Lecture 21

CS 131: COMPILERS

Announcements

- HW5: Oat v. 2.0
 - records, function pointers, type checking, array-bounds checks, etc.
 - typechecker & safety
 - Due: Friday, December 13th

- HW6: Analysis & Optimizations
 - Alias analysis, constant propagation, dead code elimination, register allocation
 - Available soon
 - Due: December 30th

Compiling lambda calculus to straight-line code.

Representing evaluation environments at runtime.

CLOSURE CONVERSION REVISITED

Compiling First-class Functions

- To implement first-class functions on a processor, there are two problems:
 - First: we must implement substitution of free variables
 - Second: we must separate 'code' from 'data'

Reify the substitution:

- Move substitution from the meta language to the object language by making the data structure & lookup operation explicit
- The environment-based interpreter is one step in this direction

Closure Conversion:

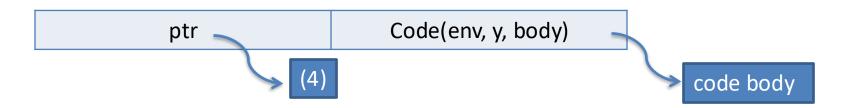
 Eliminates free variables by packaging up the needed environment in the data structure.

Hoisting:

Separates code from data, pulling closed code to the top level.

Example of closure creation

- Recall the "add" function:
 let add = fun x -> fun y -> x + y
- Consider the inner function: fun y -> x + y
- When run the function application: add 4 the program builds a closure and returns it.
 - The closure is a pair of the environment and a code pointer.

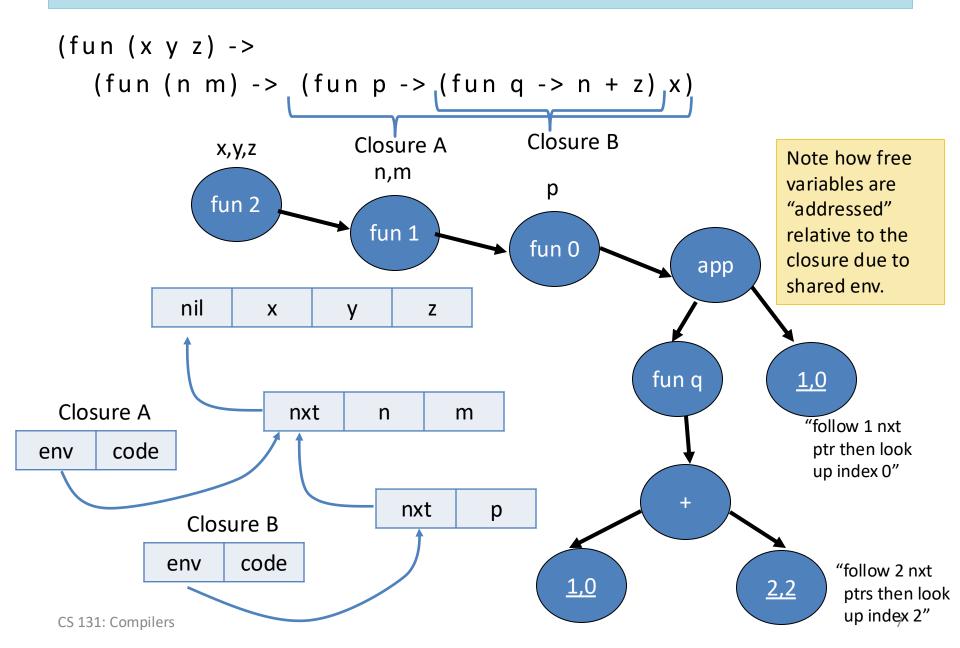


- The code pointer takes a pair of parameters: env and y
 - The function code is (essentially): fun (env, y) -> let x = nth env 0 in x + y

Representing Closures

- As we saw, the simple closure conversion algorithm doesn't generate very efficient code.
 - It stores all the values for variables in the environment,
 even if they aren't needed by the function body.
 - It copies the environment values each time a nested closure is created.
 - It uses a linked-list datastructure for tuples.
- There are many options:
 - Store only the values for free variables in the body of the closure.
 - Share subcomponents of the environment to avoid copying
 - Use vectors or arrays rather than linked structures

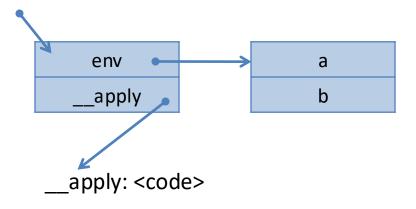
Array-based Closures with N-ary Functions



Observe: Closure ≈ **Single-method Object**

- Free variables
- Environment pointer
- Closure for function:

fun
$$(x,y)$$
 -> $x + y + a + b$



```
≈ Fields
```

- ≈ "this" parameter
- ≈ Instance of this class:

```
class C {
  int a, b;
  int apply(x,y) {
    x + y + a + b
  }
}

D.V. __apply
  a
  b __apply: <code>
```

Optimizations

Source Code (Character stream) if $(b == 0) \{ a = 1; \}$

Token stream:

if

b

==

0

a

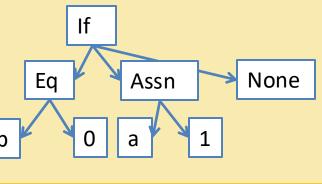
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Parsing

Lexical Analysis

Abstract Syntax Tree:



Intermediate code:

%cnd = icmp eq i64 %b, 0 br i1 %cnd, label %l2, label %l3 12: store i64* %a, 1 br label %13 13:

Analysis & **Transformation**

Backend

Assembly Code

11: cmpq %eax, \$0 jeq l2 imp 13 12:

10

Why optimize?

OPTIMIZATIONS, GENERALLY

Optimizations

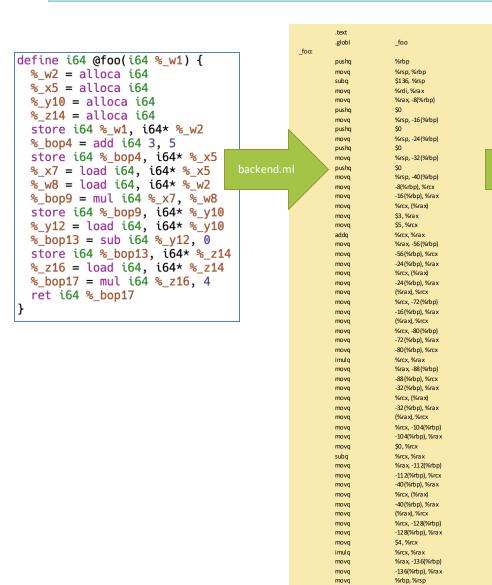
- The code generated by our OAT compiler so far is pretty inefficient.
 - Lots of redundant moves.
 - Lots of unnecessary arithmetic instructions.
- Consider this OAT program:

```
% w2 = alloca i64
int foo(int w) {
                                                   x5 = alloca i64
                                                   % v10 = alloca i64
                                                   % z14 = alloca i64
 var x = 3 + 5;
                                                   store i64 %_w1, i64* %_w2
                                                   % bop4 = add i64 3, 5
 var y = x * w;
                                                   store i64 % bop4, i64* % x5
                                                   x7 = load i64, i64*  x5
 var z = y - 0;
                                                   %_w8 = load i64, i64* %_w2
                                                   % bop9 = mul i64 % x7, % w8
 return z * 4;
                                                   store i64 %_bop9, i64* %_y10
                                                   % y12 = load i64, i64* % y10
                                                   % bop13 = sub i64 \% y12, 0
                                                   store i64 % bop13, i64* % z14
                                                   %_z16 = load i64, i64* %_z14
                                                   % bop17 = mul i64 % z16, 4
                                                   ret i64 % bop17
```

define i64 @foo(i64 % w1) {

opt-example.c, opt-example.oat

Unoptimized vs. Optimized Output



Optimized code:

```
__foo:
    pushq %rbp
    movq %rsp, %rbp
    movq %rdi, %rax
    shlq $5, %rax
    popq %rbp
    retq
```

- Code above generated by clang –O3
- Function foo may be inlined by the compiler, so it can be implemented by just one instruction!

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popq

retq

%rbp

Why do we need optimizations?

- To help programmers...
 - They write modular, clean, high-level programs
 - Compiler generates efficient, high-performance assembly
- Programmers don't write optimal code
- High-level languages make avoiding redundant computation inconvenient or impossible
 - e.g. A[i][j] = A[i][j] + 1

In Oat/ Java it's not possible for the programmer to manually express the sharing of the two computations of A[i][j] because there is no concept of "interior pointer".

- Architectural independence
 - Optimal code depends on features not expressed to the programmer
 - Modern architectures assume optimization
- Different kinds of optimizations:
 - Time: improve execution speed
 - Space: reduce amount of memory needed
 - Power: lower power consumption (e.g. to extend battery life)

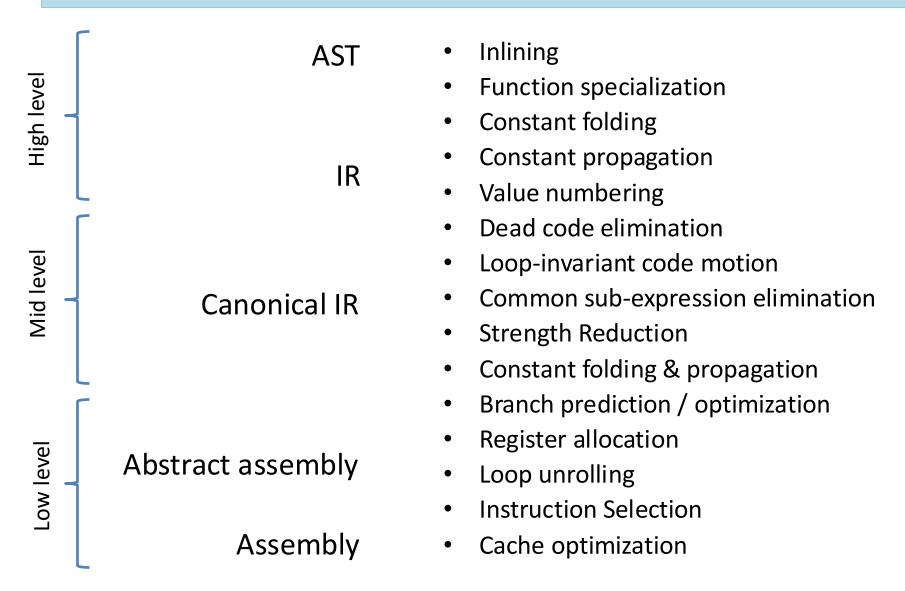
Some caveats

- Optimization are code transformations:
 - They can be applied at any stage of the compiler
 - They must be sound they shouldn't change the meaning of the program.
- In general, optimizations require some *program analysis*:
 - To determine if the transformation really is safe
 - To determine whether the transformation is cost effective.

(static) program analysis: the process of (soundly) approximating the dynamic behavior of a program at compile time, usually by representing some facts about the state of the computation at each program point.

- This course: most common and valuable performance optimizations
 - See Muchnick (optional text) for ~10 chapters about optimization

When to apply optimization



Where to Optimize?

- Usual goal: improve time performance
- Problem: many optimizations trade space for time
- Example: Loop unrolling

```
- Idea: rewrite a loop like:
    for(int i=0; i<100; i=i+1) {
        s = s + a[i];
    }
- Into a loop like:
    for(int i=0; i<99; i=i+2){
        s = s + a[i];
        s = s + a[i+1];
    }</pre>
```

- Tradeoffs:
 - Increasing code space slows down whole program a tiny bit (extra instructions to manage) but speeds up the loop a lot
 - For frequently executed code with long loops: generally a win
 - Interacts with instruction cache and branch prediction hardware

Complex optimizations may never pay off!

Writing Fast Programs In Practice

- Pick the right algorithms and data structures.
 - These have a much bigger impact on performance than compiler optimizations.
 - Reduce # of operations
 - Reduce memory accesses
 - Minimize indirection it breaks working-set coherence
- *Then* turn on compiler optimizations
- Profile to determine program hot spots
- Evaluate whether the algorithm/data structure design works
- …if so: "tweak" the source code until the optimizer does "the right thing" to the machine code

Soundness

- Whether an optimization is **sound** (i.e., correct) depends on the programming language semantics.
 - Languages that provide weaker guarantees to the programmer permit more optimizations but have more ambiguity in their behavior.
 - e.g., In C, writing to unallocated memory is undefined behavior, so the compiler can do anything if a program writes to an array out of bounds.
 - e.g., In Java, tail-call optimization (which turns recursive function calls into loops) is not valid because of "stack inspection".
- Example: loop-invariant code motion
 - Idea: hoist invariant code out of a loop

```
while (b) { z = y/x; z = y/x
```

- Is this more efficient?
- Is this safe?

A high-level tour of a variety of optimizations.

BASIC OPTIMIZATIONS

Constant Folding

 Idea: If operands are known at compile type, perform the operation statically.

int
$$x = (2 + 3) * y \rightarrow int x = 5 * y$$

b & false

→ false

- Performed at every stage of optimization...
- Why?
 - Constant expressions can be created by translation or earlier optimizations
 Example: A[2] might be compiled to:

 $MEM[MEM[A] + 2 * 4] \rightarrow MEM[MEM[A] + 8]$

Constant Folding Conditionals

Algebraic Simplification

- More general form of constant folding
 - Take advantage of mathematically sound simplification rules
- Mathematical identities:
 - $a * 1 \rightarrow a \qquad a * 0 \rightarrow 0$ $a + 0 \rightarrow a \qquad a 0 \rightarrow a$ $b \mid false \rightarrow b \qquad b \& true \rightarrow b$
- Reassociation & commutativity:
 - $(a+1)+2 \rightarrow a+(1+2) \rightarrow a+3$ - $(2+a)+4 \rightarrow (a+2)+4 \rightarrow a+(2+4) \rightarrow a+6$
- Strength reduction: (replace expensive op with cheaper op)
- Note 1: must be careful with floating point (due to rounding) and integer arithmetic (due to overflow/underflow)
- Note 2: iteration of these optimizations is useful... how much?
- Note 3: must be sure that rewrites terminate:
 - commutativity apply like: $(x + y) \rightarrow (y + x) \rightarrow (x + y) \rightarrow (y + x) \rightarrow ...$