

# Intermediate Code & Local Optimizations

## Lecture 14

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# Lecture Outline

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

# Code Generation Summary

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- 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

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- 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

# Why Intermediate Languages?

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- 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

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- 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

# Three-Address Intermediate Code

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- 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”

# Generating Intermediate Code

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



## Generating Intermediate Code (Cont.)

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- $\text{igen}(e, t)$  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  
⇒ simple code generation

# Intermediate Code Notes

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- 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

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$P \rightarrow S P \mid \varepsilon$   
 $S \rightarrow id := id \ op \ id$   
|  $id := op \ id$   
|  $id := id$   
|  $push \ id$   
|  $id := pop$   
|  $if \ id \ relop \ id \ goto \ L$   
|  $L:$   
|  $jump \ L$

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

## Definition. Basic Blocks

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- 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

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

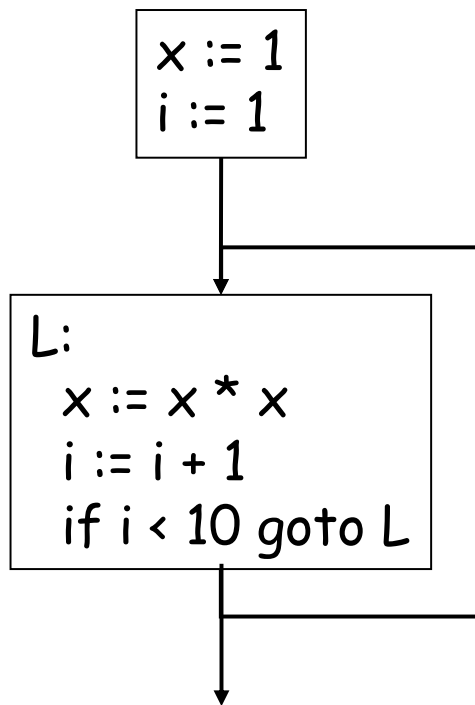
## Definition. Control-Flow Graphs

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- 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

# Example of Control-Flow Graphs

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- 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

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- 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

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- 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

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- 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

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

# Algebraic Simplification

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- 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

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- 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:  $\text{if } 2 < 0 \text{ jump } L$  can be deleted
- When might constant folding be dangerous?

# Flow of Control Optimizations

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- 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

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- 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

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

( $b$  is a fresh register)

- More complicated in general, due to loops

# Common Subexpression Elimination

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- 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:

$x := y + z$

...

$w := y + z$

$\Rightarrow$

$x := y + z$

...

$w := x$

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



# Copy Propagation

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- If  $w := x$  appears in a block, replace subsequent uses of  $w$  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

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- Example:

$a := 5$		$a := 5$
$x := 2 * a$	$\Rightarrow$	$x := 10$
$y := x + 6$		$y := 16$
$t := x * y$		$t := 160$

# Copy Propagation and Dead Code Elimination

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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)

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

# Applying Local Optimizations

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- 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

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- Initial code:

```
a := x ** 2  
b := 3  
c := x  
d := c * c  
e := b * 2  
f := a + d  
g := e * f
```

# An Example

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- Algebraic optimization:

`a := x ** 2`

`b := 3`

`c := x`

`d := c * c`

`e := b * 2`

`f := a + d`

`g := e * f`

# An Example

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- Algebraic optimization:

`a := x * x`

`b := 3`

`c := x`

`d := c * c`

`e := b << 1`

`f := a + d`

`g := e * f`

# An Example

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- Copy propagation:

a := x \* x

b := 3

c := x

d := c \* c

e := b << 1

f := a + d

g := e \* f



# An Example

---

- Copy propagation:

a := x \* x

b := 3

c := x

d := x \* x

e := 3 << 1

f := a + d

g := e \* f

# An Example

---

- Constant folding:

a := x \* x

b := 3

c := x

d := x \* x

e := 3 << 1

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

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- 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

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- 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.)

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- 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` → `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.)

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- 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

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- 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