

Compiler Construction: Practical Introduction

Lecture 8 Program Optimization Bootstrapping Compilers

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Program Optimization

Some general points

- Optimization can be performed on each stage of the program lifecycle: not only while compilation but while design, development and maintenance.
- Do we **really need** optimization?
The best way to optimize a program - is to **design it correctly** (then perhaps we do not need to optimize it 😊)
- "Optimization-in-the-small" vs "optimization-in-the-large"

Program Optimization

- Finding places in programs which could be optimized (by some criteria) is very much empirical job; in the best case, there is just a set of techniques taken from experience.
- At the same time, there is a number of formal and/or constructive approaches for some kind of optimizations.

Today, we will be discussing **what** to optimize, but not **how** to do this...

Program Optimization

- While source code processing (lexical & syntax analysis)
Big spectrum of optimization techniques.
- While semantic analysis (AST processing).
Sequential AST traversing.
Optimizations depend on the language semantics heavily.
- While target code generation (machine-dependent optimizations)
Depend on the target architecture & on the instruction set.
- While linking: **global** code optimizations.
Example: - C++ code bloat removing.

Common Subexpression Elimination (1)

```
long a = x*(1-sin(y));  
long b = x + y/z;  
long c = y/z + 1 - sin(y);
```



```
long tmp1 = 1-sin(y);  
long tmp2 = z/y;  
  
long a = x*tmp1;  
long b = x + tmp2;  
long c = tmp2 + tmp1;
```

The place:

While AST analysis.

Limitations:

1. Factorized functions cannot issue side effects.
2. Operands of factorized expressions cannot modify their values.

Common Subexpression Elimination (2)

```
static int x = 0;  
long F(long y)  
{  
    x++;  
    return <expression>;  
}
```

Side effect



```
long a = x*(1-F(y));  
long b = x + y/z;  
...  
z = <expression>;  
...  
long c = z/y + 1 - F(y);
```

Modifying value



Common Subexpression Elimination (3)

An expression may look different but still calculate the same value as some other expression => it can also get optimized.

```
long a = b*c - d;
```

```
long e = b;
```

```
b = b + 1 - b*c;
```

```
long f = b*c + c*e;
```

$b*c$: the second calculation of the same value.

The second calculation of $b*c$ results in a different value.

The value of $c*e$ is the same as $b*c$.

Operation Strength Reduction (1)

Actions: comparative performance

Multiplication/division on a power of two

Addition/subtraction

Multiplication

Division

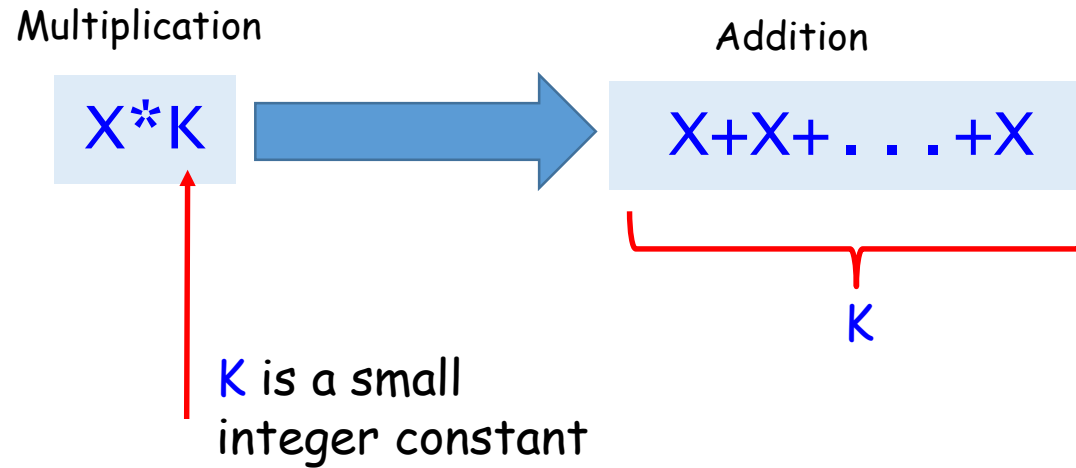
Calculation of an integer power

Calculation of an arbitrary power

⇒ Replacing slower operations for faster ones
(where possible)

For some target architectures it's **mandatory**: e.g., some RISCs just do not support multiplication!

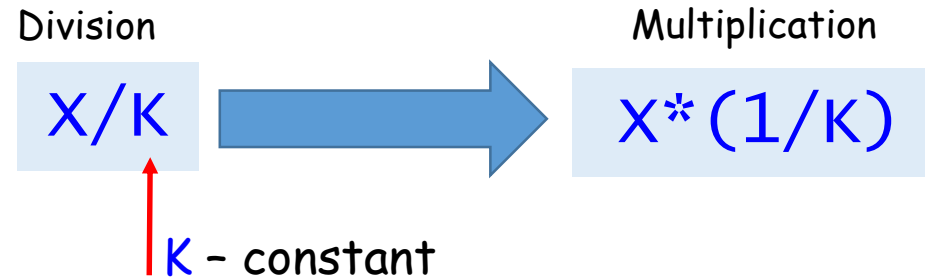
Operation Strength Reduction (2)



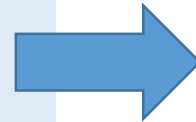
In general case it's impossible...

- At least one operand must be an integer constant.
- The constant should be relatively small; otherwise rounding errors will accumulate.

Operation Strength Reduction (3)



```
double x = c/b;  
double y = (e+f)/b + d;  
double z = b;  
b = b+1;  
...  
z = sin(x)/z + e/b;
```



```
double tmp = (double)1/b;  
double x = c*tmp;  
double y = (e+f)*tmp + d;  
double z = b;  
b = b+1;  
...  
z = sin(x)*tmp + e/b;
```

Dead Code Elimination

```
double a;  
...  
a = (x+y)*sin(z);  
...  
a = x/y;
```



```
double a;  
...  
a = x/y;
```

If the value of **a** *does not change* between two assignments, then the first assignment can be removed.

Limitation: the action being removed cannot make side effects.

Constant propagation

If the value of a variable is known
then the variable reference can be replaced
for the value itself.

```
long a = 2;  
long b = 3;  
...  
long c = a*b;  
...  
long t = (b+c)*a+x;
```



```
long a = 2;  
long b = 3;  
...  
long c = 6; // a*b  
...  
long t = 18 + x; // (b+c)*a
```

Conditional Constant propagation

If the value in a loop condition is known in advance then the loop could be simplified.

```
while ( <Expression> )  
{  
    <Statements>  
}
```



```
Loop:  
    if ( !<Expression> ) goto Exit;  
    <Statements>  
    goto Loop;  
Exit:  
    ;
```

```
while ( 1 )  
{  
    <Statements>  
}
```



```
Loop:  
if ( !<Expression> ) goto Exit;  
    <Statements>  
    goto Loop;  
Exit:  
    ÷
```

Type conversion optimizations

Type conversion is a potentially costly operation; therefore it's a good candidate for optimizations.

```
double a, b;  
long i, j;  
...  
double c = a + i + b - j;
```



```
... a + (double)i + b - (double)j ...
```

```
double a, b;  
long i, j;  
...  
double c = (a+b) + (i-j);
```

```
... a+b + (double)(i-j) ...
```

Code Hoisting

Access to array elements and function calls are also good candidates for optimizations...

```
for i:integer range 1..100 loop
  x(i) = y(i)+1/y(i);
  z(i) = y(i)**2;
end loop;
```



```
for i:integer range 1..100 loop
  declare
    tmp : real := y(i);
  begin
    x(i) = tmp+1/tmp;
    z(i) = tmp**2;
  end;
end loop;
```

Address of **y(i)** gets
calculated **300 times**

Address of **y(i)** gets
calculated **100 times**

Loop Fusion (1)

Loops are main consumers of *CPU* time!

```
for i:integer range 1..100 loop  
    x(i) = 0;  
end loop;
```

```
for i:integer range 1..100 loop  
    z(i) = y(i)**2;  
end loop;
```



```
for i:integer range 1..100 loop  
    x(i) = 0;  
    z(i) = y(i)**2;  
end loop;
```

Costs for loop organization are reduced

Loop Fusion (2)

(More general case)

```
for i:integer range 1..100 loop  
  x(i) = 0;  
end loop;
```

```
for i:integer range 1..200 loop  
  z(i) = y(i)**2;  
end loop;
```



```
for i:integer range 1..100 loop  
  x(i) = 0;  
  z(i) = y(i)**2;  
end loop;
```

```
for i:integer range 101..200 loop  
  z(i) = y(i)**2;  
end loop;
```

Overall amount
of iterations: **300**

Overall amount
of iterations: **200**

Loop Unrolling (1)

```
for (int i=0; i<100; i++)  
{  
    x[i] = y[i]*z[i];  
}
```



```
for (int i=0; i<100; i+=2)  
{  
    x[i] = y[i]*z[i];  
    x[i+1] = y[i+1]*z[i+1];  
}
```

Loop step = 1
Overall amount
of iterations: **100**

Loop step = 2
Overall amount
of iterations: **50**

Loop Unrolling (2)

```
-- Skip past blanks, loop is opened up for speed
while Source (Scan_Ptr) = ' ' loop
  if Source (Scan_Ptr + 1) /= ' ' then
    Scan_Ptr := Scan_Ptr + 1; exit;
  end if;
  if Source (Scan_Ptr + 2) /= ' ' then
    Scan_Ptr := Scan_Ptr + 2; exit;
  end if;
  if Source (Scan_Ptr + 3) /= ' ' then
    Scan_Ptr := Scan_Ptr + 3; exit;
  end if;
  if Source (Scan_Ptr + 4) /= ' ' then
    Scan_Ptr := Scan_Ptr + 4; exit;
  end if;
  if Source (Scan_Ptr + 5) /= ' ' then
    Scan_Ptr := Scan_Ptr + 5; exit;
  end if;
  if Source (Scan_Ptr + 6) /= ' ' then
    Scan_Ptr := Scan_Ptr + 6; exit;
  end if;
  if Source (Scan_Ptr + 7) /= ' ' then
    Scan_Ptr := Scan_Ptr + 7; exit;
  end if;
  Scan_Ptr := Scan_Ptr + 8;
end loop;
```

“Manual” loop unrolling

A real example:
The scanner of the Ada
GNAT compiler

Tail Recursion Elimination (1)

```
void f(int x)
{
    if ( x == 0 ) return;
    ...Some actions...
    f(x-1);
}
```

```
void f(int x)
{
    if ( x == 0 ) return;
    ... Some actions...
    if ( Some_condition )
        f(x-1);
    else
        f(x-2);
}
```

The idea:

If the recursive call is the very last operation in the function body then it can be replaced for the direct jump to the beginning of the body - perhaps with argument (re)initialization.

See more details in:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tail_call

Tail Recursion Elimination (2)

```
void f(int x)
{
    if ( x == 0 ) return;
    ...Some actions...
    f(x-1);
}
...
f(3);
```



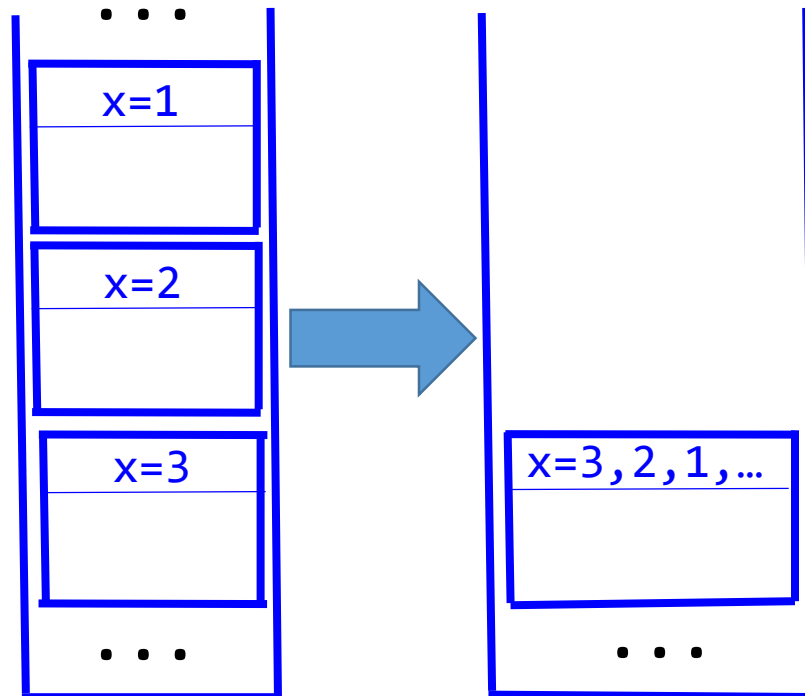
```
void f(int x)
{
    Repeat:
    if ( x == 0 ) return;
    ...Some actions...
    f(x-1);
    x = x-1;
    goto Repeat;
}
...
f(3);
```

Execution Stack

Stackframe
for f's call
with x = 1

Stackframe
for f's call
with x = 2

Stackframe
for f's call
with x = 3



The idea:

If the recursive call is the very last operation in the function body then it can be replaced for the direct jump to the beginning of the body - perhaps with argument (re)initialization.

Tail Recursion Elimination (3)

```
long factorial(long n)
{
    if (n == 0) return 1;
    else return n*factorial(n-1);
}
```

This is **not** tail recursion.
Why?



```
int fac_times(int n, int acc)
{
    if (n == 0) return acc;
    else return fac_times(n-1, acc*n);
}

int factorial(int n)
{
    return fac_times(n, 1);
}
```

Equivalent program **with** tail recursion.

Bootstrapping the Compiler

In many cases, a compiler for a higher-level language "High" is written in a lower language "Low".

For example, the first compiler for the Fortran language was initially written in an assembly language...

The Interstron C++ compiler was initially written in C

However:

- The GNAT Ada compiler is written in Ada.
- The Eiffel compiler is written in Eiffel.
- The Scala compiler is written in Scala.
- Most C++ compilers are written in C++
- ...

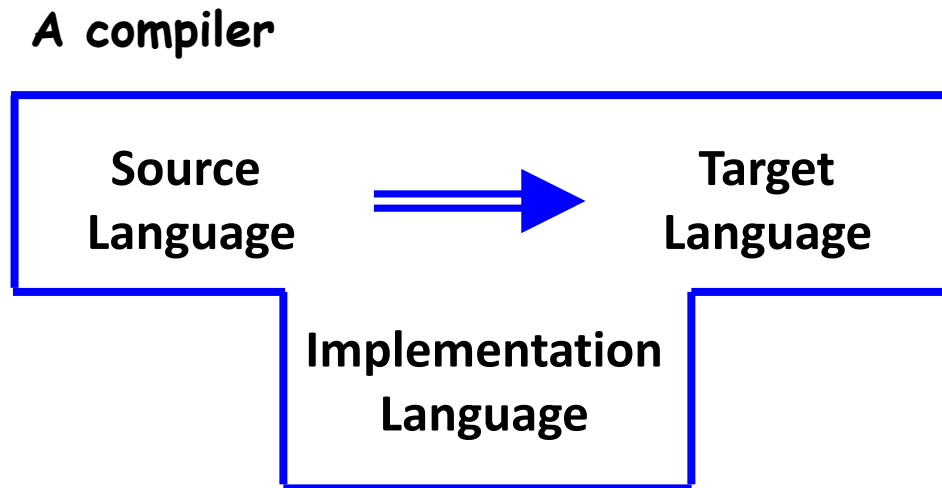
The Interstron C++ compiler was later rewritten in C++

Bootstrapping Technology

- The technology applies when the implementation & source languages are **the same**.
- **Advantages:**
 - More stable technology;
 - Supports graduate language & compiler improvement;
 - No dependency on any third-party tools;
 - The code of the compiler is **an excellent test** for both language and compiler itself.
- **Disadvantages:**
 - A bit awkward technology; requires non-trivial management & powerful management tools (e.g., *ant*).

Bootstrapping Technology

- Reference: Terence Parr.
- Graphical notation ("T Notation"):



Bootstrapping the Compiler



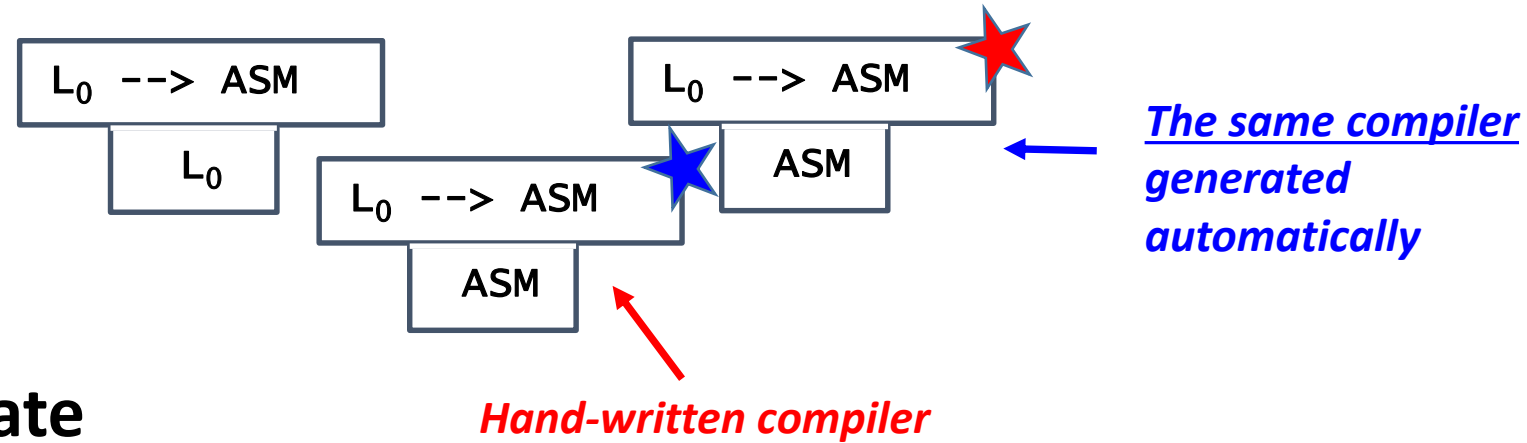
0. Initial development step

"ASM" can be any assembly language:

- Intel x64
- LLVM
- .NET MSIL
- JVM bytecode
- etc.

- Define a very simple subset of the target L language: L_0
- Write the prototype compiler for L_0 in the same L_0 language
- Manually rewrite this prototype compiler in an assembly language

Bootstrapping the Compiler

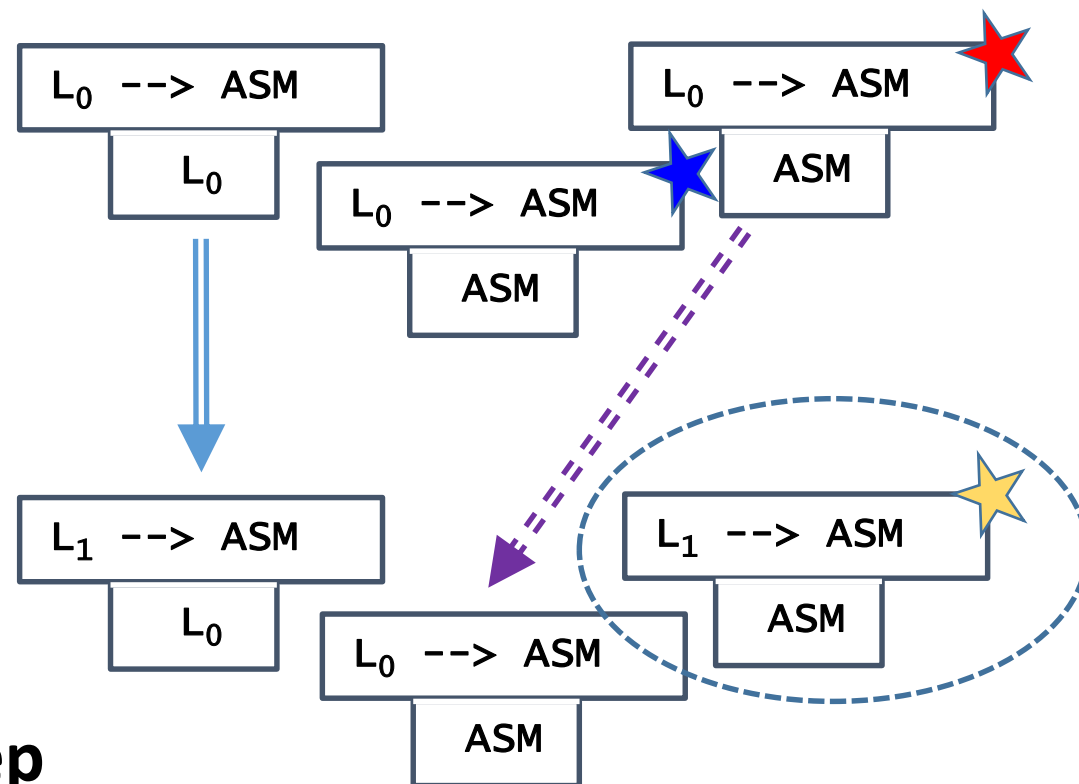


0a. Intermediate development step

- Apply the hand-written compiler to the initially written one

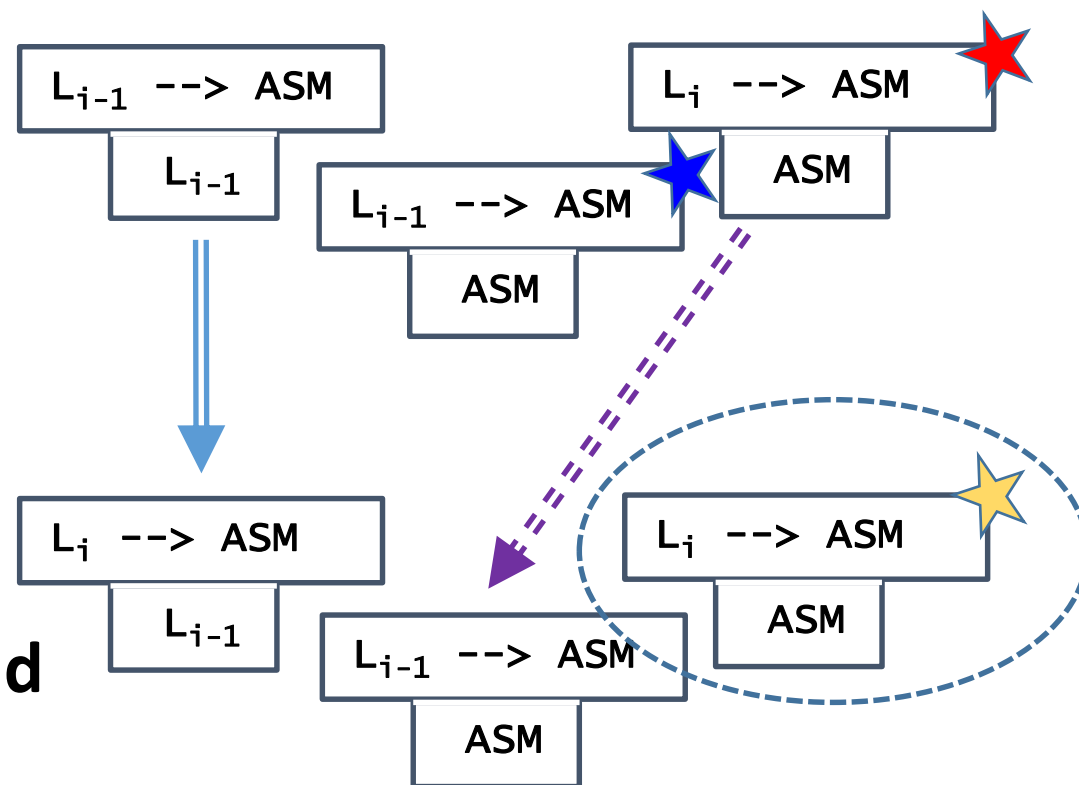
Bootstrapping the Compiler

1. The first development step



- Extend the initial L_0 compiler adding new features: get the L_1 compiler
- Apply the previous version of the compiler to the newer one
- The result: the compiler for the next version of the language.

Bootstrapping the Compiler



2. The second and the following development steps

- Extend the current L_{i-1} compiler adding new features: get the L_i compiler
- Apply the $i-1_{th}$ version of the compiler to the i_{th} one
- The result: the compiler for the next version of the language.