

Intermediate Code & Local Optimizations

Lecture Outline

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

Code Generation Summary

- We have discussed
 - Simple stack machine code generation
- Compiler maps AST to assembly language directly
 - 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
 - Most real compilers use an intermediate language (IL), which they later convert to assembly or machine language.

Why Intermediate Languages ?

- Slightly higher-level target simplifies translation of AST → Code
- IL can be sufficiently machine-independent to allow multiple backends (translators from IL to machine code) for different machines, which cuts down on labor of porting a compiler.

Intermediate Languages and Optimization

- When to perform optimizations
 - On AST
 - **Pro**: Machine independent
 - **Cons**: Too high level
 - On assembly language
 - **Pro**: Exposes optimization opportunities
 - **Cons**: Machine dependent
 - **Cons**: Must reimplement optimizations when retargeting
 - On an intermediate language
 - **Pro**: Machine independent
 - **Pro**: Exposes optimization opportunities
 - **Cons**: One more language to worry about

Intermediate Languages

- Each compiler uses its own intermediate language
- Intermediate language = high-level assembly language
 - 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

Three-Address Intermediate Code

- Each instruction is of the form

$$x := y \text{ op } z$$
$$x := \text{op } z$$

y and z are registers or constants

Common form of intermediate code

- The expression $x + y * z$ is translated

$$t_1 := y * z$$
$$t_2 := x + t_1$$

- Each subexpression has a "name"

Generating Intermediate Code

- Similar to assembly code generation
- Major difference: Use any number of IL registers to hold intermediate results
- Problem of mapping these IL registers to real ones is for later parts of the compiler.

Generating Intermediate Code (Cont.)

- $Igen(e, t)$ function generates code to compute the value of e in register t
- Example:
$$\begin{aligned} &igen(e_1 + e_2, t) = \\ &\quad igen(e_1, t_1) \quad (t_1, t_2 \text{ are fresh registers}) \\ &\quad igen(e_2, t_2) \\ &\quad t := t_1 + t_2 \quad (\text{means "Emit code 't := t}_1 + t_2\text{' "}) \end{aligned}$$
- 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

$P \rightarrow S P \mid \varepsilon$

$S \rightarrow \text{id} := \text{id op id}$

| $\text{id} := \text{op id}$

| $\text{id} := \text{id}$

| $\text{id} := * \text{id}$

| $* \text{id} := \text{id}$

| param id

| call id

| return [id]

| if id relop id goto L

| L:

| goto L

- id's are register names
- Constants can replace id's on right-hand sides
- Typical operators: +, -, *
- param, call, return are high-level; refer to calling conventions on given machine.

Code Optimization: Basic Concepts

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 in a basic block (except at beginning)
 - Cannot jump out of a basic block (except at end)
 - Each instruction in a basic block is executed after all the preceding instructions have been executed
 - A basic block is a single-entry, single-exit, straight-line code segment

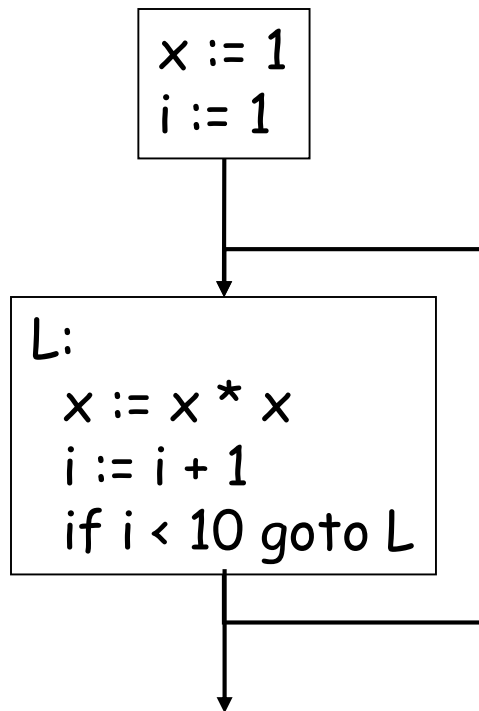
Basic Block Example

- Consider the basic block
 1. $L:$
 2. $t := 2 * x$
 3. $w := t + x$
 4. $\text{if } w > 0 \text{ goto } L'$
- No way for (3) to be executed without (2) having been executed right before
 - We can change (3) to $w := 3 * x$
 - 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 flow from the last instruction in A to the first instruction in B
 - E.g., the last instruction in A is *jump L_B*
 - E.g., the execution can fall-through from block A to block B
- Frequently abbreviated as CFG

Control-Flow Graphs. Example.



- 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 utilization of some resource
 - 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) and very 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

$x := x * 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x := 0$

$y := y ** 2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad y := y * y$

$x := x * 8 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x := x \ll 3$

$x := x * 15 \quad \Rightarrow \quad t := x \ll 4; x := t - x$

(on some machines \ll is faster than $*$; but not on all!)

Constant Folding

- Operations on constants can be computed at compile time
- In general, 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: $x := 2 + 2 \Rightarrow x := 4$
- Example: $\text{if } 2 < 0 \text{ jump } L$ can be deleted
- When might constant folding be dangerous?

Flow of Control Optimizations

- Eliminating unreachable basic blocks:
 - Code that is unreachable from the initial block
 - Basic blocks that are not the target of any jump or “fall through” from a conditional
 - Such basic blocks can be eliminated
- 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 assignment is to a temporary that has not appeared already in the basic block
- Rewrite intermediate code in single assignment form
 - More complicated in general, due to loops

$x := a + y$		$x := a + y$
$a := x$	\Rightarrow	$a_1 := x$
$x := a * x$		$x_1 := a_1 * x$
$b := x + a$		$b := x_1 + a_1$

(x_1 and a_1 are fresh temporaries)

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
- Example:

$x := y + z$

...

$w := y + z$

\Rightarrow

$x := y + z$

...

$w := x$

(the values of x , y , and z do not change in the ... code)

Copy Propagation

- If $w := x$ appears in a block, all subsequent uses of w can be replaced with uses of x
 - Assumes single assignment form
- Example:

$b := z + y$		$b := z + y$
$a := b$	\Rightarrow	$a := b$
$x := 2 * a$		$x := 2 * b$
- Only useful for enabling other optimizations
 - Constant folding
 - Dead code elimination

Copy Propagation and Constant Folding

- Example:

$a := 5$		$a := 5$
$x := 2 * a$	\Rightarrow	$x := 10$
$y := x + 6$		$y := 16$
$t := x * y$		$t := x \ll 4$

Copy Propagation and Dead Code Elimination

If

$w := rhs$ appears in a basic block

w does not appear anywhere else in the program

Then

the statement $w := rhs$ is dead and can be eliminated

- Dead = does not contribute to the program's result

Example: (a is not used anywhere else)

$x := z + y$		$b := z + y$		$b := z + y$
$a := x$	\Rightarrow	$a := b$	\Rightarrow	$x := 2 * b$
$x := 2 * a$		$x := 2 * b$		

Applying Local Optimizations

- Each local optimization does little by itself
- Typically optimizations interact
 - Performing one optimizations enables another
- Optimizing compilers repeat optimizations until no improvement is possible
 - The optimizer can also be stopped at any time to limit compilation time

An Example

- Initial code:

$a := x^{**} 2$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := c * c$

$e := b * 2$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

An Example

- Algebraic optimization:

$a := x^{**} 2$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := c * c$

$e := b * 2$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

An Example

- Algebraic optimization:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := c * c$

$e := b + b$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

An Example

- Copy propagation:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := c * c$

$e := b + b$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

An Example

- Copy propagation:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := x * x$

$e := 3 + 3$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

An Example

- Constant folding:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := x * x$

$e := 3 + 3$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

An Example

- Constant folding:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := x * x$

$e := 6$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

An Example

- Common subexpression elimination:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := x * x$

$e := 6$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

An Example

- Common subexpression elimination:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := a$

$e := 6$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

An Example

- Copy propagation:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := a$

$e := 6$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

An Example

- Copy propagation:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := a$

$e := 6$

$f := a + a$

$g := 6 * f$

An Example

- Dead code elimination:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := a$

$e := 6$

$f := a + a$

$g := 6 * f$

An Example

- Dead code elimination:

$a := x * x$

$f := a + a$

$g := 6 * f$

- This is the final form

Peephole Optimizations on Assembly Code

- The optimizations presented before 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 (but faster) one

Peephole Optimizations (Cont.)

- Write peephole optimizations as replacement rules

$$i_1, \dots, i_n \rightarrow j_1, \dots, j_m$$

where the rhs is the improved version of the lhs

- Examples:

`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: global optimizations