

## Intermediate Code & Local Optimizations

### Lecture 14

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## Lecture Outline

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

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## 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

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## 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

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## 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 retargeting
  - On an intermediate language
    - **Pro:** Machine independent
    - **Pro:** Exposes optimization opportunities

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## 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

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### Three-Address Intermediate Code

- Each instruction is of the form
$$x := y \text{ op } z$$
$$x := \text{op } y$$
  - $y$  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"

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### Generating Intermediate Code

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

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### Generating Intermediate Code (Cont.)

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

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### 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 . . .

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### An Intermediate Language

$P \rightarrow S P \mid \epsilon$   
 $S \rightarrow \text{id} := \text{id op id}$   
     $\mid \text{id} := \text{op id}$   
     $\mid \text{id} := \text{id}$   
     $\mid \text{push id}$   
     $\mid \text{id} := \text{pop}$   
     $\mid \text{if id relop id goto L}$   
     $\mid \text{L:}$   
     $\mid \text{jump L}$

- id's are register names
- Constants can replace id's
- Typical operators: +, -, \*

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### 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

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### Basic Block Example

- Consider the basic block
  - L:
  - $t := 2 * x$
  - $w := t + x$
  - if  $w > 0$  goto L'
- (3) executes only after (2)
  - We can change (3) to  $w := 3 * x$
  - Can we eliminate (2) as well?

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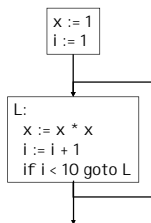
### Definition. Control-Flow Graphs

- 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 `jump LB`
    - E.g., execution can fall-through from block A to block B

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### 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

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### 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

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### A Classification of Optimizations

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

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### 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

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## Local Optimizations

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

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## Algebraic Simplification

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

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## 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:  $x := 2 + 2 \Rightarrow x := 4$
- Example: if  $2 < 0$  jump L can be deleted
- When might constant folding be dangerous?

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## 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)

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## 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
  - $x := z + y \quad b := z + y$
  - $a := x \quad a := b$
  - $x := 2 * x \quad x := 2 * b$
  - ( $b$  is a fresh register)
  - More complicated in general, due to loops

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## 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:
  - $x := y + z \quad x := y + z$
  - $\dots \Rightarrow \dots$
  - $w := y + z \quad w := x$
  - (the values of  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  do not change in the  $\dots$  code)

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## Copy Propagation

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

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

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## Copy Propagation and Constant Folding

- Example:  

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

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## 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)

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

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## 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

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## An Example

- Initial code:  
 $a := x ** 2$   
 $b := 3$   
 $c := x$   
 $d := c * c$   
 $e := b * 2$   
 $f := a + d$   
 $g := e * f$

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## An Example

- Algebraic optimization:  
 $a := x ** 2$   
 $b := 3$   
 $c := x$   
 $d := c * c$   
 $e := b * 2$   
 $f := a + d$   
 $g := e * f$

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### An Example

- Algebraic optimization:

```
a := x * x
b := 3
c := x
d := c * c
e := b << 1
f := a + d
g := e * f
```

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### An Example

- Copy propagation:

```
a := x * x
b := 3
c := x
d := c * c
e := b << 1
f := a + d
g := e * f
```

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### An Example

- Copy propagation:

```
a := x * x
b := 3
c := x
d := x * x
e := 3 << 1
f := a + d
g := e * f
```

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### An Example

- Constant folding:

```
a := x * x
b := 3
c := x
d := x * x
e := 3 << 1
f := a + d
g := e * f
```

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### An Example

- Constant folding:

```
a := x * x
b := 3
c := x
d := x * x
e := 6
f := a + d
g := e * f
```

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### An Example

- Common subexpression elimination:

```
a := x * x
b := 3
c := x
d := x * x
e := 6
f := a + d
g := e * f
```

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### An Example

- Common subexpression elimination:

```
a := x * x
b := 3
c := x
d := a
e := 6
f := a + d
g := e * f
```

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### An Example

- Copy propagation:

```
a := x * x
b := 3
c := x
d := a
e := 6
f := a + d
g := e * f
```

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### An Example

- Copy propagation:

```
a := x * x
b := 3
c := x
d := a
e := 6
f := a + a
g := 6 * f
```

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### An Example

- Dead code elimination:

```
a := x * x
b := 3
c := x
d := a
e := 6
f := a + a
g := 6 * f
```

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### An Example

- Dead code elimination:

```
a := x * x
```

```
f := a + a
g := 6 * f
```

- This is the final form

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### 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)

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### 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

- Example:

`move $a $b, move $b $a`  $\rightarrow$  `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`  $\rightarrow$  `addiu $a $a i+j`

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### Peephole Optimizations (Cont.)

- Many (but not all) of the basic block optimizations can be cast as peephole optimizations

- Example: `addiu $a $b 0`  $\rightarrow$  `move $a $b`

- Example: `move $a $a`  $\rightarrow$

- These two together eliminate `addiu $a $a 0`

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

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### 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

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