Intermediate Code & Local Optimizations

Lecture 14

Lecture Outline

• Intermediate code
• Local optimizations
• Next time: global optimizations

Lecture Outline

Code Generation Summary

• We have discussed
  - Runtime organization
  - Simple stack machine code generation
  - Improvements to stack machine code generation
• Our compiler maps AST to assembly language
  - And does not perform optimizations

Optimization

• Optimization is our last compiler phase
• Most complexity in modern compilers is in the optimizer
  - Also by far the largest phase
• First, we need to discuss intermediate languages

Intermediate Languages

• Intermediate language = high-level assembly
  - Uses register names, but has an unlimited number
  - Uses control structures like assembly language
  - Uses opcodes but some are higher level
    - E.g., push translates to several assembly instructions
    - Most opcodes correspond directly to assembly opcodes

Why Intermediate Languages?

• When should we perform optimizations?
  - On AST
    - Pro: Machine independent
    - Con: Too high level
  - On assembly language
    - Pro: Exposes optimization opportunities
    - Con: Machine dependent
    - Con: Must reimplement optimizations when retargetting
  - On an intermediate language
    - Pro: Machine independent
    - Pro: Exposes optimization opportunities

Intermediate Languages
Three-Address Intermediate Code

• Each instruction is of the form
  \( x := y \ op \ z \)
  \( x := \ op \ y \)
  - \( y \) and \( z \) are registers or constants
  - Common form of intermediate code
• The expression \( x + y \ast z \) is translated
  \( t_1 := y \ast z \)
  \( t_2 := x + t_1 \)
  - Each subexpression has a "name"

Generating Intermediate Code

• Similar to assembly code generation
• But use any number of IL registers to hold intermediate results

Generating Intermediate Code (Cont.)

• \( \text{igen}(e, t) \) function generates code to compute the value of \( e \) in register \( t \)
• Example:
  \( \text{igen}(e_1 + e_2, t) = \)
  \( \text{igen}(e_1, t_1) \) (\( t_1 \) is a fresh register)
  \( \text{igen}(e_2, t_2) \) (\( t_2 \) is a fresh register)
  \( t := t_1 + t_2 \)
• Unlimited number of registers
  \( \Rightarrow \) simple code generation

Intermediate Code Notes

• You should be able to use intermediate code
  - At the level discussed in lecture
• You are not expected to know how to generate intermediate code
  - Because we won’t discuss it
  - But really just a variation on code generation . . .

An Intermediate Language

\[
\begin{align*}
P & \rightarrow S \mid e \\
S & \rightarrow \ id := \ id \ op \ \ id \\
& \mid \ id := \ \ op \ \ id \\
& \mid \ id := \ id \\
& \mid \ push \ \ id \\
& \mid \ id := \ \ pop \\
& \mid \ if \ \ id \ \ relop \ \ id \ \ goto \ \ L \\
& \mid \ L: \\
& \mid \ \ jump \ \ L
\end{align*}
\]
• \( id's \) are register names
• Constants can replace \( id's \)
• Typical operators: +, -, *

Definition. Basic Blocks

• A basic block is a maximal sequence of instructions with:
  - no labels (except at the first instruction), and
  - no jumps (except in the last instruction)
• Idea:
  - Cannot jump into a basic block (except at beginning)
  - Cannot jump out of a basic block (except at end)
  - A basic block is a single-entry, single-exit, straight-line code segment
Basic Block Example

- Consider the basic block
  1. \( L: \)
  2. \( t := 2 \times x \)
  3. \( w := t + x \)
  4. if \( w > 0 \) goto \( L' \)

- (3) executes only after (2)
  - We can change (3) to \( w := 3 \times x \)
  - Can we eliminate (2) as well?

Definition. Control-Flow Graphs

- A control-flow graph is a directed graph with
  - Basic blocks as nodes
  - An edge from block A to block B if the execution can pass from the last instruction in A to the first instruction in B
    - E.g., the last instruction in A is \textit{jump} \( L_0 \)
    - E.g., execution can fall-through from block A to block B

Example of Control-Flow Graphs

- The body of a method (or procedure) can be represented as a control-flow graph
- There is one initial node
- All "return" nodes are terminal

Optimization Overview

- Optimization seeks to improve a program's resource utilization
  - Execution time (most often)
  - Code size
  - Network messages sent, etc.
- Optimization should not alter what the program computes
  - The answer must still be the same

A Classification of Optimizations

- For languages like C and Cool there are three granularities of optimizations
  1. Local optimizations
    - Apply to a basic block in isolation
  2. Global optimizations
    - Apply to a control-flow graph (method body) in isolation
  3. Inter-procedural optimizations
    - Apply across method boundaries
- Most compilers do (1), many do (2), few do (3)

Cost of Optimizations

- In practice, a conscious decision is made not to implement the fanciest optimization known
  - Why?
    - Some optimizations are hard to implement
    - Some optimizations are costly in compilation time
    - Some optimizations have low benefit
    - Many fancy optimizations are all three!
- Goal: Maximum benefit for minimum cost
Local Optimizations

- The simplest form of optimizations
- No need to analyze the whole procedure body - Just the basic block in question
- Example: algebraic simplification

Algebraic Simplification

- Some statements can be deleted
  \[ x := x + 0 \]
  \[ x := x * 1 \]
- Some statements can be simplified
  \[ x := x * 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x := 0 \]
  \[ y := y ** 2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad y := y * y \]
  \[ x := x * 8 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x := x << 3 \]
  \[ x := x * 15 \quad \Rightarrow \quad t := x << 4; x := t - x \]
  (on some machines \( \ll \) is faster than \(*\); but not on all!)

Constant Folding

- Operations on constants can be computed at compile time
  - If there is a statement \( x := y \text{ op } z \)
  - And \( y \) and \( z \) are constants
  - Then \( y \text{ op } z \) can be computed at compile time
- Example: \( x := 2 + 2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x := 4 \)
- Example: if \( 2 < 0 \) jump L can be deleted
- When might constant folding be dangerous?

Flow of Control Optimizations

- Eliminate unreachable basic blocks:
  - Code that is unreachable from the initial block
  - E.g., basic blocks that are not the target of any jump or "fall through" from a conditional
- Why would such basic blocks occur?
- Removing unreachable code makes the program smaller
  - And sometimes also faster
  - Due to memory cache effects (increased spatial locality)

Single Assignment Form

- Some optimizations are simplified if each register occurs only once on the left-hand side of an assignment
- Rewrite intermediate code in single assignment form
  \[ x := z + y \quad b := z + y \]
  \[ a := x \quad \Rightarrow \quad a := b \]
  \[ x := z * b \quad x := 2 * b \]
  \( (b \) is a fresh register)
  - More complicated in general, due to loops

Common Subexpression Elimination

- If
  - Basic block is in single assignment form
  - A definition \( x := \) is the first use of \( x \) in a block
- Then
  - When two assignments have the same rhs, they compute the same value
- Example:
  \[ x := y + z \quad x := y + z \]
  \[ ... \quad \Rightarrow \quad ... \]
  \[ w := y + z \quad w := x \]
  (the values of \( x, y, \) and \( z \) do not change in the \( ... \) code)
Copy Propagation

- If \( w := x \) appears in a block, replace subsequent uses of \( w \) with uses of \( x \)
  - Assumes single assignment form

- Example:
  
  \[
  \begin{align*}
  b := z + y \\
  a := b \\
  x := 2 * a \\
  \end{align*}
  \]
  
  \[
  \begin{align*}
  b := z + y \\
  a := b \\
  x := 2 * b \\
  \end{align*}
  \]

- Only useful for enabling other optimizations
  - Constant folding
  - Dead code elimination

Copy Propagation and Constant Folding

- Example:
  
  \[
  \begin{align*}
  a := 5 \\
  x := 2 * a \\
  y := x + 6 \\
  t := x * y \\
  \end{align*}
  \]
  
  \[
  \begin{align*}
  x := 10 \\
  y := 16 \\
  t := x << 4 \\
  \end{align*}
  \]

Copy Propagation and Dead Code Elimination

If \( w := \text{rhs} \) appears in a basic block
\( w \) does not appear anywhere else in the program

Then
the statement \( w := \text{rhs} \) is dead and can be eliminated
- \( \text{Dead} = \) does not contribute to the program's result

Example: (\( a \) is not used anywhere else)

\[
\begin{align*}
  x := z + y \\
  a := x \\
  x := 2 * a \\
\end{align*}
\]

Applying Local Optimizations

- Each local optimization does little by itself

- Typically optimizations interact
  - Performing one optimization enables another

- Optimizing compilers repeat optimizations until no improvement is possible
  - The optimizer can also be stopped at any point to limit compilation time

An Example

- Initial code:
  
  \[
  \begin{align*}
  a := x \cdot 2 \\
  b := 3 \\
  c := x \\
  d := c \cdot c \\
  e := b \cdot 2 \\
  f := a + d \\
  g := e \cdot f \\
  \end{align*}
  \]

- Algebraic optimization:
  
  \[
  \begin{align*}
  a := x \cdot 2 \\
  b := 3 \\
  c := x \\
  d := c \cdot c \\
  e := b \cdot 2 \\
  f := a + d \\
  g := e \cdot f \\
  \end{align*}
  \]
An Example

• Algebraic optimization:
  
  \[a := x \times x\]
  \[b := 3\]
  \[c := x\]
  \[d := c \times c\]
  \[e := b \ll 1\]
  \[f := a + d\]
  \[g := e \times f\]

An Example

• Copy propagation:
  
  \[a := x \times x\]
  \[b := 3\]
  \[c := x\]
  \[d := c \times c\]
  \[e := b \ll 1\]
  \[f := a + d\]
  \[g := e \times f\]

An Example

• Copy propagation:

  \[a := x \times x\]
  \[b := 3\]
  \[c := x\]
  \[d := x \times x\]
  \[e := 3 \ll 1\]
  \[f := a + d\]
  \[g := e \times f\]

An Example

• Constant folding:

  \[a := x \times x\]
  \[b := 3\]
  \[c := x\]
  \[d := x \times x\]
  \[e := 6\]
  \[f := a + d\]
  \[g := e \times f\]

An Example

• Common subexpression elimination:

  \[a := x \times x\]
  \[b := 3\]
  \[c := x\]
  \[d := x \times x\]
  \[e := 6\]
  \[f := a + d\]
  \[g := e \times f\]
An Example

- Common subexpression elimination:
  - \( a := x \cdot x \)
  - \( b := 3 \)
  - \( c := x \)
  - \( d := a \)
  - \( e := 6 \)
  - \( f := a + d \)
  - \( g := e \cdot f \)

An Example

- Copy propagation:
  - \( a := x \cdot x \)
  - \( b := 3 \)
  - \( c := x \)
  - \( d := a \)
  - \( e := 6 \)
  - \( f := a + d \)
  - \( g := e \cdot f \)

An Example

- Copy propagation:
  - \( a := x \cdot x \)
  - \( b := 3 \)
  - \( c := x \)
  - \( d := a \)
  - \( e := 6 \)
  - \( f := a + a \)
  - \( g := 6 \cdot f \)

An Example

- Dead code elimination:
  - \( a := x \cdot x \)
  - \( f := a + a \)
  - \( g := 6 \cdot f \)

- This is the final form

Peephole Optimizations on Assembly Code

- These optimizations work on intermediate code
  - Target independent
  - But they can be applied on assembly language also

- Peephole optimization is effective for improving assembly code
  - The “peephole” is a short sequence of (usually contiguous) instructions
  - The optimizer replaces the sequence with another equivalent one (but faster)
Peephole Optimizations (Cont.)

- Write peephole optimizations as replacement rules
  \[ i_1, \ldots, i_n \rightarrow j_1, \ldots, j_m \]
  where the rhs is the improved version of the lhs

- Example:
  
  `move $a $b, move $b $a -> move $a $b`

  - Works if `move $b $a` is not the target of a jump

- Another example:
  
  `addiu $a $a i, addiu $a $a j -> addiu $a $a i+j`

Peephole Optimizations (Cont.)

- Many (but not all) of the basic block optimizations can be cast as peephole optimizations
  - Example: `addiu $a $b 0 -> move $a $b`
  - Example: `move $a $a ->`
  - These two together eliminate `addiu $a $a 0`

- As for local optimizations, peephole optimizations must be applied repeatedly for maximum effect

Local Optimizations: Notes

- Intermediate code is helpful for many optimizations

- Many simple optimizations can still be applied on assembly language

- "Program optimization" is grossly misnamed
  - Code produced by "optimizers" is not optimal in any reasonable sense
  - "Program improvement" is a more appropriate term

- Next time: global optimizations