

Intermediate Code. Local Optimizations

Lecture 17

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Course Evaluation

- Each student receives one form
- Please fill in the form
- Write your name on the postit and hand it to us separately (at end of lecture)
- You will receive credit equiv. to one WA for participating.

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Lecture Outline

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

Code Generation Summary

- We have discussed
 - Runtime organization
 - Simple stack machine code generation
 - Improvements to stack machine code generation
- Our compiler goes directly from AST to assembly language
 - And does not perform optimizations
- Most real compilers use intermediate languages

Why Intermediate Languages ?

- 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 retargetting
 - On an intermediate language
 - **Pro:** Machine independent
 - **Pro:** Exposes optimization opportunities
 - **Cons:** One more language to worry about

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Intermediate Languages

- Each compiler uses its own intermediate language
 - IL design is still an active area of research
- 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

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Three-Address Intermediate Code

- Each instruction is of the form

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

- y and z can be only registers or constants
- Just like assembly

- Common form of intermediate code

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

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

- Each subexpression has a "home" in a temporary

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Generating Intermediate Code

- Similar to assembly code generation
- Major difference
 - Use any number of IL registers to hold intermediate results

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Generating Intermediate Code (Cont.)

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

Intermediate Code. Notes

- Intermediate code is discussed in Ch. 8
 - Required reading
- You should be able to manipulate intermediate code

An Intermediate Language

- $P \rightarrow S P \mid \epsilon$
 $S \rightarrow id := id \text{ op } id$
 | $id := op \ id$
 | $id := id$
 | $push \ id$
 | $id := pop$
 | $if \ id \ relop \ id \ goto \ L$
 | $L:$
 | $jump \ L$
- id's are register names
 - Constants can replace id's
 - Typical operators: +, -, *

Definition. Basic Blocks

- 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

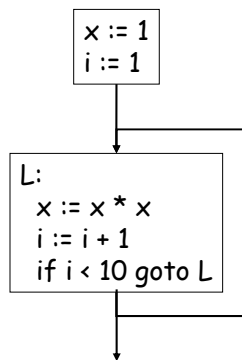
Basic Block Example

- Consider the basic block
 1. L:
 2. $t := 2 * x$
 3. $w := t + x$
 4. if $w > 0$ 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 LB`
 - 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
 - Battery power used, 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 terms of compilation time
 - The fancy optimizations are both hard and costly
- The goal: maximum improvement with minimum of 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 code:
 - Code that is unreachable in the control-flow graph
 - 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
- Intermediate code can be rewritten to be in single assignment form

$$\begin{array}{lcl} x := a + y & & x := a + y \\ a := x & \Rightarrow & a_1 := x \\ x := a * x & & x_1 := a_1 * x \\ b := x + a & & b := x_1 + a_1 \end{array}$$

(x_1 and a_1 are fresh temporaries)

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Common Subexpression Elimination

- Assume
 - Basic block is in single assignment form
- All assignments with same rhs compute the same value
- Example:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} x := y + z & & x := y + z \\ \dots & \Rightarrow & \dots \\ w := y + z & & w := x \end{array}$$

- Why is single assignment important here?

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Copy Propagation

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

- Example:

```
    b := z + y          b := z + y
    a := b              ⇒  a := b
    x := 2 * a          x := 2 * b
```

- This does not make the program smaller or faster but might enable other optimizations
 - Constant folding
 - Dead code elimination
- Again, single assignment is important here.

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Copy Propagation and Constant Folding

- Example:

```
    a := 5              a := 5
    x := 2 * a          ⇒  x := 10
    y := x + 6          y := 16
    t := x * y          t := x << 4
```

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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)

$$\begin{array}{lcl} x := z + y & & b := z + y \\ a := x & \Rightarrow & a := b \\ x := 2 * a & & x := 2 * b \end{array} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} b := z + y \\ x := 2 * b \end{array}$$

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Applying Local Optimizations

- Each local optimization does very little by itself
- Typically optimizations interact
 - Performing one optimizations enables other opt.
- Typical optimizing compilers repeatedly perform optimizations until no improvement is possible
 - The optimizer can also be stopped at any time to limit the 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
```

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
 - They are target independent
 - But they can be applied on assembly language also
- Peephole optimization is an effective technique 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

- 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`
- Just like for local optimizations, peephole optimizations need to be applied repeatedly to get 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