IA010: Principles of Programming Languages Optimisation

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Optimisation

- generally a good idea
- **slow**, currently the largest contribution to a compiler's runtime (together with type checking)
- trade-off: speed vs. code size
- makes debugging harder (stepping through code)
- reduces predictability (hard to predict what code is produced, optimisations can be very fragile)
- required for abstraction-heavy programming styles

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Low-Level Optimisation: preserves the source code and tries to improve the translation to assembler

High-Level Optimisation: transforms the source code to make it more efficient

Optimisation: Inlining

Inlining: insert the function body at the function call

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- avoids the overhead of a function call
- enables further optimisations
- increases code size
- hard to predict whether a function call will be inlined

Optimisation: Constant Folding and Propagation

Constant Propagation: replace variables with known values by constants

Constant Folding: evaluate operations with constant arguments

<pre>let x = 1;</pre>	<pre>let x = 1;</pre>	let x = 1;	let $x = 1;$
let y = 2;	let y = 2;	let y = 2;	let y = 2;
let $z = x + y;$	let z = 1 + 2;	let z = 3;	let z = 3;
f(z)	f(z)	f(z)	f (3)

Optimisation: Common Subexpression Elimination

Common Subexpression Elimination: compute common expressions only once

f(x + 1, x + 1) f(z, z) let z = x + 1;

Optimisation: Function Specialisation

Function Specialisation: generate special instances of functions with known arguments

let f(x, y) { ... x ... y ... }
f(u, 1)

let f(x, y) { ... x ... y ...}
let f1(x) { ... x ... 1 ...}
f1(u)

Optimisation: Dead Code Elimination

Dead Code Elimination: remove unreachable code

Optimisation: Dead Store Elimination

Dead Store Elimination: remove assignments to variables that are not used anymore

let x = 1; let x = 1; f(x); f(x); x := 2; g(); g();

Optimisation: Code Motion

Moving Code out of Branches or Loops

if $x > 0$ then	if $x > 0$ then
f(x);	f(x);
g(x);	else
else	h(x);
h(x);	end;
g(x);	g(x);
end;	

Moving Code into Branches

if $x > 0$ then	if $x > 0$ then
f(x);	f(x);
else	if $x > 0$ then $h(x)$ else $k(x)$ end;
g(x);	else
end;	g(x);
if $x > 0$ then	if $x > 0$ then $h(x)$ else $k(x)$ end;
h(x);	end
else	
k(x);	

end:

Optimisation: Loop Unrolling

Loop Unrolling: duplicate the body of loops

```
for i = 0 to n-1 {
    a[i] = f(i);
}
```

```
for i = 0 to n/4 - 1 {
    a[4*i] = f(4*i);
    a[4*i+1] = f(4*i+1);
    a[4*i+2] = f(4*i+2);
    a[4*i+3] = f(4*i+3);
}
```

Dataflow Analysis

General Idea:

- compute information about each identifier
- this information is ordered (less knowledge < more knowledge)
- compute a least fixed-point by iteration:
 - start with the empty information
 - go over the whole program and add any information we can deduce
 - repeat until nothing can be added anymore

This gets more complicated, if one wants to support first-class functions (\Rightarrow *k*-CFA algorithm).

Alias Analysis

Problem: For many optimisations we need to know which memory locations can be accessed by other pointers.

This is particularly important when deciding which variables can be kept in registers.

Solution: Use dataflow analysis to determine which values get their address taken.

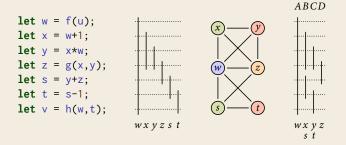
Register Allocation

Idea: minimise the number of local variables on the stack by keeping *n* of them in registers.

Algorithm: reduction to the graph colouring problem With each variable associate the interval where it is used.

vertices: variables edges: intersecting intervals

Any *n*-colouring of this graph gives a valid register assignment.



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Complications

- If no assignment exists, we have to split intervals.
- Assembler instructions may require arguments in specific registers.