

## Intermediate Code. Local Optimizations

### Lecture 35

(Adapted from notes by R. Bodik and G. Necula)

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1

## 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 goes directly from AST to assembly language
  - And does not perform optimizations
- Most real compilers use intermediate languages

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3

## 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( $e_1 + e_2, t$ ) =  
  igen( $e_1, t_1$ )      ( $t_1$  is a fresh register)  
  igen( $e_2, t_2$ )      ( $t_2$  is a fresh register)  
   $t := t_1 + t_2$ 
```

- Unlimited number of registers  
⇒ simple code generation

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## Intermediate Code. Notes

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

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## An Intermediate Language

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

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## 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?

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## Definition. Control-Flow Graphs

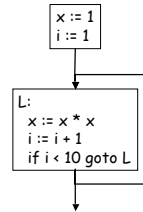
- A *control-flow graph* is a directed graph with
  - Basic blocks as nodes
  - An edge from block A to block B if the execution can flow from the last instruction in A to the first instruction in B
  - E.g., the last instruction in A is `jump LB`
  - E.g., the execution can fall-through from block A to block B
- Frequently abbreviated as CFG

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## 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

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## 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

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## 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)

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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 terms of compilation time
  - The fancy optimizations are both hard and costly
- The goal: maximum improvement with minimum of 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
- 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?

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## 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)

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## 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  
 $x := a + y \quad x := a + y$   
 $a := x \quad \Rightarrow \quad a_1 := x$   
 $x := a * x \quad x_1 := a_1 * x$   
 $b := x + a \quad b := x_1 + a_1$   
( $x_1$  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:  
 $x := y + z \quad x := y + z$   
...  $\Rightarrow$  ...  
 $w := y + z \quad w := x$
- 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:  
 $b := z + y \quad b := z + y$   
 $a := b \quad \Rightarrow \quad a := b$   
 $x := 2 * a \quad x := 2 * b$
- 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
x := 2 * a  ⇒  a := 5
y := x + 6   x := 10
t := x * y   y := 16
              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)

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

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26

## Applying Local Optimizations

- Each local optimization does very little by itself
- Typically optimizations interact
  - Performing one optimization 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
```

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28

## 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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29

## An Example

- Algebraic optimization:

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

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30

## An Example

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- Copy propagation:

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

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31

## An Example

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- Copy propagation:

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

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32

## An Example

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- Constant folding:

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

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33

## An Example

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- Constant folding:

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

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34

## 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
```

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35

## An Example

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- Common subexpression elimination:

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

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36

## 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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37

## 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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38

## 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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39

## An Example

- Dead code elimination:

```
a := x * x

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

- This is the final form

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40

## 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

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41

## 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
```

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42

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

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43

### 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: global optimizations

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44