

# Intermediate Code. Local Optimizations.

## Lecture 22

The image displays a web-based map application. The main map shows a street grid in Madison, WI, with a yellow route highlighted. A detailed inset map shows a close-up of the area around 1210 W Dayton St, with streets like Campus Dr, N Orchard St, N Charter St, N Mills St, W Johnson St, Clymer Pl, W Dayton St, Spring St, and Genny Ct. The interface includes a control panel on the right with the following options:

- PAN BY: FULL SCREEN (with directional arrows)
- PAN BY: HALF SCREEN (with directional arrows)
- ZOOM FAR IN
- ZOOM IN
- ZOOM OUT
- ZOOM FAR OUT
- BLACK&WHITE
- ERASE LABELS
- LESS DETAIL

At the bottom, there is a scale bar for 0.05 MI and a copyright notice: "Map by Maps On Us (R) Map data Copyright Etak, Inc. 1984-2000. All rights reserved. Use subject to LICENSE."

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

# Why Intermediate Languages ?

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- When to 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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- 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

# Three-Address Intermediate Code

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- 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"

# Generating Intermediate Code

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

## Generating Intermediate Code (Cont.)

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- $Igen(e, t)$  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  
     $\Rightarrow$  simple code generation

# An Intermediate Language

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

- 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)
  - Each instruction in a basic block is executed after all the preceding instructions have been executed

# 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'
- No way for (3) to be executed without (2) having been executed right before
  - We know we can change (3) to  $w := 3 * x$
  - Can we eliminate (2) as well?

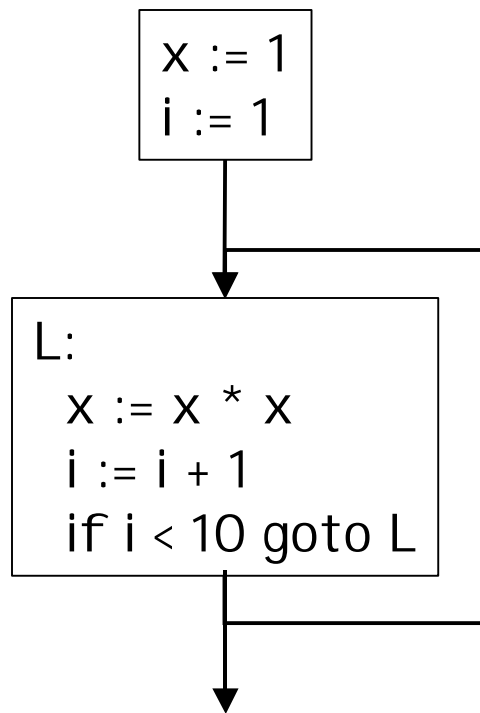
## Definition. Control-Flow Graphs

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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 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

# Control-Flow Graphs. Example.

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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 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

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- For languages like C and Java 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

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

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- 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

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- Some optimizations are simplified if each register occurs only once on the left-hand side of an assignment
- Intermediate code can be rewritten to be in single assignment form

$$\begin{array}{ll} x := z + y & b := z + y \\ a := x & \Rightarrow a := b \\ x := 2 * x & x := 2 * b \\ & \text{(b is a fresh register)} \end{array}$$

- More complicated in general, due to loops

# Common Subexpression Elimination

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- Assume
  - Basic block is in single assignment form
  - A definition  $x :=$  is the first use of  $x$  in a block
- If any assignment 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, all subsequent uses of  $w$  can be replaced with uses of  $x$
- Example:

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

- This does not make the program smaller or faster but might enable other optimizations
  - Constant folding
  - Dead code elimination

# Copy Propagation and Constant Folding

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- Example:

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

# 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)

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

# Applying Local Optimizations

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- 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

# 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

---

- 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

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- Constant folding:

a := x \* x

b := 3

c := x

d := x \* x

e := 3 << 1

f := a + d

g := e \* f

# 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

# 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
```

Note: assume b, c, d, e are temporaries (introduced by the compiler) and hence are not used outside this basic block

# An Example

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- 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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- 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 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  $\rightarrow$  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

## 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

# 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