

# Intermediate Code & Local Optimizations

# Lecture Outline

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- Intermediate code
- Local optimizations

# Code Generation Summary

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- We have so far discussed
  - Runtime organization
  - Simple stack machine code generation
  - Improvements to stack machine code generation
- Our compiler goes directly from the abstract syntax tree (AST) to assembly language
  - And does not perform optimizations
  - (optimization is the last compiler phase, which is by far the largest and most complex these days)
- Most real compilers use intermediate languages

# Why Intermediate Languages?

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## ISSUE: When to perform optimizations

- On abstract syntax trees
  - Pro: Machine independent
  - Con: Too high level
- On assembly language
  - Pro: Exposes most optimization opportunities
  - Con: Machine dependent
  - Con: Must re-implement optimizations when re-targeting
- On an intermediate language
  - Pro: Exposes optimization opportunities
  - Pro: Machine independent

# Why Intermediate Languages?

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- Have many front-ends into a single back-end
  - gcc can handle C, C++, Java, Fortran, Ada, ...
  - each front-end translates source to the same generic language (called GENERIC)
- Have many back-ends from a single front-end
  - Do most optimization on intermediate representation before emitting code targeted at a single machine

# Kinds of Intermediate Languages

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## High-level intermediate representations:

- closer to the source language; e.g., syntax trees
- easy to generate from the input program
- code optimizations may not be straightforward

## Low-level intermediate representations:

- closer to target machine; e.g., P-Code, U-Code (used in PA-RISC and MIPS), GCC's RTL, 3-address code
- easy to generate code from
- generation from input program may require effort

## "Mid"-level intermediate representations:

- Java bytecode, Microsoft CIL, LLVM IR, ...

# Intermediate Code Languages: Design Issues

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- Designing a good ICode language is not trivial
- The set of operators in ICode must be rich enough to allow the implementation of source language operations
- ICode operations that are closely tied to a particular machine or architecture, make retargeting harder
- A small set of operations
  - may lead to long instruction sequences for some source language constructs,
  - but on the other hand makes retargeting easier

# Intermediate Languages

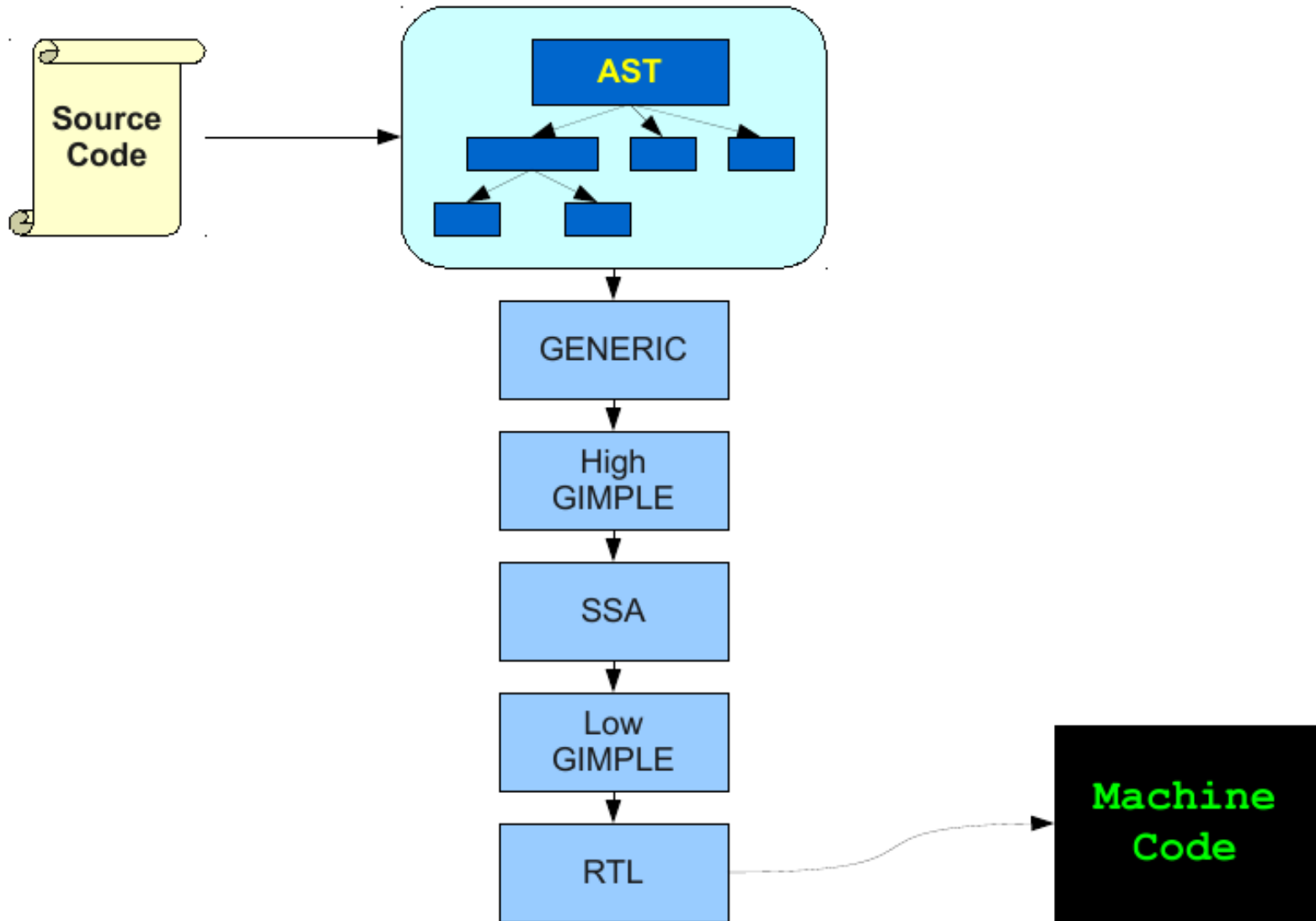
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- Each compiler uses its own intermediate language
  - IL design is still an active area of research
- Nowadays, usually an intermediate language is a high-level assembly language
  - Uses register names, but has an unlimited number
  - Uses control 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



# Architecture of gcc

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# 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 expression  $x + y * z$  is translated as

$t_1 := y * z$

$t_2 := x + t_1$

- temporary names are made up for internal nodes
  - each sub-expression 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

**Example:** `if (x + 2 > 3 * (y - 1) + 42) then z := 0;`

```
t1 := x + 2
```

```
t2 := y - 1
```

```
t3 := 3 * t2
```

```
t4 := t3 + 42
```

```
if t1 <= t4 goto L
```

```
z := 0
```

```
L:
```

## 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  
     $\Rightarrow$  simple code generation

# An Intermediate Language

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$P \rightarrow S P \mid \varepsilon$

$S \rightarrow \text{id} := \text{id op id}$

|  $\text{id} := \text{op id}$

|  $\text{id} := \text{id}$

| push id

|  $\text{id} := \text{pop}$

| if id relop id goto L

| L:

| goto L

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

# From 3-address code to machine code

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This is almost a macro expansion process

3-address code	MIPS assembly code
$x := A[i]$	load $i$ into $r1$ <b>la</b> $r2, A$ <b>add</b> $r2, r2, r1$ <b>lw</b> $r2, (r2)$ <b>sw</b> $r2, x$
$x := y + z$	load $y$ into $r1$ load $z$ into $r2$ <b>add</b> $r3, r1, r2$ <b>sw</b> $r3, x$
if $x \geq y$ goto $L$	load $x$ into $r1$ load $y$ into $r2$ <b>bge</b> $r1, r2, L$

# 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

L:	(1)
$t := 2 * x$	(2)
$w := t + x$	(3)
if $w > 0$ goto L'	(4)

- 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?



# Identifying Basic Blocks

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- Determine the set of *leaders*, i.e., the first instruction of each basic block:
  - The first instruction of a function is a leader
  - Any instruction that is a target of a branch is a leader
  - Any instruction immediately following a (conditional or unconditional) branch is a leader
- For each leader, its basic block consists of itself and all instructions upto, but not including, the next leader (or end of function)

# 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

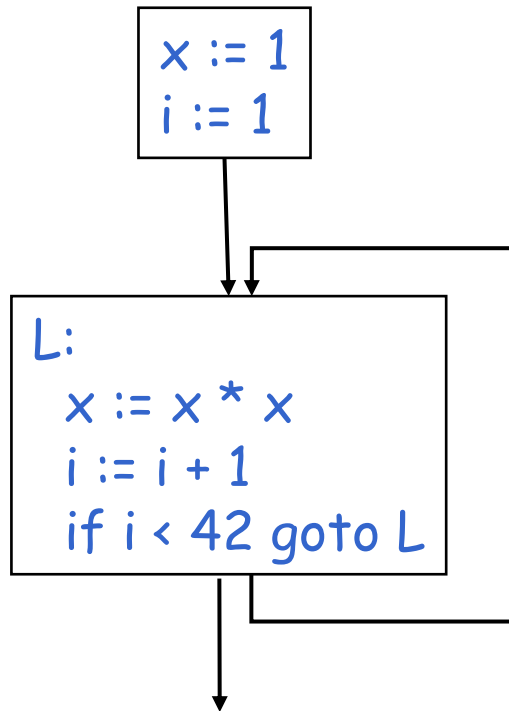
E.g., the last instruction in A is `goto LB`

E.g., the execution can fall-through from block A to block B

Frequently abbreviated as *CFGs*

# Control-Flow Graphs: Example

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- The body of a function (or procedure) can be represented as a control-flow graph
- There is one initial node
- All "return" nodes are terminal

# Constructing the Control Flow Graph

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- Identify the basic blocks of the function
- There is a directed edge between block  $B_1$  to block  $B_2$  if
  - there is a (conditional or unconditional) jump from the last instruction of  $B_1$  to the first instruction of  $B_2$  or
  - $B_2$  immediately follows  $B_1$  in the textual order of the program, and  $B_1$  does not end in an unconditional jump.

# 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
  - (Battery) power used, etc.
- Optimization should not alter what the program computes
  - The answer must still be the same
  - Observable behavior must be the same
    - this typically also includes termination behavior

# A Classification of Optimizations

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For languages like C 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 (function 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
  - 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
- 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:  $\text{if } 2 < 0 \text{ goto } L$  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

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

( $b$  is a fresh temporary)

- More complicated in general, due to control flow (e.g. loops)

# Common Subexpression Elimination

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- Assume
  - A basic block is in single assignment form
  - A definition  $x :=$  is the first use of  $x$  in a block
- All assignments with same RHS 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:

$b := z + y$

$a := b$

$x := 2 * a$

$\Rightarrow$

$b := z + y$

$a := b$

$x := 2 * b$

- 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:

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

# Copy Propagation and Dead Code Elimination

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If

$w := \text{RHS}$  appears in a basic block

$w$  does not appear anywhere else in the program

Then

the statement  $w := \text{RHS}$  is dead and can be eliminated

- Dead = does not contribute to the program's result

Example: ( $a$  is not used anywhere else)

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



# Applying Local Optimizations

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- Each local optimization does very little by itself
- Typically optimizations interact
  - Performing one optimization enables other opt.
- 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
```

assume that only **f** and **g** are used in the rest of program

# An Example

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Algebraic simplification:

$a := x^{**} 2$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := c * c$

$e := b * 2$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

# An Example

---

Algebraic simplification:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := c * c$

$e := b \ll 1$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

# An Example

---

Copy and constant propagation:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := c * c$

$e := b \ll 1$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

# An Example

---

Copy and constant propagation:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := x * x$

$e := 3 \ll 1$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

# An Example

---

Constant folding:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := x * x$

$e := 3 \ll 1$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

# An Example

---

Constant folding:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := x * x$

$e := 6$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$



# An Example

---

Common subexpression elimination:

$a := x * x$

$b := 3$

$c := x$

$d := x * x$

$e := 6$

$f := a + d$

$g := e * f$

# An Example

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Common subexpression elimination:

$a := x * x$

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# An Example

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Copy and constant propagation:

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# An Example

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Copy and constant propagation:

$a := x * x$

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# An Example

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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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- 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)

# Implementing Peephole Optimizations

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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:

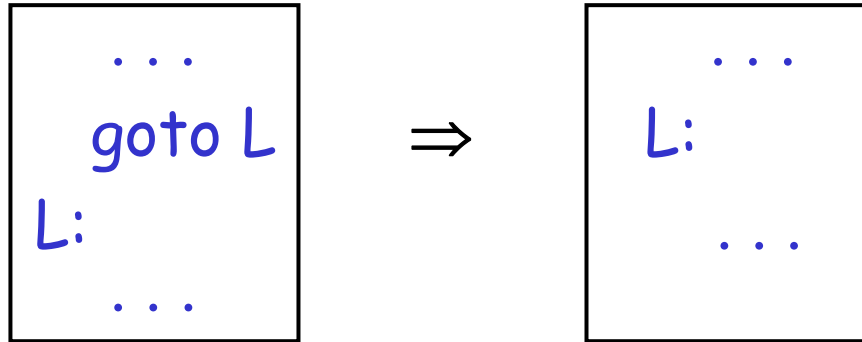
`addiu $a $a i, addiu $a $a j`  $\rightarrow$  `addiu $a $a i+j`



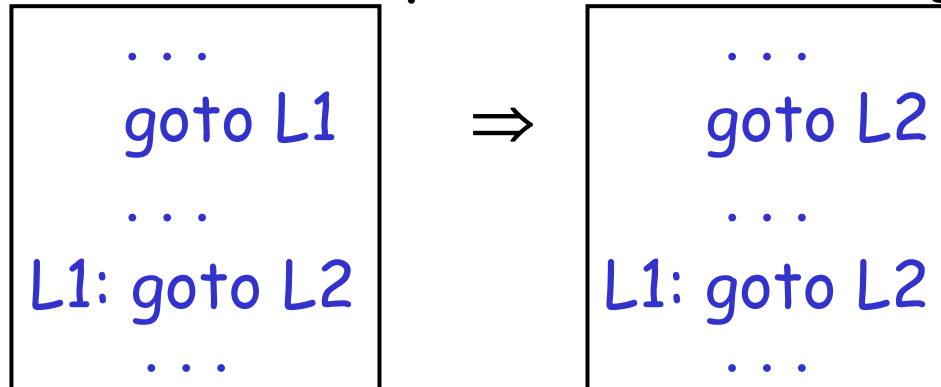
# Peephole Optimizations

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- Redundant instruction elimination, e.g.:



- Flow of control optimizations, e.g.:



## 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: Concluding Remarks

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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