topological orderings (schedules) of G_j and G_k respectively. Then a schedule $S_{i\rightarrow j,k}$ can be constructed for G_i by concatenating S_j and S_k, denoted $S_{i\rightarrow j,k} \rightarrow S_jS_k$. This reduces the size of the dictionary for these three patterns from $2|V_i|$ to $|V_i|$.

In a DAG, *sources* and *sinks* are vertices of in- and out-degree 0 respectively. To enforce $S_{i\rightarrow j,k}$ as a partial ordering constraint on G_i, we introduce a set of *separating edges*, $E_{i\rightarrow j,k} = \{(t_j, s_k) \mid t_j \in sinks(G_j)\ s_k \in sources(G_k)\}$. Let $G_{i\rightarrow j,k} = (V_i, E_i \cup E_{i\rightarrow j,k})$ be called a *separated DFG*. Any topological sort of $G_{i\rightarrow j,k}$ ensures that all operations in V_j are scheduled before those in V_k.

Theorem 1. Any schedule $S_{i\rightarrow j,k}$ of $G_{i\rightarrow j,k}$ corresponds to a schedule $S_i \rightarrow S_jS_k$ *of* G_i.

Proof. Let $S_{i\rightarrow j,k}$ be a legal schedule of $G_{i\rightarrow j,k}$, and assume to the contrary that $S_{i\rightarrow j,k}$ does not correspond to a schedule $S_i \rightarrow S_jS_k$ of G_i. Then there exist two vertices, $v_j \in V_j$, $v_k \in V_k$, such that v_k is scheduled before v_j in $S_{i\rightarrow j,k}$. Let $t \in V_j$ be a sink in G_j such that there is a path from v_j to t, and let $s \in V_k$ be a source in G_k such that there is a path from s to v_k. $E_{i\rightarrow j,k}$ must therefore contain edge (t, s). Hence, there exists a path from v_j to v_k in $G_{i\rightarrow j,k}$. Therefore v_j must be scheduled prior to v_k, a contradiction. □

3.5 A Grammar for Subgraph Hierarchies

In the preceding section, we adopted the nomenclature of grammars, $S_{i\rightarrow j,k} \rightarrow S_jS_k$, to represent scheduling constraints that arise in our application domain. Here, we adopt the notation to represent the subgraph relation. A *production* $G_i \rightarrow G_jG_k$ indicates that G_j and G_k are subgraphs of G_i and that $C_{i\rightarrow j,k}$ is a convex cut of G_i. A set of productions P is called a *Subgraph Hierarchy Grammar* (*SHG*). P_i is defined to be the subset of P, where all grammars have G_i as the left-hand-side. P_i effectively represents all of the pairs of subgraphs that have been combined to form G_i during the execution of Brisk's algorithm [3].

To construct the SHG, we apply one of four possible rules each time a new template is generated. Let v_j and v_k be vertices, and T_j and T_k be templates. Let e_i be an edge that is contracted. Then productions are added to P_i based on the following set of rules:

$$e_i = (v_j, v_k) \implies P_i \leftarrow P_i \cup \{G_i \rightarrow v_jv_k\} \tag{8}$$

$$e_i = (v_j, T_k) \implies P_i \leftarrow P_i \cup \{G_i \rightarrow v_jG_k\} \tag{9}$$

$$e_i = (T_j, v_k) \implies P_i \leftarrow P_i \cup \{G_i \rightarrow G_jv_k\} \tag{10}$$

$$e_i = (T_j, T_k) \implies P_i \leftarrow P_i \cup \{G_i \rightarrow G_jG_k\} \tag{11}$$

In the context of the SHG, v_j and v_k are *terminals* (the opcodes of assembly instructions) and G_i, G_j, and G_k are *non-terminals*. There cannot be "*recursive*" productions of the form $S_{uv} \rightarrow \alpha S_{uv} \beta$ in P,s where α and β represent any (possible empty) string of terminals and/or non-terminals. Given a production $G_i \rightarrow G_jG_k$, a legal schedule S_i can be constructed by repeatedly substituting

productions of the form $G_j \rightarrow ...$ and $G_k \rightarrow ...$ for G_j and G_k; this is repeated until all nonterminals are replaced with terminals. This is called a *derivation*. One derivation S_i for G_i will eventually be selected as G_i's dictionary entry. Determining an optimal schedule for every DFG in order to maximize pattern overlap is a complicated optimization problem, which is addressed in the sections that follow.

3.6 Scheduling Constraints and Compatibility

Any subset of productions $P_i' \subseteq P_i$ is defined to be *compatible* if a schedule S_i' exists, such that for each production $G_i \rightarrow G_j'G_k' \in P_i'$, there exist schedules S_j' and S_k' of G_j' and G_k' respectively such that $S_i' \rightarrow S_j'S_k'$; otherwise, P_i' is *incompatible*.

As an example, consider Fig. 4. A DFG G_1 is shown in the upper left, along with four subgraphs G_2, G_3, G_4, and G_5. G_1 can be formed by combining either G_2 and G_3 or G_4 and G_5. If G_2 and G_3 are combined, the resulting schedule is $S_1 \rightarrow S_2S_3$; likewise, combining G_4 and G_5 yields schedule $S_1 \rightarrow S_4S_5$. Ideally, we would like to construct schedule S_1 having S_2, S_3, S_4, and S_5 as substrings; however, this is impossible in this example.

The sets of separating edges are $E_{1\rightarrow 2,3} = \{(B, D), (C, D)\}$ and $E_{1\rightarrow 4,5} = \{(F, C)\}$ for cuts (V_2, V_3) and (V_4, V_5) respectively. The separated DFGs, $G_{1\rightarrow 2,3}$ and $G_{1\rightarrow 4,5}$ formed by adding $E_{1\rightarrow 2,3}$ and $E_{1\rightarrow 4,5}$ respectively to G_1 are shown on the bottom of Fig. 4, with non-redundant cut edges shown in bold. These graphs are both DAGs, so Theorem 1 ensures that any legal schedule of either satisfies the respective pattern overlap constraints.

The graph $G_{1\rightarrow (2,3),(4,5)}$ formed by adding both $E_{1\rightarrow 2,3}$ and $E_{1\rightarrow 4,5}$ to G_1 is also shown in Fig. 4. $G_{1\rightarrow (2,3),(4,5)}$ contains a cycle; therefore, no legal schedule $S_{1\rightarrow (2,3),(4,5)}$ can be constructed for $G_{1\rightarrow (2,3),(4,5)}$. Therefore, we provably cannot construct S_1 having S_2, S_3, S_4, and S_5 as substrings.

For the general case, let G_i be a DFG whose subgraphs are under consideration, and Let P_i be defined as above. Specifically,

$$P_i = \left\{ p_{i_m} \middle| 1 \le m \le n \right\}, \text{ where} \tag{12}$$

$$p_{i_m} = G_i \rightarrow G_{j_m} G_{k_m} \tag{13}$$

Associated with each production p_{i_m} is a cut $C_{i\rightarrow j_m,k_m}$, where:

$$C_{i\rightarrow j_m,k_m} = \left(V_{j_m}, V_{k_m}\right) \tag{14}$$

Let $E_{i\rightarrow *}$ be the *Aggregate Set of Separating Edges* for G_i, defined as follows:

$$E_i^* = \bigcup_{m=1}^{n} E_{i_m\rightarrow j_m,k_m} \tag{15}$$

Define an *Aggregate Separating Graph (ASG)*, G_i^*, as follows:

$$G_i^* = \left(V_i, E_i \cup E_i^*\right) \tag{16}$$

The ASG simultaneously represents the scheduling constraints required to satisfy each production in P_i. Theorem 2 establishes the relationship between the ASG and the compatibility of P_i.

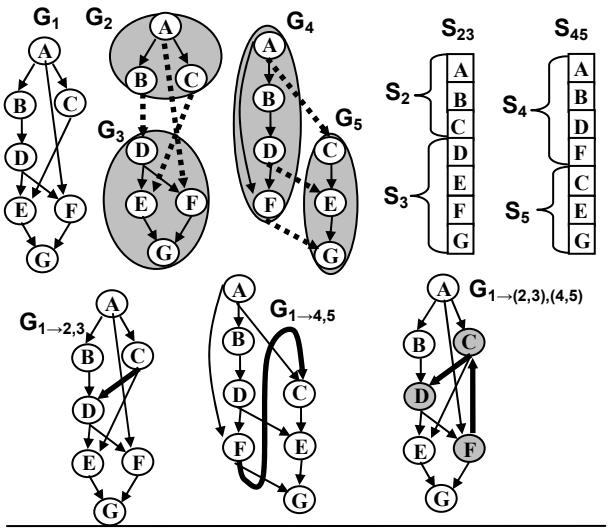

Figure 4.
Illustrating the concept of incompatibility

Theorem 2. The following four statements are equivalent.

1. P_i is a compatible set of non-redundant productions.
2. G_i^* is acyclic.
3. The cuts $C_{i\rightarrow j_m,k_m}$ of P_i can be ordered such that:
$$V_{i_1} \subset V_{i_2} \subset ... \subset V_{i_n} \tag{17}$$
4. The cuts $C_{i\rightarrow j_m,k_m}$ of P_i can be ordered such that
$$V_{j_1} \supset V_{j_2} \supset ... \supset V_{j_n} \tag{18}$$

Proof. 1→2. Let P_i be a compatible set of productions. Assume to the contrary that G_i^* contains a cycle $C = \langle v_1, v_2, ..., v_x, v_1 \rangle$. Consider production p_{i_m} corresponding to $C_{i\rightarrow j_m,k_m}$, a convex cut, as defined in Eqs. (13) and (14). To satisfy this cut, there must exist two vertices $v_j \in V_{j_m}$ and $v_k \in V_{k_m}$ such that edge $e_i = (v_j, v_k)$ is included in C. To satisfy cycle C, there must exist vertices $v_j' \in V_{j_m}$ and $v_k' \in V_{k_m}$ such that $e_i' = (v_k', v_j')$ is an edge in C. Observe that $e_i \in E_{(V_{j_m},V_{k_m})}$, and $e_i' \in E_{(V_{k_m},V_{j_m})}$. $\left|E_{(V_{k_m},V_{j_m})}\right| > 0$ implies that $C_{i\rightarrow j_m,k_m}$ is not a convex cut, contradicting the assumption that P_i is compatible. This is illustrated in Fig. 5 (a).

2→3. Assume that G_i^* is acyclic. Assume to the contrary that productions p_{i_x} and p_{i_y} correspond to two cuts $C_{i\rightarrow j_x,k_x}$ and $C_{i\rightarrow j_y,k_y}$ such that $V_{j_x} \not\subset V_{j_y}$, $V_{j_y} \not\subset V_{j_x}$, and $V_{j_x} \neq V_{j_y}$.

Let u and v be vertices defined such that $u \in V_{j_x} \cap V_{k_y}$ and $v \in V_{j_y} \cap V_{k_x}$. To satisfy $C_{i\rightarrow j_x,k_x}$, there must exist a sink

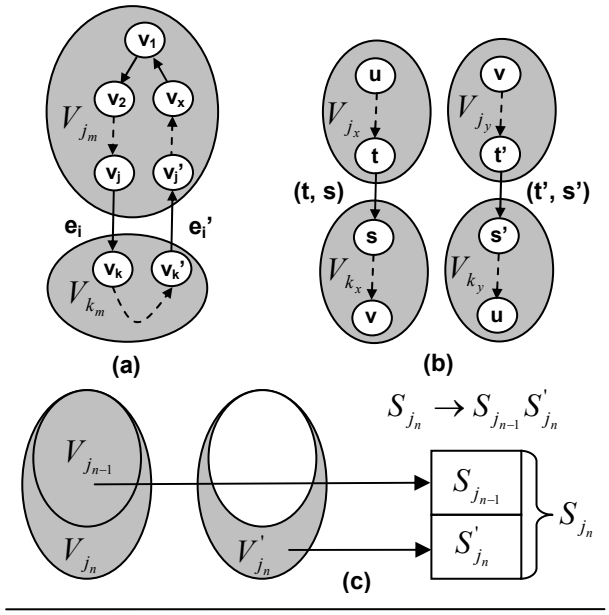

Figure 5.
Illustrating the main concepts of the first 3 steps in the proof of Theorem 2

$t \in V_{j_x}$ such that there is a path from *u* to *t*. Similarly, there must be a source $s \in V_{k_x}$ such that there is a path from *s* to *v*. Finally, observe that edge $(t,s) \in E_{i \to j_x k_x}$. Therefore there is a path from *u* to *v* in G_i^*. By an analogous argument for cut $C_{i \to j_y, k_y}$, a path from v to u can also be established, which contradicts the assumption that G_i^* is acyclic. This is illustrated in Fig. 5 (b).

3→1. Define an order on the cuts of *G* such that (17) is satisfied. We prove this statement using induction on $n = |P_i|$. For the basis, suppose $n = 1$. Then P_i contains a single production, $p_i = G_i \to G_j G_k$, which corresponds to a convex cut (V_j, V_k). Consequently, $S_{i \to j,k} \to S_j S_k$ is a legal schedule of G_i by Theorem 1. Without loss of generality, assume that there exist a set of cuts, ordered such that $V_{j_1} \subset V_{j_2} \subset \ldots \subset V_{j_n}$ for $n < |P_i|$. For the induction step, let $n = |P_i|$. By the induction hypothesis, Eq. (17) and (18) are satisfied for $P_i - \{p_{i_n}\}$, which is compatible.

Now, consider cutsets, $V_{j_{n-1}} \subset V_{j_n}$, and $V'_{j_n} = V_{j_n} - V_{j_{n-1}}$. Let S'_{j_n} be a schedule for the subgraph of G_i induced by V'_{j_n}. Therefore, we can construct a schedule $S_{j_n} \to S_{j_{n-1}} S'_{j_n}$, such that $S_{i \to j_n k_n} \to S_{j_n} S_{k_n}$ is a legal schedule for G_i.

By the induction hypothesis, $S_{j_{n-1}}$ is a legal schedule that includes $S_{j_1}, \ldots, S_{j_{n-1}}$ as sub-schedules. This is illustrated in Fig. 5 (c).

3↔4. Assume that (17) holds but (18) does not. Then there must exist productions corresponding to cuts (V_{j_x}, V_{k_x}) and (V_{j_y}, V_{k_y}) such that $V_{j_x} \subset V_{j_y}$ and $V_{k_x} \subset V_{k_y}$. This leads to the contradiction (19); the converse yields contradiction (20):

$$|V_i| = |V_{j_x}| + |V_{k_x}| < |V_{j_y}| + |V_{k_y}| = |V_i| \quad (19)$$

$$|V_i| = |V_{j_x}| + |V_{k_x}| > |V_{j_y}| + |V_{k_y}| = |V_i| \quad (20)$$

The case where $V_{j_x} = V_{j_y}$ and $V_{k_x} = V_{k_y}$ is redundant. □

Theorem 2 establishes two criteria which we may use to determine whether a set of productions is compatible. In practice, we can not assume that an entire set of productions P_1 will be compatible; instead, we focus on the problem of finding an optimal compatible subset of P_1.

3.7 A Production Compatibility Graph

In this section, we introduce a data structure called a *Production Compatibility Graph* (*PCG*), a DAG that represents compatibility among the productions in P_1. Our construction of the PCG is based on Criterion 3 from Theorem 2.

Let P_i be defined as in Eqs. (12) and (13). Each production $p_{i_m} \in P_i$ describes the scheduling constraints including the subgraph relation between G_i, G_{j_m}, and G_{k_m}. A PCG for G_i is denoted $G_i^{PCG} = (V_i^{PCG}, E_i^{PCG})$, where each vertex $v_{j_m} \in V_i^{PCG}$ corresponds to schedule $S_{i \to j_m, k_m} \to S_{j_m} S_{k_m}$ for G_i. An edge $e = (v_{j_x}, v_{j_y}) \in E_i^{PCG}$ if and only if the following criteria are satisfied:

$$V_{j_x} \subset V_{j_y} \quad (21)$$

$$\neg \exists V_{j_z} \ni V_{j_x} \subset V_{j_z} \subset V_{j_y} \quad (22)$$

Criterion (22) establishes that the subset relation is not trasitive—that there is no other subset of V_{j_y} that is also a superset of V_{j_x}.

Lemma 1. G_i^{PCG} is acyclic.

Proof. Let $c = (v_{j_x}, \ldots, v_{j_y}, v_{j_x})$ be a cycle in G_i^{PCG}. If $|c| = 2$, then there is an edge (v_{j_x}, v_{j_x}) which is trivially redundant and unnecessary. If $|c| > 2$, then there exists $v_{j_y} \neq v_{j_x}$ such that:

$$V_{j_x} \subset \ldots \subset V_{j_y} \subset \ldots \subset V_{j_x}, \quad (23)$$

which is a contradiction. □

Lemma 2. $p = (v_{j_x}, v_{j_{x+1}}, ..., v_{j_y})$ is a path in G_i^{PCG} if and only if $V_{j_x}, V_{j_{x+1}}, ..., V_{j_y}$ are compatible.

Proof. Follows immediately from (21) and (22) taken in conjunction with Criterion 3 in Theorem 2. □

Recall that a compatible subset of productions in *P* corresponds to a set of code sequences that can be embedded within schedule S_i of G_i. By Lemma 2, any path in G_i^{PCG} is a compatible subset. Lemma 3 and Theorem 3 help us establish which compatible subset of P should be selected to optimize code size reduction.

Lemma 3. The code size reduction attributable to every vertex $v_{j_m} \in V_i^{PCG}$ is $|V_i|$.

Proof. v_{j_m} corresponds to cutset $C_{i \to j_m, k_m} = (V_{j_m}, V_{k_m})$. S_{j_m} and S_{k_m} are schedules of G_{j_m} and G_{k_m} respectively. By selecting schedule $S_{i \to j_m k_m} = S_{j_m} S_{k_m}$, we eliminate the need to store dictionary entries for G_{j_m} and G_{k_m}. The corresponding reduction in dictionary size is given by $|V_i| = |V_{j_m}| + |V_{k_m}|$. □

Theorem 3 summarizes this result.

Theorem 3. The compatible subset P_{max} of P_1 that maximizes code size reduction corresponds to the path p_{max} of maximum length in G_i^{PCG}.

Proof. Follows immediately from Lemmas 1, 2, and 3. □

Fig. 6 illustrates the construction of the PCG, for a DFG G_1. Five pairs of convex cuts, (V_i, V_{i+1}) are shown for *i = 2, 4, 6, 8, 10*. A PCG, G_1^{PCG}, is shown. Each vertex v_i^{PCG} in G_1^{PCG} corresponds to cut (V_i, V_{i+1}). G_1^{PCG} contains no transitive edges as a consequence of criteria (21) and (22).

4. Dictionary Construction via Dynamic Programming

In this section, we present a dynamic programming algorithm that constructs a dictionary from a set of DFGs representing patterns generated by applying Brisk's algorithm to the CDFG representation of a program. Pseudocode is shown in Fig. 7.

The input to the algorithm is a set of DFGs $G = \{G_1, G_2, ..., G_n\}$ and an SH, represented as a DAG $G^{SH} = (V^{SH}, E^{SH})$, where $V^{SH} = G$ and edge $e = (G_i, G_j) \in E^{SH}$ indicates that G_j is an immediate subgraph of G_i. This is a slightly different representation of the SH than was described in Section 3.2. The primary difference is that here, we are interested in only the immediate subgraph relation. The simplest way to view this construction of G^{SH} is to add an edge (G_i, G_j) for each production $S_i \rightarrow ... S_j ...$ in the SHG.

Line 1 in Fig. 7 initializes an empty dictionary; the rest of the algorithm constructs the dictionary, which is returned in Line 14.

The loop spanning Lines 2-13 performs the actual dictionary construction. Line 3 removes all sources and sinks in the SH that correspond to patterns that do not exist in the SH. All such sinks were consumed by larger templates during Brisk's algorithm [3].

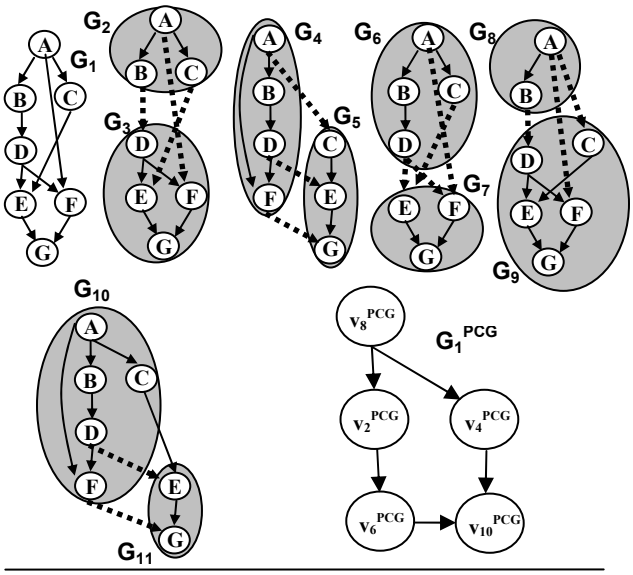

Figure 6.
Illustrating construction of the PCG

```
Construct_Echo_Dictionary(
    G = {G1, G2, …, Gn} : set of DFGs,
    GSH = (VSH, ESH) : subgraph hierarchy
) : Dictionary
1.  Dictionary : D ← initialize empty
        dictionary.
2.  While( |VSH| > 0 )
3.      Remove all unnecessary sources and
        sinks.
4.      Topologically sort GSH
5.      For each vertex vi ∈ VSH, taken in
        reverse topological order
6.          Let Gi be the DFG corresponding
            to vi.
7.          Propagate scheduling constraints
            from each compatible sub-pattern
            of Gi to Gi
8.          Compute gain(Gi)
9.      EndFor
10.     Let Gmax be the source in GSH such that
        gain(Gmax) is maximum.
11.     Recursively extract the compatible
        subgraph of GSH rooted at Gmax.
12.     Add the extracted subgraph to D
13. EndWhile
14. Return D
```

Figure 7.
Dictionary construction heuristic

All such sources were considered, but not actually introduced. None of these patterns should be represented in the dictionary.

The second step within the outer loop is to topologically sort G^{SH} in Line 4. The inner loop spanning Lines 5-9 traverses G^{SH} in reverse topological order—from sinks to sources. The outer loop terminates when all vertices have been removed from G^{SH}.

Let *gain*(G_i) represent the benefit associated with creating a dictionary entry for G_i. This gain must account for all of the

subgraphs G_j, G_k of G_i that will reference the eventual code sequence S_i. *gain(G_i)* is computed in Line 8 of Fig. 7. A table of size *O(n)* stores *gain(G_i)* for every DFG in G. By traversing G^{SH} in reverse topological order, *gain(G_j)* has already been computed for each successor (subgraph) G_j of G_i. The table therefore uses dynamic programming to recursively compute *gain(G_i)*. The details of this computation are described in Section 4.1. The previous step in Line 7 is described in Section 4.2.

The computation of *gain(G_i)* uses Theorem 3 to compute a compatible set of sub-patterns of G_i. Once this value is known for every pattern in G^{SH}, a source G_{max} that maximizes *gain(G_i)* is identified in Line 10. Line 11 removes all vertices from the PHG corresponding to patterns that will reference G_{max}'s dictionary entry. Line 12 creates the actual dictionary entry.

First, G_{max} is removed from G^{SH}. Next, each compatible sub-pattern of G_{max}, G_j, is also removed from G^{SH}. Recursively, all compatible sub-patterns of G_j are removed too, etc. Let V^{SH}_{max} be the set of patterns in G^{SH} that will reference G_{max}'s dictionary entry. The subgraph of G^{SH} induced by V^{SH}_{max} is removed from G^{SH} and placed into the dictionary. Since all edges in the induced subgraph are compatible, a schedule for G_{max} can be constructed that is compatible with all patterns in the induced subgraph, as discussed in Sections 3.6 and 3.7. The induced subgraph suffices as a dictionary entry for G_{max} as well as all subsumed patterns.

4.1 Computing gain(G_i)

For pattern G_i, let $b_i = 1$ if G_i is one of the patterns occurring in the final program; otherwise, $b_i = 0$. Sources and sinks with $b_i = 0$ were removed in Line 3 of Fig. 7. Internal patterns are maintained to preserve the subgraph relation, which is transitive.

To compute *gain(G_i)*, we associate a gain with each production $G_i \rightarrow \ldots$, denoted *gain($G_i \rightarrow \ldots$)*. There are 4 cases to consider:

$$gain(G_i \rightarrow v_j v_k) = 2 \cdot b_i \quad (24)$$

$$gain(G_i \rightarrow v_j G_k) = b_i \cdot |V_i| + gain(G_k) \quad (25)$$

$$gain(G_i \rightarrow G_j v_k) = b_i \cdot |V_i| + gain(G_j) \quad (26)$$

$$gain(G_i \rightarrow G_j G_k) = b_i \cdot |V_i| + gain(G_j) + gain(G_k) \quad (27)$$

For each production, $G_{i \rightarrow j_m, k_m} \rightarrow G_{j_m} G_{k_m}$, the quantity $gain(G_{i \rightarrow j_m, k_m} \rightarrow G_{j_m} G_{k_m})$ is assigned as a weight of the corresponding vertex $v_{j_m} \in V_i^{PCG}$. A locally optimal subset of productions for pattern G_i can be constructed by finding the path of maximal weight in G_i^{PCG}. Let $P_{i,max}$ be the set of vertices in G_i^{PCG} contained on the maximum weight path. Let *gain($P_{i,max}$)* be the sum of the gains of the productions associated with each vertex contained in $P_{i,max}$. Finally, let *gain(G_i)* be the total gain associated with pattern G_i and all of its sub-patterns. Then:

$$gain(G_i) = gain(P_{i,\max}) + b_i \cdot |V_i| \quad (28)$$

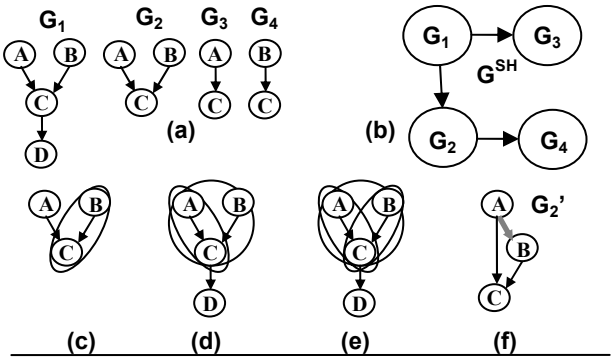

Figure 8
Illustrating the propagation of scheduling constraints while traversing G^{SH}

4.2 Propagating Scheduling Constraints

Consider DFGs G_1, G_2, G_3, and G_4 shown in Fig. 8 (a). G^{SH} is shown in Fig. 8 (b). Observe that $G_3 \subset G_2$ despite the fact that there is no edge *(G_2, G_3)* in G^{SH}. This simply indicates that no instance of G_2 in the program was formed by combining an instance of G_3 with a vertex labeled *B*. Assume $b_i = 1$, $1 \leq i \leq 4$.

Now, let us compute *gain(G_i)*, for $1 \leq i \leq 4$. Trivially, *gain(G_3)* = *gain(G_4)* = 2. G_4 is the only compatible sub-pattern of G_2, as illustrated in Fig. 8 (c). Consequently, *gain(G_2)* = 5.

Now, let us process G_1, ignoring, for the moment, the fact that G_4 has been selected as a compatible sub-pattern of G_2. As illustrated by Fig. 8 (d), G_2 and G_3 are both compatible sub-patterns of G_1. Now, recall that G_4 is a sub-pattern of G_2; by transitivity, G_4 is also a sub-pattern of G_1. G_4, however, is not compatible with G_3, as illustrated by Fig. 8 (e). The dynamic programming algorithm has already selected G_4, as a compatible sub-pattern of G_2. Therefore, G_2 and G_3 are not compatible sub-patterns of G_1.

Selecting G_4 as a compatible sub-pattern of G_2 creates a scheduling constraint—the schedule of G_2 must place vertex A prior to the vertices in G_4. To represent this constraint, the separating edge *(A, B)* must be added to G_2. The resulting DFG, G_2', is shown in Fig. 8 (f). G_2' and G_3 are trivially incompatible with G_1. Since *gain(G_2)* > *gain(G_3)*, G_2 is selected as the only compatible sub-pattern of G_1; consequently, *gain(G_1)* = 9.

The separating edges corresponding to each compatible set of sub-patterns must be added to each DFG in the hierarchy as it is processed. Otherwise, scheduling decisions made during the early stages of dynamic programming will not percolate to the top of G^{SH}.

The dictionary entry for G_1 will cover 9 operations—4 from G_1, 3 from G_2, and 2 from G_4. A separate dictionary entry will be constructed for G_3. The final dictionary will contain 6 operations.

5. Experimental Results

We have integrated our dictionary construction algorithm into a compression framework [3] within the Machine SUIF compiler [25]. The first step of the back of the compiler is to instruction selection. Machine SUIF is a retargetable compiler that provides back end support for the Alpha, x86, and Itanium architectures.

Following the lead of Lau et al. [17] and Brisk et al. [3], we targeted a version of the Alpha architecture that has been modified to support echo instructions.

We used an isomorphic pattern generation algorithm described by Brisk [3] to identified recurring patterns within the compiler's intermediate representation. We modified the algorithm so that it built the PHG and performs the dictionary construction algorithm described in Sections 3 and 4 of this paper.

5.1 Benchmarks

Code compression is a topic that is primarily of interest to embedded system designers. With that in mind, we selected a set of 10 benchmarks from the MediaBench application suite [18]: Epic, G.721, GSM, JPEG, MPEG2 Decoder and Encoder, Pegwit, PGP, RSA (within PGP), and Rasta. Adpcm was not compiled because it is notably smaller than the others and exhibits considerable redundancy. Ghostscript and Mesa are larger than the others, and are thus less representative of embedded applications.

The source code files for each benchmark were linked using the *link_suif* pass. This required manual intervention to prevent namespace collisions. To reduce overall code size, we rolled the unrolled loops that occurred in several of the benchmarks.

5.2 Dictionary Construction Results

The majority of dictionary compression techniques (e.g., Lefurgy [19]) do not reduce the dictionary size using substring matching. They simply place one instance of each pattern in the dictionary—the naïve approach. Fig. 9 compares the sizes (in terms of operations) of the dictionaries constructed by the naïve and heuristic methods. The reductions in dictionary sizes ranged from 21.14% (JPEG) to 29.76% (Epic). Across all benchmarks, the number of operations in all dictionaries was reduced from 26629 to 20174, a reduction of 24.24%.

Table I lists three quantities for each benchmark: total compilation time, time spent during dictionary construction, and the percentage of time spent during dictionary construction; the third quantity can easily be derived from the first two. Because Brisk's algorithm [3] relies on repeated calls to an exact isomorphism algorithm, the time spent constructing the dictionary is small relative to the entire compilation process.

Compilation times ranged from 2.78 seconds (G.721) to 363 seconds (JPEG). The amount of time spent on dictionary construction ranged from 0.194 seconds (G.721) to 15.7 seconds (JPEG). As a percentage of compilation time, dictionary construction ranged from 2.38% (GSM) to 6.98% (G.721).

5.3 Discussion

Our intention was to compare the heuristic technique to a similar algorithm based on substring matching; however, to use substring matching, we must first schedule each DFG before constructing the dictionary. There may be many different schedules for each DFG—an exponential number per DFG in the worst case.

Suppose that we have n DFGs, and there are k possible schedules for each. Then the total number of possible schedules for all DFGs is n^k. As illustrated by Fig. 2, the quality of the results of substring matching depends on how the DFGs are scheduled relative to one another.

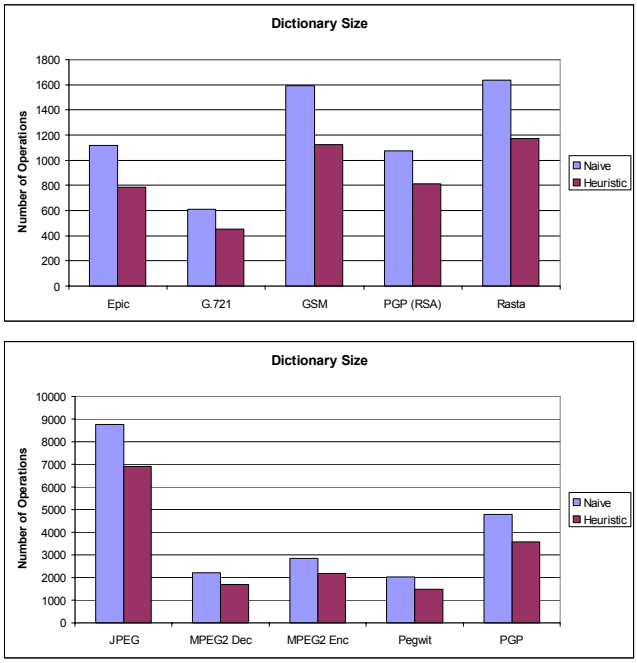

Figure 9.
Dictionary construction results

Table I.
Compilation and dictionary construction time (seconds, %) for the 10 benchmarks

Benchmark	Total (sec)	Dictionary (sec)	(%)
Epic	10.3	0.528	5.13
G.721	2.78	0.194	6.98
GSM	34.3	0.816	2.38
JPEG	363	15.7	4.33
MPEG2 Dec	33.1	1.31	3.96
MPEG2 Enc	66.9	1.98	2.96
Pegwit	33.8	1.10	3.25
PGP	201	5.62	2.80
PGP (RSA)	9.36	0.516	5.51
Rasta	18.4	0.866	4.70

The problem of determining the best schedule for each DFG for dictionary compression must be solved prior to substring matching. The heuristic presented here solves this scheduling problem sub-optimally. The use of graph isomorphism during PHG construction eliminates the need for substring matching. Consequently, the two problems are identical.

De Sutter et al. [8] reported marginal results of an optimization strategy that attempted to minimize differences in instruction schedules in order to maximize the code size reductions obtained by a substring matching/register renaming technique. We observed that up to 40% of the patterns found by Brisk's algorithm across all benchmarks did not occur contiguously in the Machine SUIF CFG, where basic blocks are lists of instructions.

We attribute this discrepancy to two factors. First, De Sutter's optimization was performed at link-time, after a compiler scheduled the code using a deterministic heuristic. Secondly, De

Sutter's benchmarks were written in C++, where considerable redundancy occurred due to template instantiation and inheritance. The repeated code fragments, once again, are likely to be initialized to identical default schedules when the intermediate representation is first constructed. All Mediabench applications, in contrast, are written in C.

Finally, De Sutter replaced redundant code with procedure calls, whereas we are targeting a system with echo instructions. An echo instruction encodes the number of dictionary instructions to execute in one of its fields; a procedure terminates upon executing a return instruction. Under this model, a return instruction must terminate the substring. This return instruction would then preempt the superstring—incorrectly, unless the substring matches the terminating characters of the superstring.

6. Future Work

The dictionary construction method presented here is specific to echo instructions [9][17][3]. The technique could also be used for CALD instructions [21] and DISE decompression [7]. These two technologies offer opportunities for dictionary compression in excess of echo instructions. As an example, consider three code sequences AB, BC, and CD. A dictionary entry ABCD could be constructed that allows BC to span two the respective entries for AB and CD. Observe that BCis not a substring (or a subgraph in a DFG representation) of AB or BC. Since patterns AB and CD arunlikely to occur contiguously in the program, three separate entries would be needed for a dictionary using echo instructions.

7. Conclusion

We have developed a theoretical model for the problem of constructing a dictionary for a set of redundant code sequences represented as DFGs. This approach differs from post-compilation analyses that use linear substring matching to construct a dictionary. To solve this problem, we introduce an efficient dynamic programming heuristic that performed dictionary construction. Our experiments with 10 MediaBench applications yielded reductions in dictionary size ranging from 21.14% to 29.76% relative to naïve methods.

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