Topic 17 – Optimization

Key Ideas

- Common Subexpression Elimination
- Register Allocation
- Constant Folding
- Constant Propagation
- Dead-code Elimination
- Strength Reduction
- Inlining Procedures
- Tail Recursion

References

 Basics of Compiler Design by Torben Ægidius Mogensen sections 11.1 – 11.7 for more detailed explanation

Optimization

Overview

- Recall: for any WLP4 program there are an infinite number of equivalent MIPS assembly language programs.
- What criteria to we use to decide if one compiled version of a WLP4 program is better than another?
 - Answer: the time it takes for the program to run
- Finding the equivalent program with the minimum runtime is uncomputable, so we must...
- Use *heuristics*: i.e. *recognize* a pattern of instructions and *replace* them with an equivalent set that
 - runs quicker or
 - (as an approximation) uses a smaller number of instructions

Optimization

Overview

- Key Point: These patterns do not necessarily appear in the WLP4 source code
 - They may appear because code is generated by looking at one single node in the parse tree at a time
- *Observation:* for the code x = x+1;
 - in the subtree on the *left hand side* of the '=' sign the parser will generate code that gets the address of 'x'
 - on the subtree on the right hand side of the '=' sign the parser will generate code that gets the address of 'x'
 - the parser created code to calculate the same value twice
 - this observation leads to one form of optimization...

Optimization: Common Subexpression

Common Subexpression Elimination

- Idea: store the results of common subexpressions (often generated by the compiler not the programmer) in registers
- For example: (a+b) * (a+b),
 - calculate the answer to a+b and store in \$3 then mult \$3, \$3
 mflo \$3
- For "x = x+1" calculate the address of x once, use it twice
- Caution: it may not work with functions, e.g. f(1)+f(1) since the functions may have side effects, such as print output
- Note: It takes resources to find these common subexpressions
- the "g++" command runs much quicker than "g++ -O3"

Optimization: Register Allocation

Register Allocation

- Observation: accessing a register is much quicker than accessing the stack or RAM in general
- using registers also eliminates the code that pushes and pops from the stack, or lw and sw instructions for accessing RAM
- our code generator does not use registers \$14-\$28
- Challenge: must decide how to allocate them if there are more than 15 variables, typically "most used", or "most recently used"
- allocating these registers wisely is a key optimization strategy
- Caution: you cannot use the address-of operator on a register location, only a RAM location, so push these values into RAM

Optimization: Register Allocation

Register Allocation

- Idea: keep track of the live ranges of each variable: from where it is assigned a value to thelocation where it is used with that value.
- If the live ranges of two variables intersect, then you must use two different registers.
- If the live ranges do not intersect, you can reuse the register.

```
int x = 0;
int y = 0;
int z = 0;

x = 3;
 x

y = 4;
 x = x + 1;
println(x);
println(y);
z = 7;
z
```

The live ranges of x and y intersect. The live range of z does not intersect with x or y.

Optimization: Register Allocation

Register Allocation

- Idea: code () specifies available registers in avail and returns where the result is located, e.g. for expr₁ → expr₂ + term
- after generating the code for expr₂, the result is in s
- when generating the code for term, the set avail minus the register s is available for use
- Enhancement: provide the ability to specify where you want the result stored

```
// old way
code (expr1) =
code (expr2)
push $3
code (term)
pop $5
add $3, $5, $3
// new way
code(expr1, avail) =
s = code(expr2, avail)
t = code(term, avail\{s})
add $s, $s, $t
return s
```

Optimization: Constant Folding

Example: Code for 2+3

 reduce the number of instructions by calculating answers involving constants at compile time

```
Currently 9 Instructions
                                        Only 2 Instructions
                               VS.
code(2+3) =
                                        code(2+3) =
                                            lis $3
    lis $3
                     : load 2
    .word 2
                                            .word 5
    sw $3, -4(30) ; push 2 on stack
    sub $30, $30, $4
    lis $3
                     : load 3
    .word 3
    Iw $5, 0($30) ; pop 2 off stack
    add $30, $30, $4
    add $3, $5, $3 ; answer
```

Optimization: Constant Propagation

Constant Propagation

```
WLP4 Code: int x = 2;
    // value of x does not change
    return x + x;
```

- Approach: Recognize that the value doesn't change and return 4.
- If it is the only place that x is used, it does not need a stack entry.
- What our compiler currently does:
 - load the value 2 into \$3 (2 instructions): lis and .word
 - store result in x (1 instruction): sw
 - push x on stack (3 instructions): lw, sw and sub
 - load x in \$3 (1 instruction): lw
 - move x from stack to \$5 (2 instructions): Iw and sub
 - then add \$5 and \$3 (1 instruction): add

Optimization: Constant Propagation

Constant Propagation

```
WLP4 Code: int x = 2;
    // value of x does not change
    return x + x;
```

Since x is always 2, the compiler could do the following

Optimization: Constant Propagation

Constant Propagation

- Challenge: need a way to detect and propagate constants
- Solution: The function code() could return an order pair (encoding, value) e.g.
 - (register, 3) would say the result is in \$3 (this has been the only option so far)
 - (const, 2) would say the result is the constant 2
- E.g. if the rule $expr_1 \rightarrow expr_2 + term$ had $expr_2$ and term both evaluate to constants, e.g. (const, 2) and (const, 3), then $expr_1$ would evaluate to (const, 5)
- (const, 5) would result in two lines of code
 lis \$3
 word 5

Optimization: Dead-code Elimination

Dead code

- Sometimes when code is generated, dead code is created.
- Dead code is
 - code that is never executed, e.g.
 - because a logical test is always false
 - because it occurs after a return statement
 - code that is executed but whose results are never used
- Idea: detect and do not output dead code.

Optimization: Strength Reduction

Strength Reduction

- Approach: some operations can be replaced by faster ones
- Observation: generally (on a real processor) addition is quicker than multiplication so for small values replace it by addition.

```
Currently 8 Instructions
                                             Only 1 Instruction
                                VS.
                                             code(n*2;) =
code(n*2;) =
   sw $3, 0(30) ; push n on stack
                                                add $3, $3, $3
   sub $30, $30, $4
   lis $3
                     ; load 2 into $3
   .word 2
   lw $5, 0($30)
                    ; pop n off stack
   add $30, $30, $4
   mult $3, $5
                ; multiply 2 * n
   mflo $3
                     ; load answer in $3
```

Optimization: Inlining Procedures

Inlining Procedures

Inlining replace a function call with the body of the function, i.e.

Replace

```
int f(int x) { return x+x; }
int wain(int a, int b) { return f(a); }
with
int wain(int a, int b) { return a+a; }
```

- Pros:
 - if all calls to **f** are in-lined, no need to generate code for **f** at all
 - save overhead of creating a stack frame for **£**
- Con:
 - if **f** is big or used often, then we generate a lot of extra code
 - difficult to do for recursive functions

Optimization: Tail Recursion in Procedures

Tail Recursion

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

- Note: the very last instruction the function does is a recursive call, i.e. else return fact(...);
- Optimization: The content of the current stack frame (local variables etc.) will not be used again in the call of the function, therefore ⇒ reuse the stack frame for the next recursive call

Optimization

Intermediate Code

- Challenge: one of the challenges that many of these approaches have is that it is difficult to find patterns such as common subexpressions
- Approach: generally, but beyond the scope of this course, after the lexical, syntactic, and semantic analysis stages, an intermediate code (rather than assembly language) is generated with the idea that this code is easier to optimize than the final assembly language
- After optimization the intermediate code is converted to assembly language for a particular processor.
- Would only need to change the final step to create code for different processors (x86-64 vs. ARM-8 vs. MIPS)