

Compilation

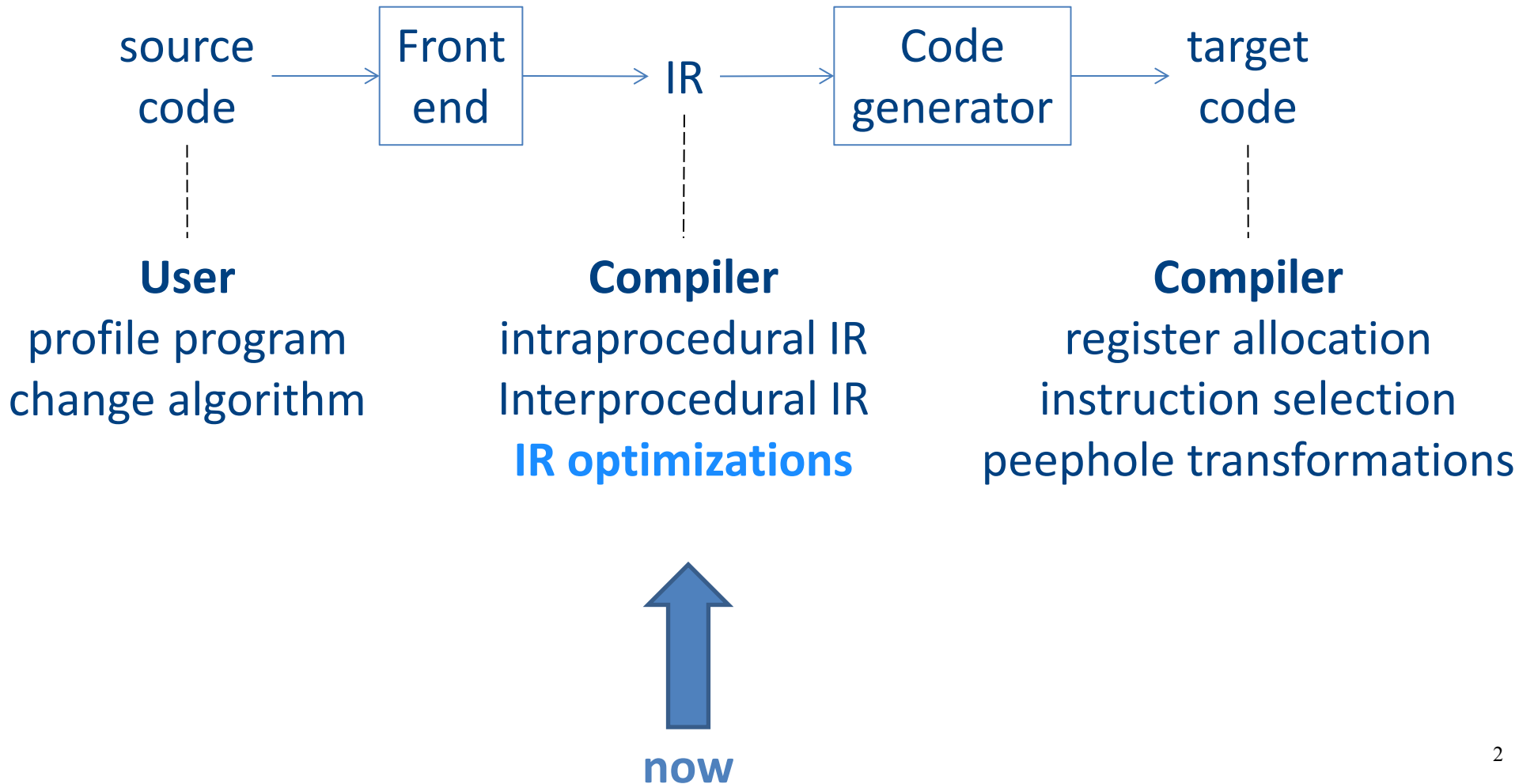
Lecture 10a



Abstract Interpretation

Noam Rinetzky

Optimization points



IR Optimization

- Making code “better”

Overview of IR optimization

- **Formalisms and Terminology**
 - Control-flow graphs
 - Basic blocks
- **Local optimizations**
 - Speeding up small pieces of a procedure
- **Global optimizations**
 - Speeding up procedure as a whole
- **The dataflow framework**
 - Defining and implementing a wide class of optimizations

Program Analysis

- In order to optimize a program, the compiler has to be able to reason about the properties of that program
- An analysis is called **sound** if it never asserts an incorrect fact about a program
- All the analyses we will discuss in this class are sound
 - *(Why?)*

Visualizing IR

main:

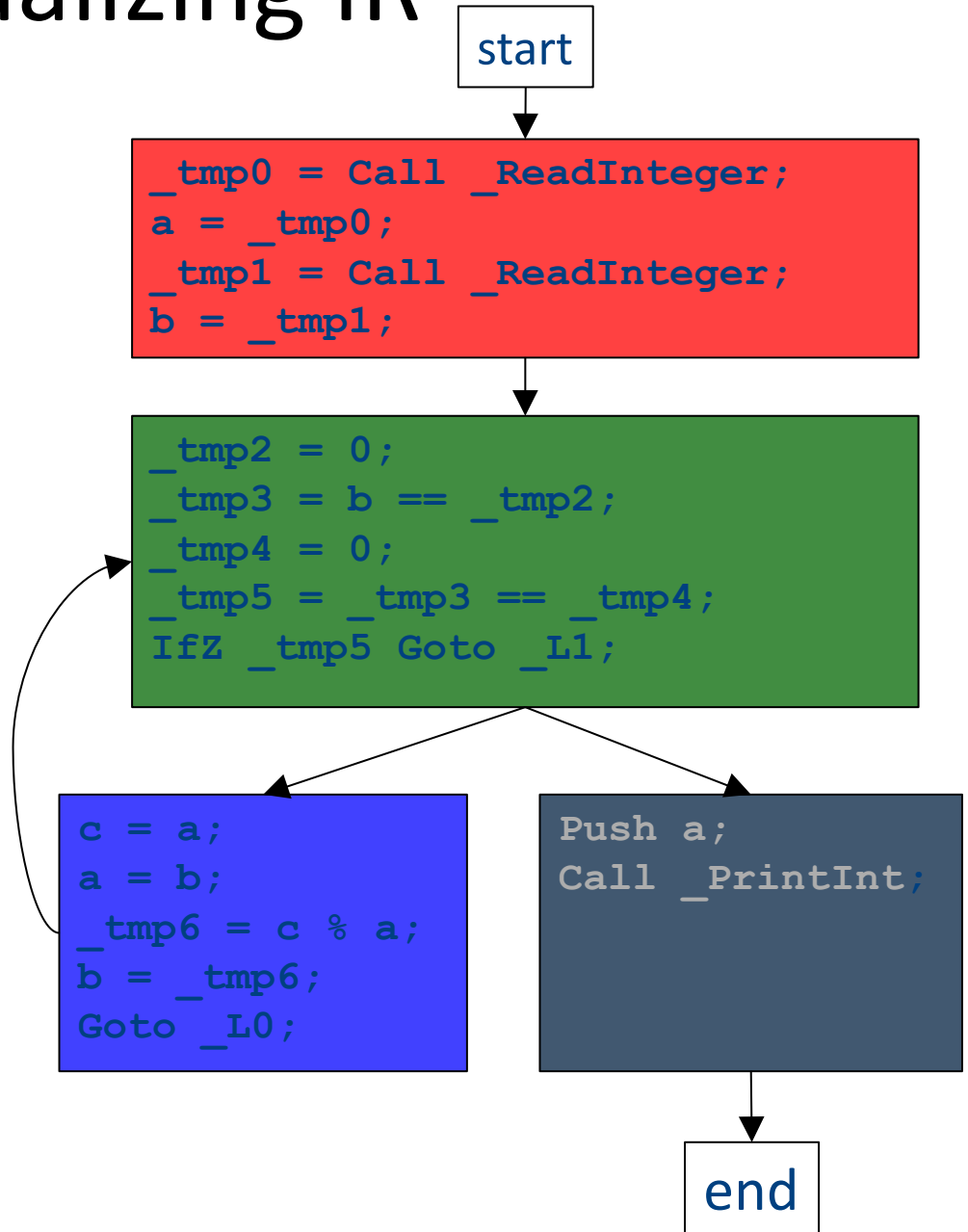
```
_tmp0 = Call _ReadInteger;  
a = _tmp0;  
_tmp1 = Call _ReadInteger;  
b = _tmp1;
```

_L0:

```
_tmp2 = 0;  
_tmp3 = b == _tmp2;  
_tmp4 = 0;  
_tmp5 = _tmp3 == _tmp4;  
IfZ _tmp5 Goto _L1;  
c = a;  
a = b;  
_tmp6 = c % a;  
b = _tmp6;  
Goto _L0;
```

_L1:

```
Push a;  
Call _PrintInt;
```



Common Subexpression Elimination

- If we have two variable assignments
 $v1 = a \text{ op } b$
...
 $v2 = a \text{ op } b$
- and the values of $v1$, a , and b have not changed between the assignments, rewrite the code as
 $v1 = a \text{ op } b$
...
 $v2 = v1$
- Eliminates useless recalculation
- Paves the way for later optimizations

Common Subexpression Elimination

- If we have two variable assignments
 $v1 = a \text{ op } b$ [or: $v1 = a$]
...
 $v2 = a \text{ op } b$ [or: $v2 = a$]
- and the values of $v1$, a , and b have not changed between the assignments, rewrite the code as
 $v1 = a \text{ op } b$ [or: $v1 = a$]
...
 $v2 = v1$
- Eliminates useless recalculation
- Paves the way for later optimizations

Copy Propagation

- If we have a variable assignment
 $v1 = v2$
then as long as $v1$ and $v2$ are not
reassigned, we can rewrite expressions of
the form
 $a = \dots v1 \dots$
as
 $a = \dots v2 \dots$
provided that such a rewrite is legal

Dead Code Elimination

- An assignment to a variable v is called **dead** if the value of that assignment is never read anywhere
- **Dead code elimination** removes dead assignments from IR
- Determining whether an assignment is dead depends on what variable is being assigned to and when it's being assigned

Abstract Interpretation

- Theoretical foundations of program analysis
- Cousot and Cousot 1977
- Abstract meaning of programs
 - Executed at compile time

Another view of local optimization

- In local optimization, we want to reason about some property of the runtime behavior of the program
- Could we run the program and just watch what happens?
- **Idea:** Redefine the semantics of our programming language to give us information about our analysis

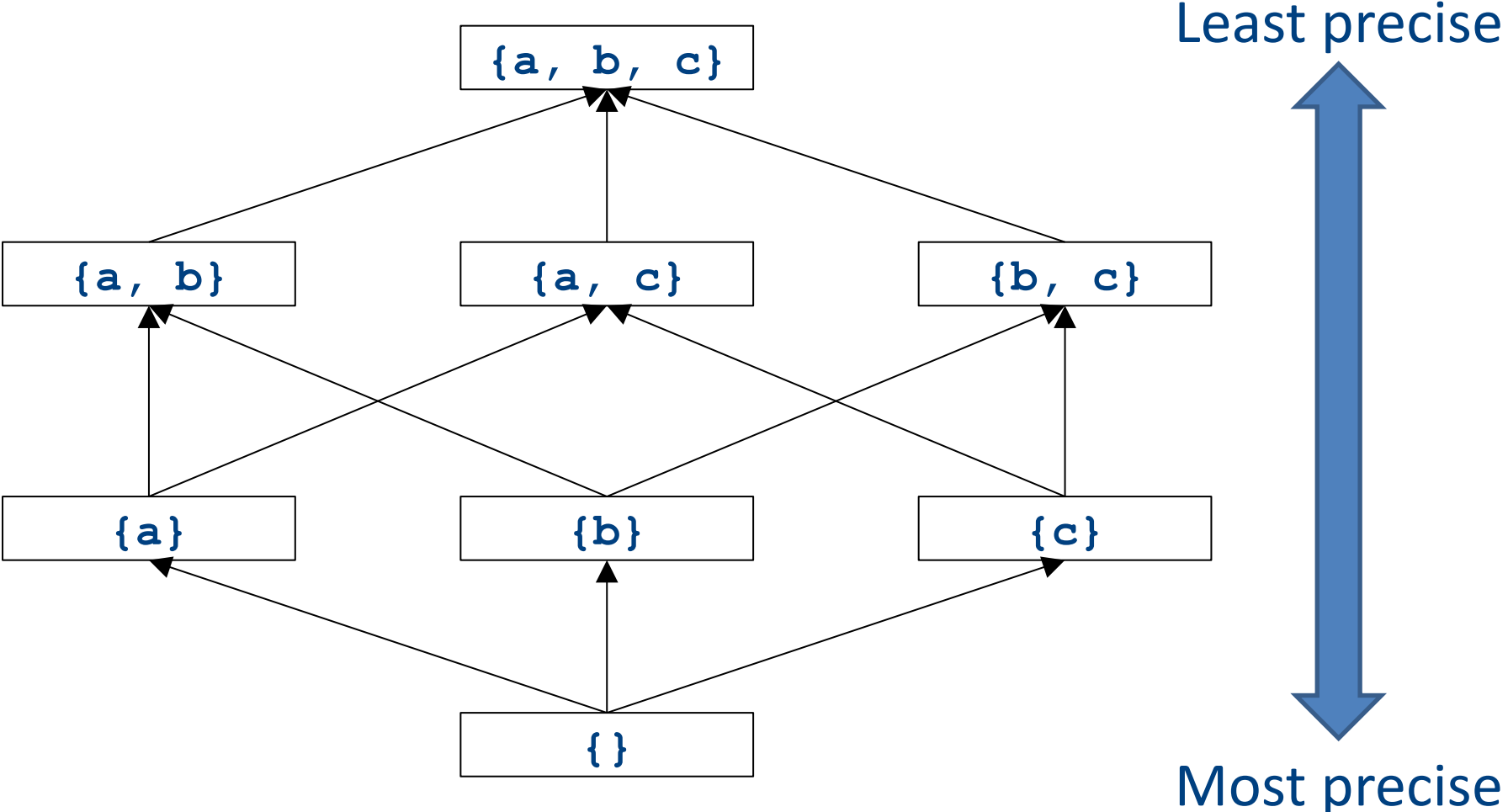
Assigning new semantics

- Example: Available Expressions
- Redefine the statement **$a = b + c$** to mean “ **a now holds the value of $b + c$, and any variable holding the value a is now invalid**”
- Run the program assuming these new semantics
- Treat the optimizer as an interpreter for these new semantics

Join semilattices

- A join semilattice is a ordering defined on a set of elements
- Any two elements have some join that is the smallest element larger than both elements
- There is a unique bottom element, which is smaller than all other elements
- Intuitively:
 - The join of two elements represents combining information from two elements by an overapproximation
- The bottom element represents “no information yet” or “the least conservative possible answer”

Join semilattices and ordering



Formal definitions

- A **join semilattice** is a pair (V, \sqcup) , where
- V is a domain of elements
- \sqcup is a **join operator** that is
 - **commutative**: $x \sqcup y = y \sqcup x$
 - **associative**: $(x \sqcup y) \sqcup z = x \sqcup (y \sqcup z)$
 - **idempotent**: $x \sqcup x = x$
- If $x \sqcup y = z$, we say that z is the **join** or (**least upper bound**) of x and y
- Every join semilattice has a **bottom element** denoted \perp such that $\perp \sqcup x = x$ for all x

Join semilattices and orderings

- Every join semilattice (V, \sqcup) induces an ordering relationship \sqsubseteq over its elements
- Define $x \sqsubseteq y$ iff $x \sqcup y = y$
- Need to prove
 - Reflexivity: $x \sqsubseteq x$
 - Antisymmetry: If $x \sqsubseteq y$ and $y \sqsubseteq x$, then $x = y$
 - Transitivity: If $x \sqsubseteq y$ and $y \sqsubseteq z$, then $x \sqsubseteq z$

A general framework

- A global analysis is a tuple $(D, V, \sqsubseteq, F, I)$, where
 - D is a direction (forward or backward)
 - The order to visit statements within a basic block, not the order in which to visit the basic blocks
 - V is a set of values
 - \sqcup is a join operator over those values
 - F is a set of transfer functions $f: V \rightarrow V$
 - I is an initial value
- The only difference from local analysis is the introduction of the join operator

Running global analyses

- Assume that (D, V, \sqcup, F, I) is a forward analysis
- Set $OUT[s] = \perp$ for all statements s
- Set $OUT[\mathbf{entry}] = I$
- Repeat until no values change:
 - For each statement s with predecessors p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n :
 - Set $IN[s] = OUT[p_1] \sqcup OUT[p_2] \sqcup \dots \sqcup OUT[p_n]$
 - Set $OUT[s] = f_s(IN[s])$
- The order of this iteration does not matter
 - This is sometimes called **chaotic iteration**

Global constant propagation

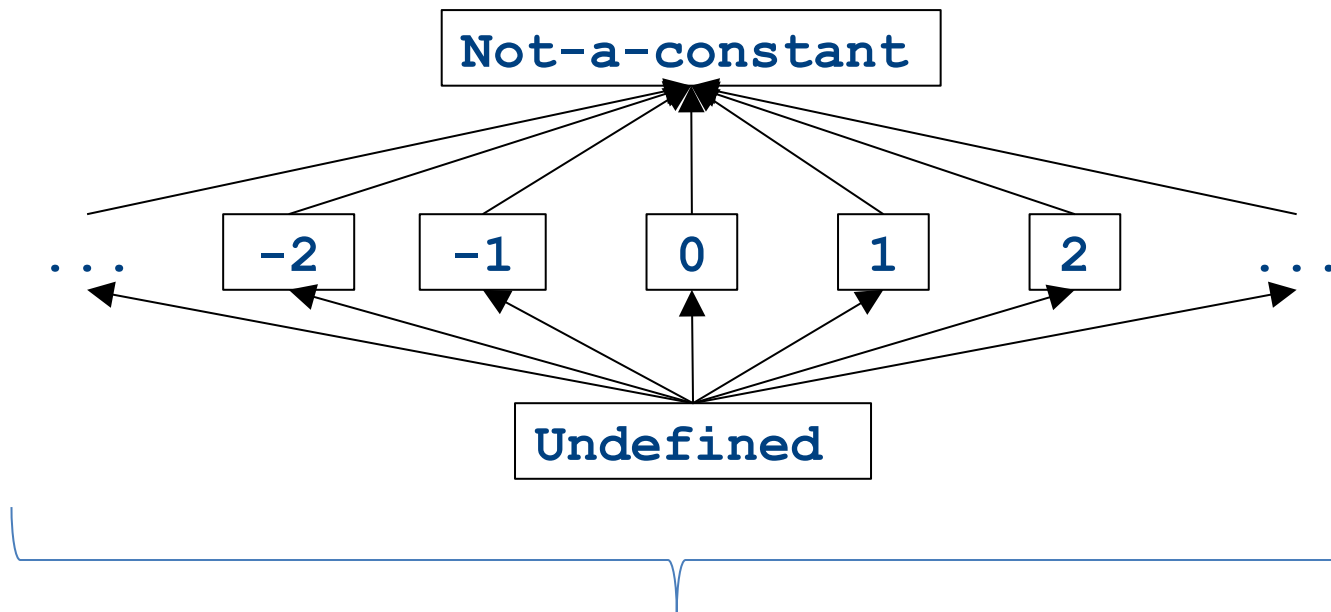
- **Constant propagation** is an optimization that replaces each variable that is known to be a constant value with that constant
- An elegant example of the dataflow framework

Defining a join operator

- The join of any two different constants is **Not-a-Constant**
 - (If the variable might have two different values on entry to a statement, it cannot be a constant)
- The join of **Not a Constant** and any other value is **Not-a-Constant**
 - (If on some path the value is known not to be a constant, then on entry to a statement its value can't possibly be a constant)
- The join of **Undefined** and any other value is that other value
 - (If **x** has no value on some path and does have a value on some other path, we can just pretend it always had the assigned value)

A semilattice for constant propagation

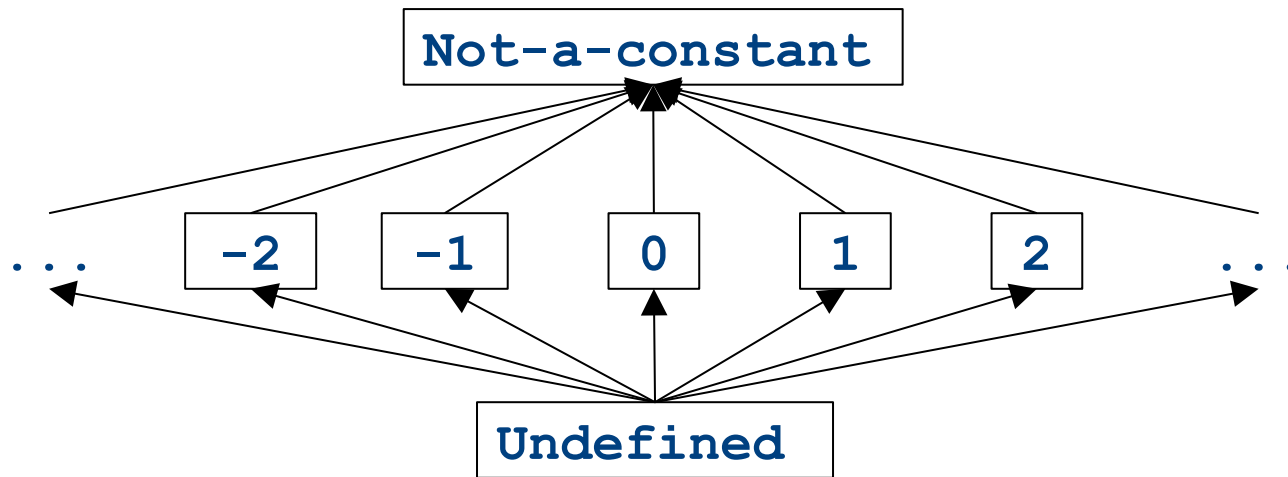
- One possible semilattice for this analysis is shown here (for each variable):



The lattice is infinitely wide

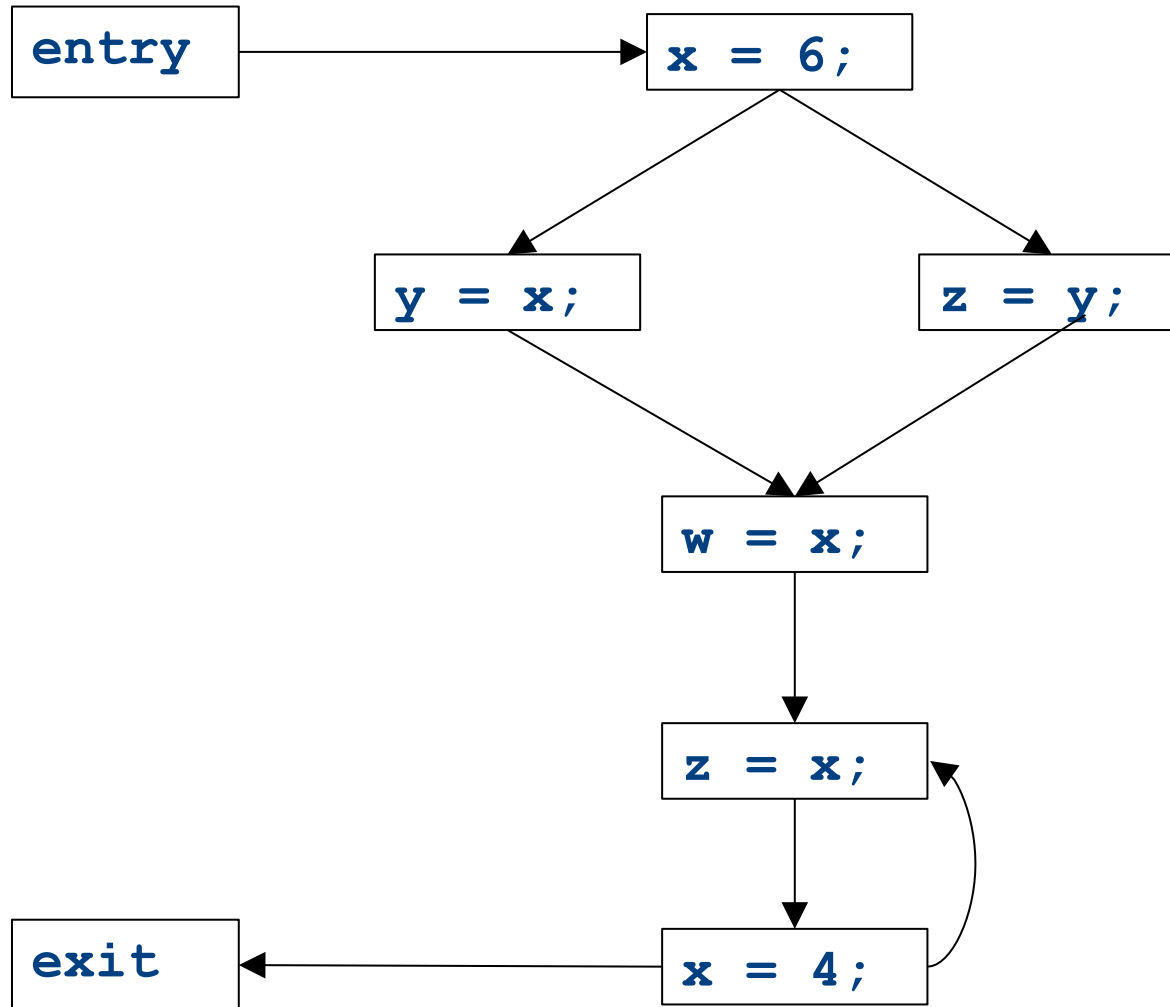
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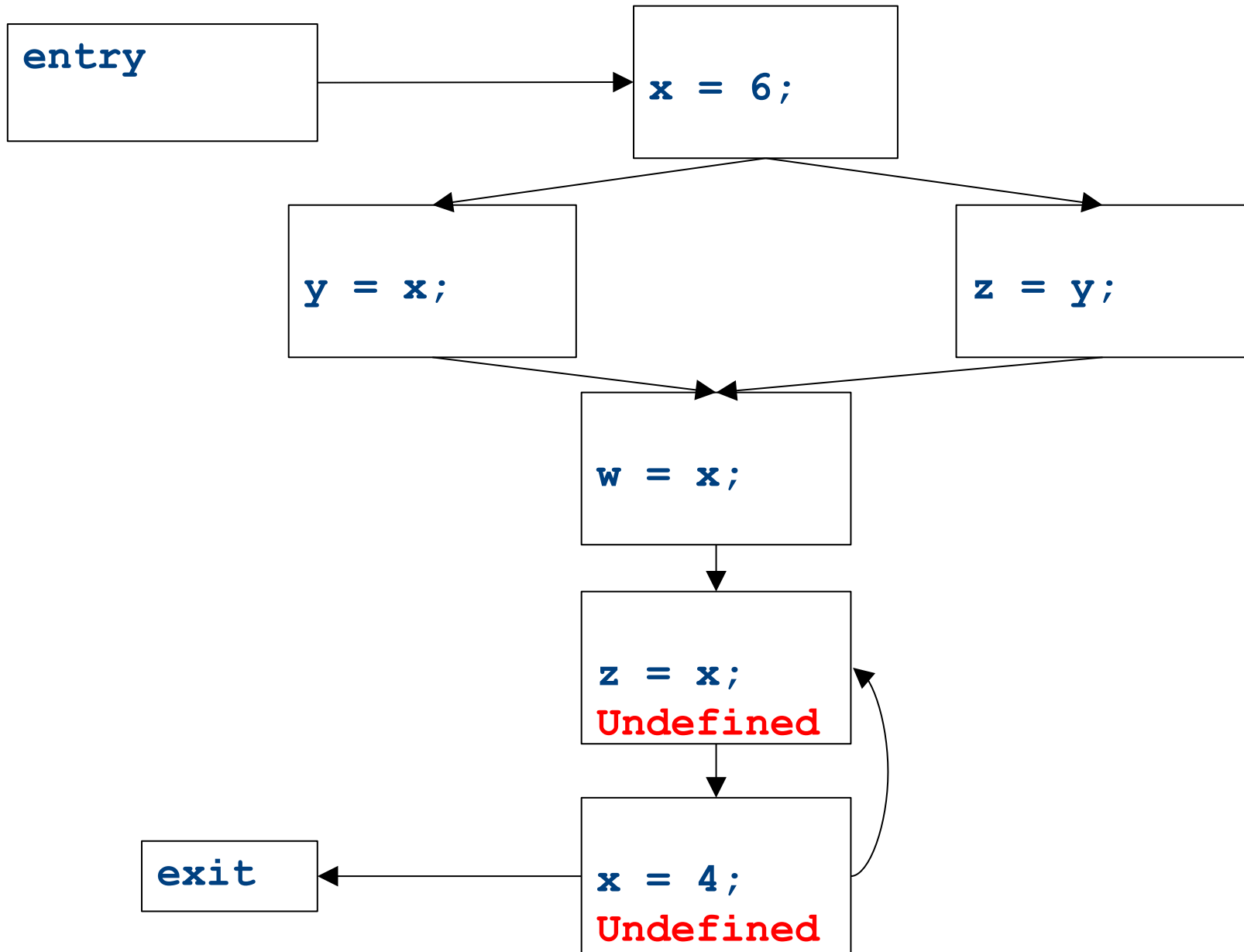


- Note:
 - The join of any two different constants is **Not-a-Constant**
 - The join of **Not a Constant** and any other value is **Not-a-Constant**
 - The join of **Undefined** and any other value is that other value

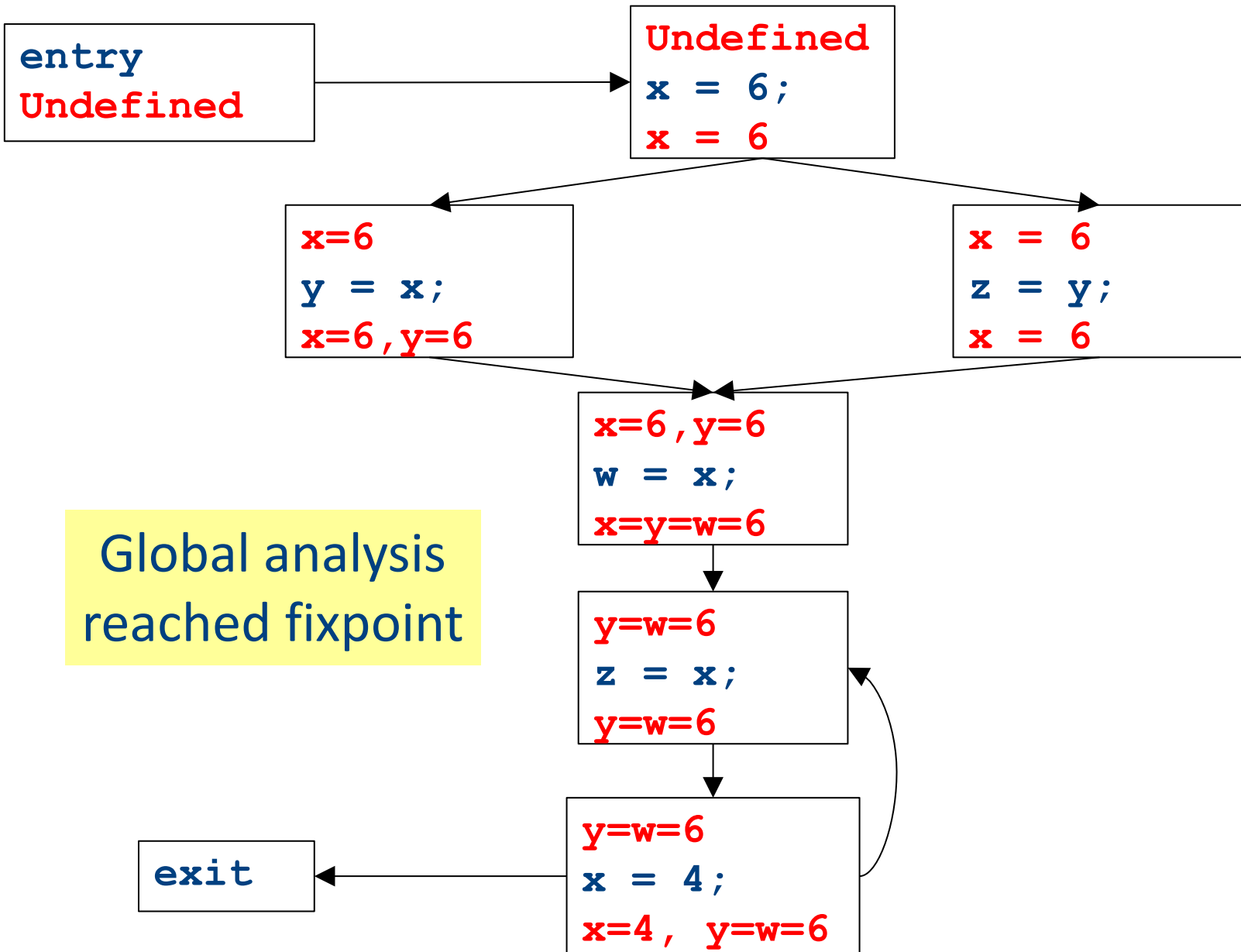
Global constant propagation



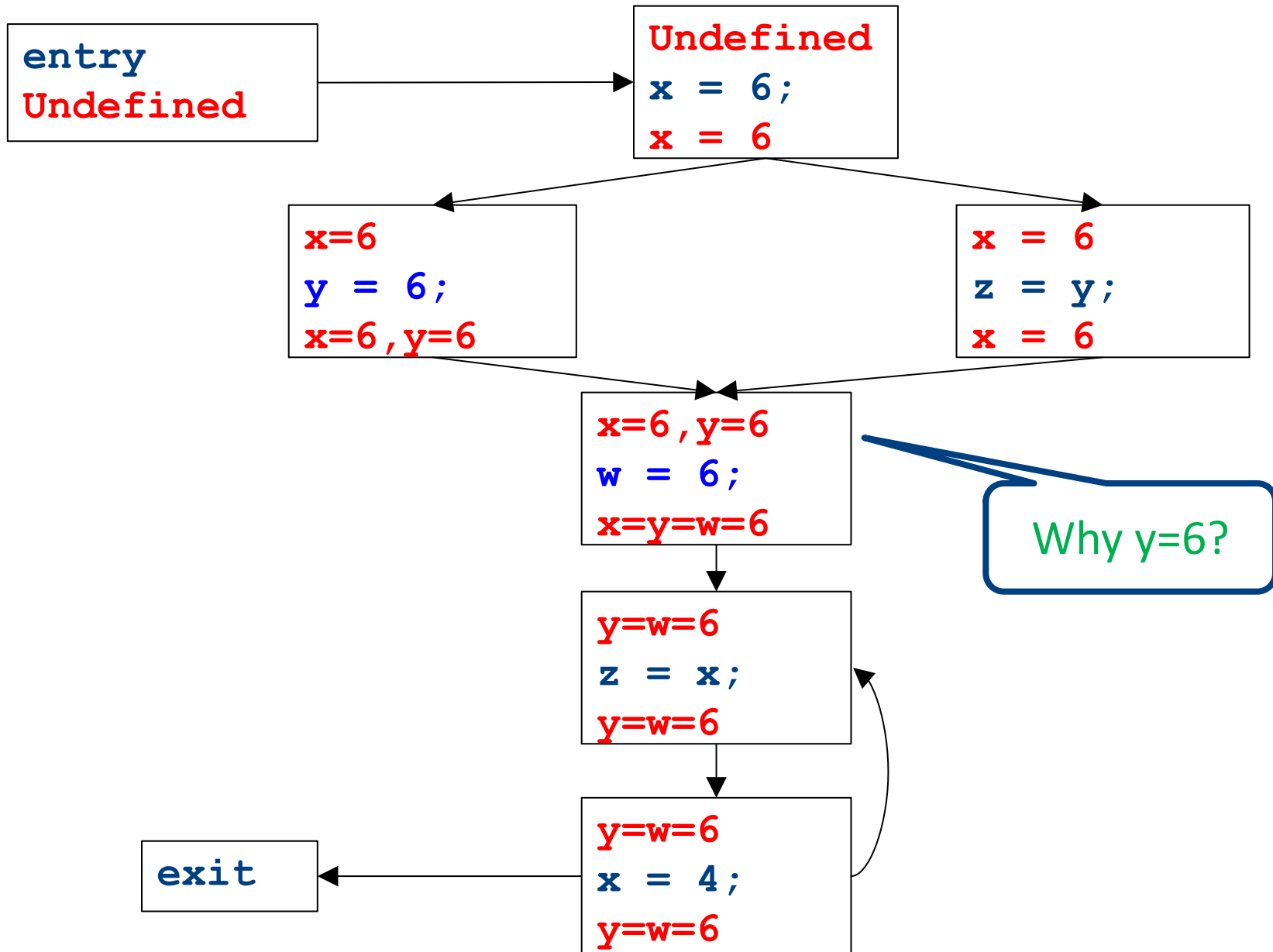
Global constant propagation



Global constant propagation



Global constant propagation



Dataflow for constant propagation

- Direction: **Forward**
- Semilattice: $\text{Vars} \rightarrow \{\text{Undefined}, 0, 1, -1, 2, -2, \dots, \text{Not-a-Constant}\}$
 - Join mapping for variables point-wise
 $\{x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 1\} \sqcup \{x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto 2, z \mapsto \text{Not-a-Constant}\} = \{x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto \text{Not-a-Constant}, z \mapsto \text{Not-a-Constant}\}$
- Transfer functions:
 - $f_{x=k}(V) = V|_{x \mapsto k}$ (*update V by mapping x to k*)
 - $f_{x=a+b}(V) = V|_{x \mapsto \text{Not-a-Constant}}$ (*assign Not-a-Constant*)
- Initial value: **x is Undefined**
 - (When might we use some other value?)

Proving termination

- Our algorithm for running these analyses continuously loops until no changes are detected
- Given this, how do we know the analyses will eventually terminate?
 - In general, **we don't**

Terminates?

Liveness Analysis

- A variable is **live** at a point in a program if later in the program its value will be read before it is written to again

Join semilattice definition

- A **join semilattice** is a pair (V, \sqcup) , where
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- \sqcup is a **join operator** that is
 - **commutative**: $x \sqcup y = y \sqcup x$
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- If $x \sqcup y = z$, we say that z is the **join** or (**Least Upper Bound**) of x and y
- Every join semilattice has a **bottom element** denoted \perp such that $\perp \sqcup x = x$ for all x

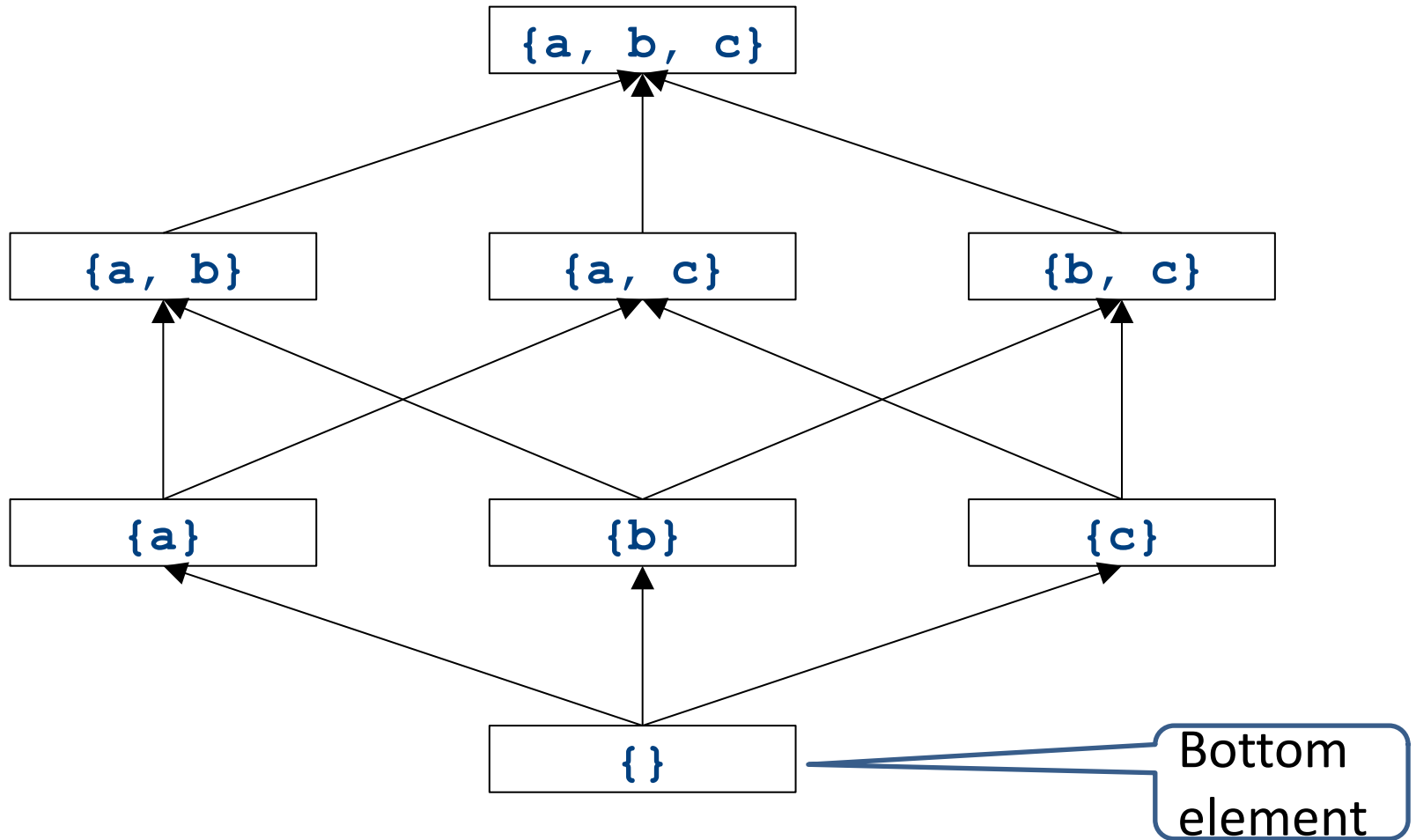
Partial ordering induced by join

- Every join semilattice (V, \sqcup) induces an ordering relationship \sqsubseteq over its elements
- Define $x \sqsubseteq y$ iff $x \ll y = y$
- Need to prove
 - Reflexivity: $x \sqsubseteq x$
 - Antisymmetry: If $x \sqsubseteq y$ and $y \sqsubseteq x$, then $x = y$
 - Transitivity: If $x \sqsubseteq y$ and $y \sqsubseteq z$, then $x \sqsubseteq z$

A join semilattice for liveness

- Sets of live variables and the set union operation
- Idempotent:
 - $x \cup x = x$
- Commutative:
 - $x \cup y = y \cup x$
- Associative:
 - $(x \cup y) \cup z = x \cup (y \cup z)$
- Bottom element:
 - The empty set: $\emptyset \cup x = x$
- Ordering over elements = subset relation

Join semilattice example for liveness



Dataflow framework

- A global analysis is a tuple (D, V, \sqcup, F, I) , where
 - D is a direction (forward or backward)
 - The order to visit statements within a basic block, **NOT** the order in which to visit the basic blocks
 - V is a set of values (sometimes called **domain**)
 - \sqcup is a join operator over those values
 - F is a set of transfer functions $f_s : V \rightarrow V$ (for every statement s)
 - I is an initial value

Running global analyses

- Assume that (D, V, \sqcup, F, I) is a forward analysis
- For every statement s maintain values before - $IN[s]$ - and after - $OUT[s]$
- Set $OUT[s] = \perp$ for all statements s
- Set $OUT[\mathbf{entry}] = I$
- Repeat until no values change:
 - For each statement s with predecessors
 $PRED[s] = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$
 - Set $IN[s] = OUT[p_1] \sqcup OUT[p_2] \sqcup \dots \sqcup OUT[p_n]$
 - Set $OUT[s] = f_s(IN[s])$
- The order of this iteration does not matter
 - Chaotic iteration

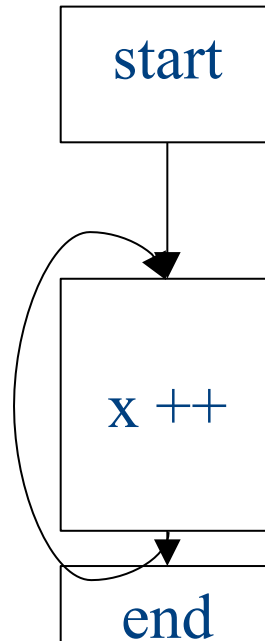
Proving termination

- Our algorithm for running these analyses continuously loops until no changes are detected
- **Problem:** how do we know the analyses will eventually terminate?

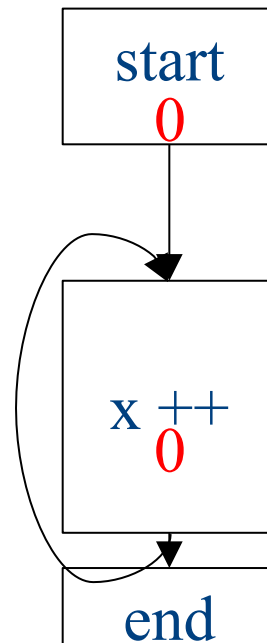
A non-terminating analysis

- The following analysis will loop infinitely on any CFG containing a loop:
- Direction: Forward
- Domain: \mathbb{N}
- Join operator: **max**
- Transfer function: $f(n) = n + 1$
- Initial value: 0

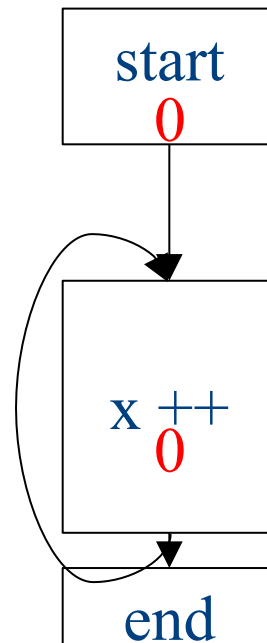
A non-terminating analysis



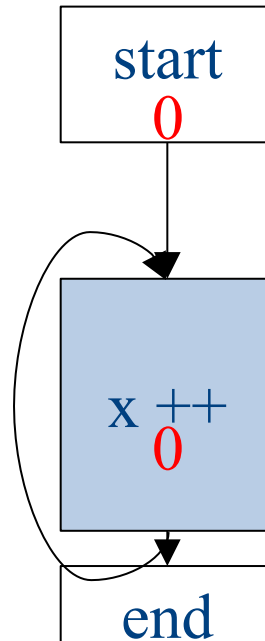
Initialization



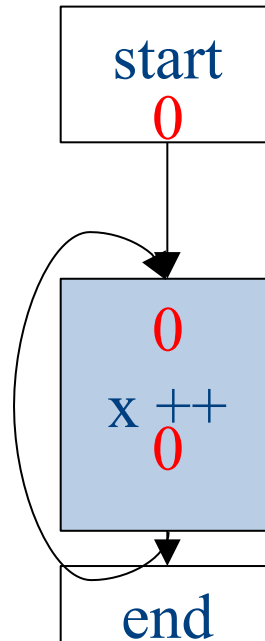
Fixed-point iteration



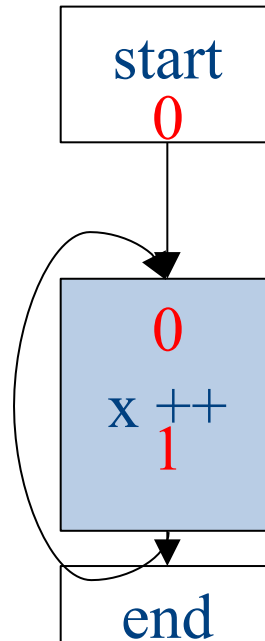
Choose a block



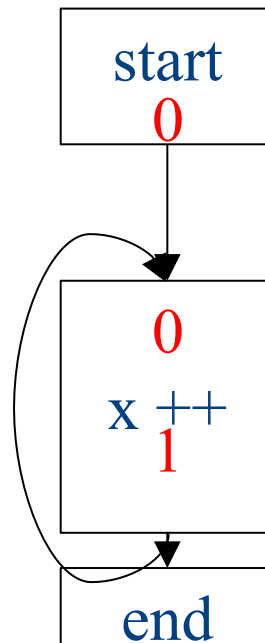
Iteration 1



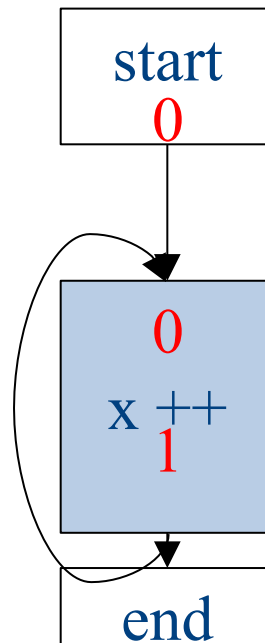
Iteration 1



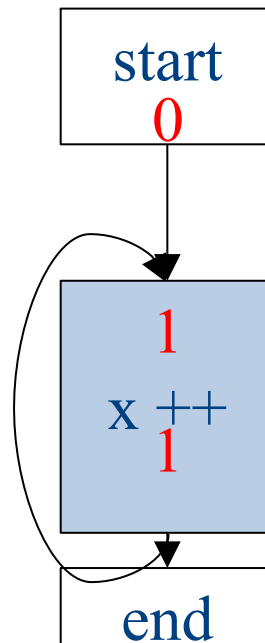
Choose a block



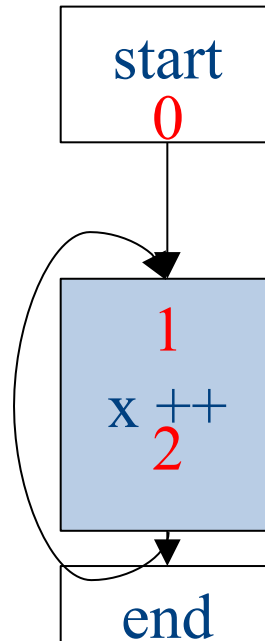
Iteration 2



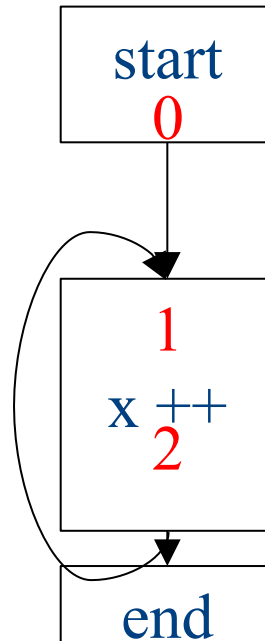
Iteration 2



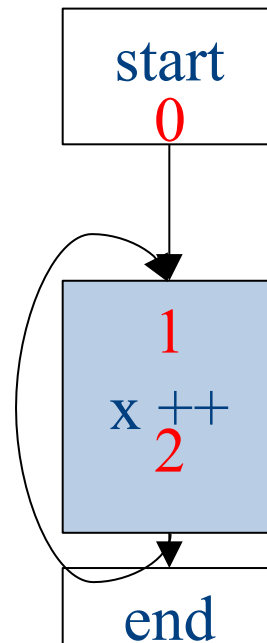
Iteration 2



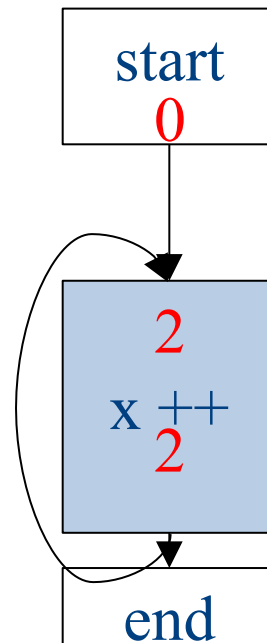
Choose a block



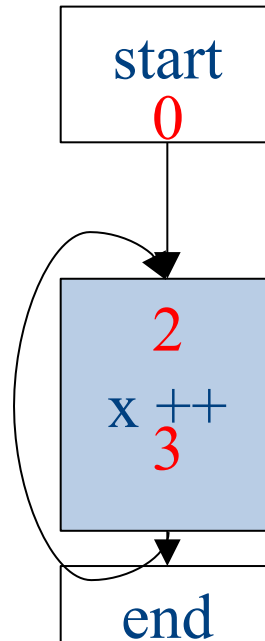
Iteration 3



Iteration 3

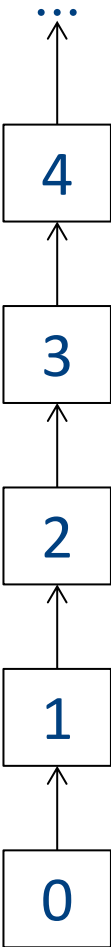


Iteration 3



Why doesn't this terminate?

- Values can increase without bound
- Note that “increase” refers to the lattice ordering, not the ordering on the natural numbers
- The **height** of a semilattice is the length of the longest increasing sequence in that semilattice
- The dataflow framework is not guaranteed to terminate for semilattices of infinite height
- Note that a semilattice can be infinitely large but have finite height
 - e.g. constant propagation



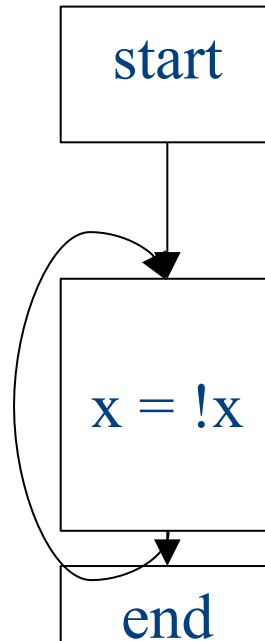
Height of a lattice

- An increasing chain is a sequence of elements $\perp \sqsubseteq a_1 \sqsubseteq a_2 \sqsubseteq \dots \sqsubseteq a_k$
 - The length of such a chain is k
- The height of a lattice is the length of the maximal increasing chain
- For liveness with n program variables:
 - $\{\} \subseteq \{v_1\} \subseteq \{v_1, v_2\} \subseteq \dots \subseteq \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$
- For available expressions it is the number of expressions of the form $a = b \text{ op } c$
 - For n program variables and m operator types: mn^3

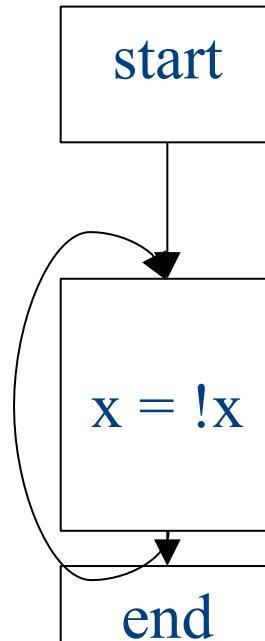
Another non-terminating analysis

- This analysis works on a finite-height semilattice, but will not terminate on certain CFGs:
- **Direction:** Forward
- **Domain:** Boolean values **true** and **false**
- **Join operator:** Logical OR
- **Transfer function:** Logical NOT
- **Initial value:** **false**

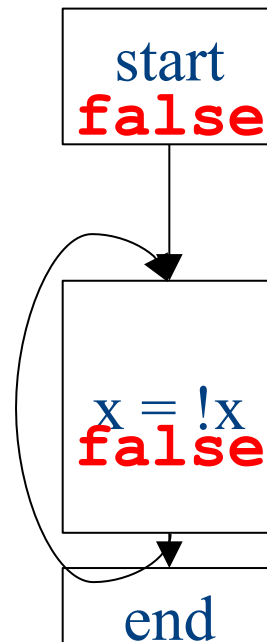
A non-terminating analysis



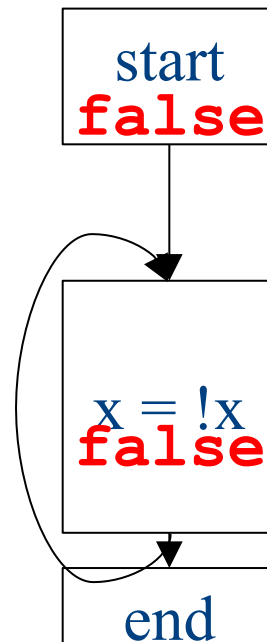
A non-terminating analysis



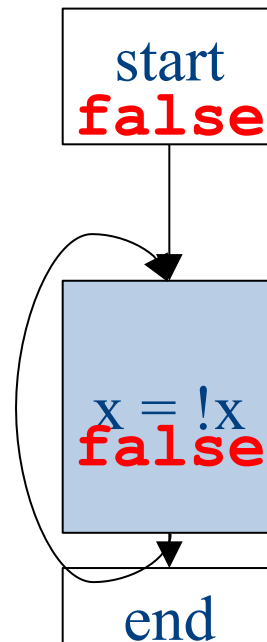
Initialization



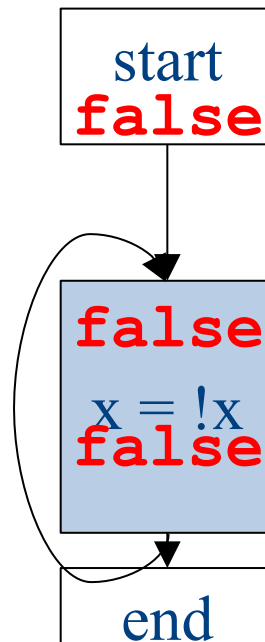
Fixed-point iteration



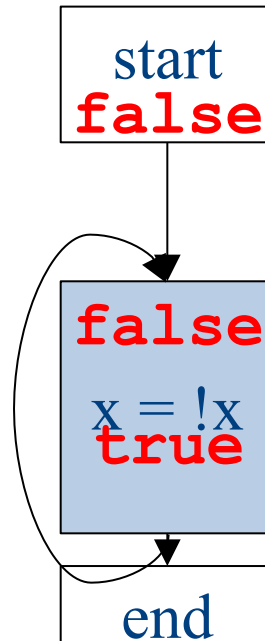
Choose a block



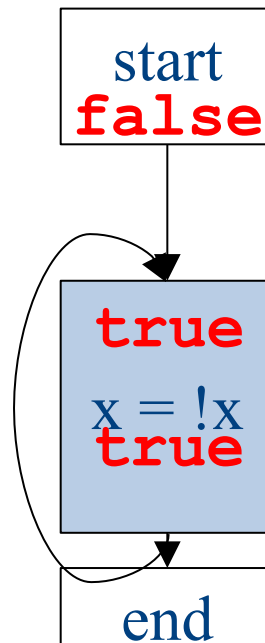
Iteration 1



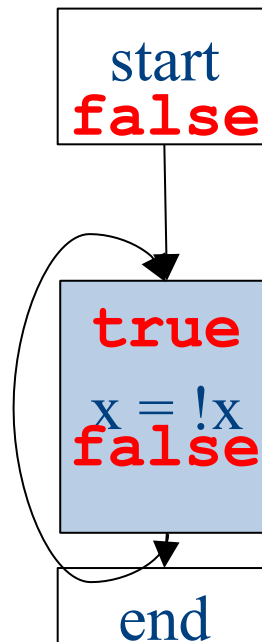
Iteration 1



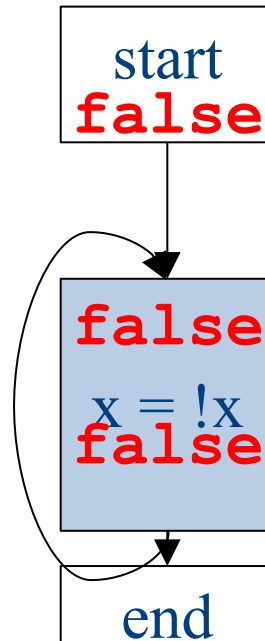
Iteration 2



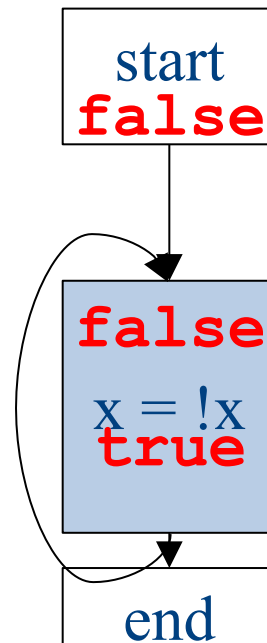
Iteration 2



Iteration 3

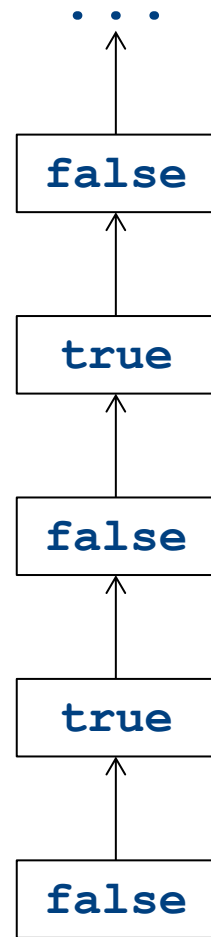


Iteration 3



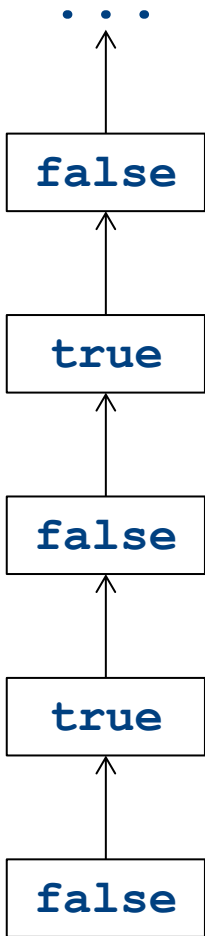
Why doesn't it terminate?

- Values can loop indefinitely
- Intuitively, the join operator keeps pulling values up
- If the transfer function can keep pushing values back down again, then the values might cycle forever



Why doesn't it terminate?

- Values can loop indefinitely
- Intuitively, the join operator keeps pulling values up
- If the transfer function can keep pushing values back down again, then the values might cycle forever
- How can we fix this?



Monotone transfer functions

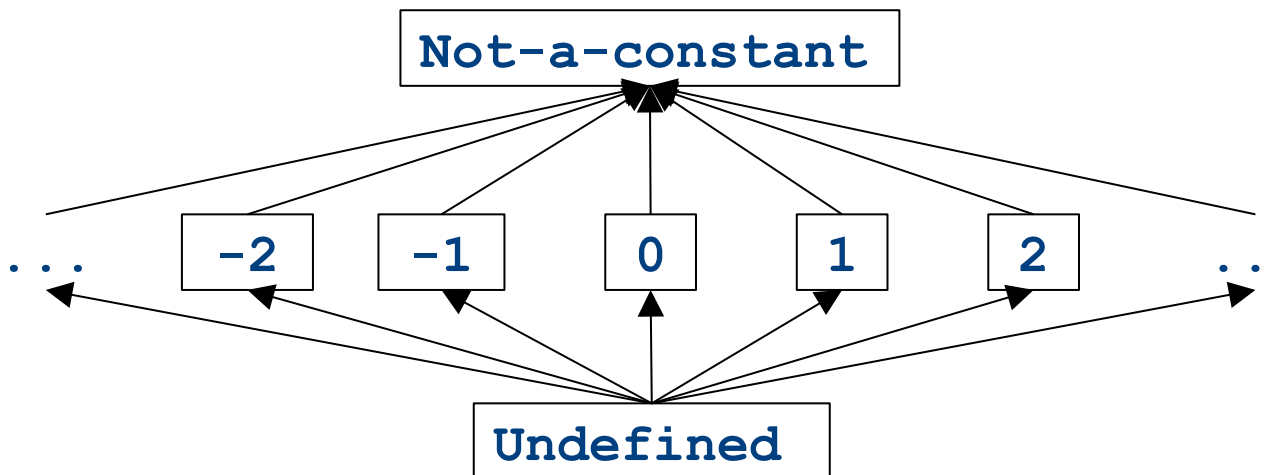
- A transfer function f is **monotone** iff
if $x \sqsubseteq y$, then $f(x) \sqsubseteq f(y)$
- Intuitively, if you know less information about a program point, you can't “gain back” more information about that program point
- Many transfer functions are monotone, including those for liveness and constant propagation
- Note: Monotonicity does **not** mean that $x \sqsubseteq f(x)$
 - (This is a different property called extensivity)

Liveness and monotonicity

- A transfer function f is **monotone** iff
if $x \sqsubseteq y$, then $f(x) \sqsubseteq f(y)$
- Recall our transfer function for $a = b + c$ is
– $f_{a=b+c}(V) = (V - \{a\}) \cup \{b, c\}$
- Recall that our join operator is set union
and induces an ordering relationship
 $X \sqsubseteq Y$ iff $X \subseteq Y$
- Is this monotone?

Is constant propagation monotone?

- A transfer function f is **monotone** iff
if $x \sqsubseteq y$, then $f(x) \sqsubseteq f(y)$
- Recall our transfer functions
 - $f_{x=k}(V) = V[x \mapsto k]$ (update V by mapping x to k)
 - $f_{x=a+b}(V) = V[x \mapsto \text{Not-a-Constant}]$ (assign *Not-a-Constant*)
- Is this monotone?



The grand result

- **Theorem:** A dataflow analysis with a **finite-height semilattice** and family of **monotone transfer functions** *always terminates*
- Proof sketch:
 - The join operator can only bring values up
 - Transfer functions can never lower values back down below where they were in the past (monotonicity)
 - Values cannot increase indefinitely (finite height)

An “optimality” result

- A transfer function f is distributive if
$$f(a \sqcup b) = f(a) \sqcup f(b)$$
for every domain elements a and b
- If all transfer functions are distributive then the fixed-point solution is the solution that would be computed by joining results from all (potentially infinite) control-flow paths
 - Join over all paths
- Optimal if we ignore program conditions

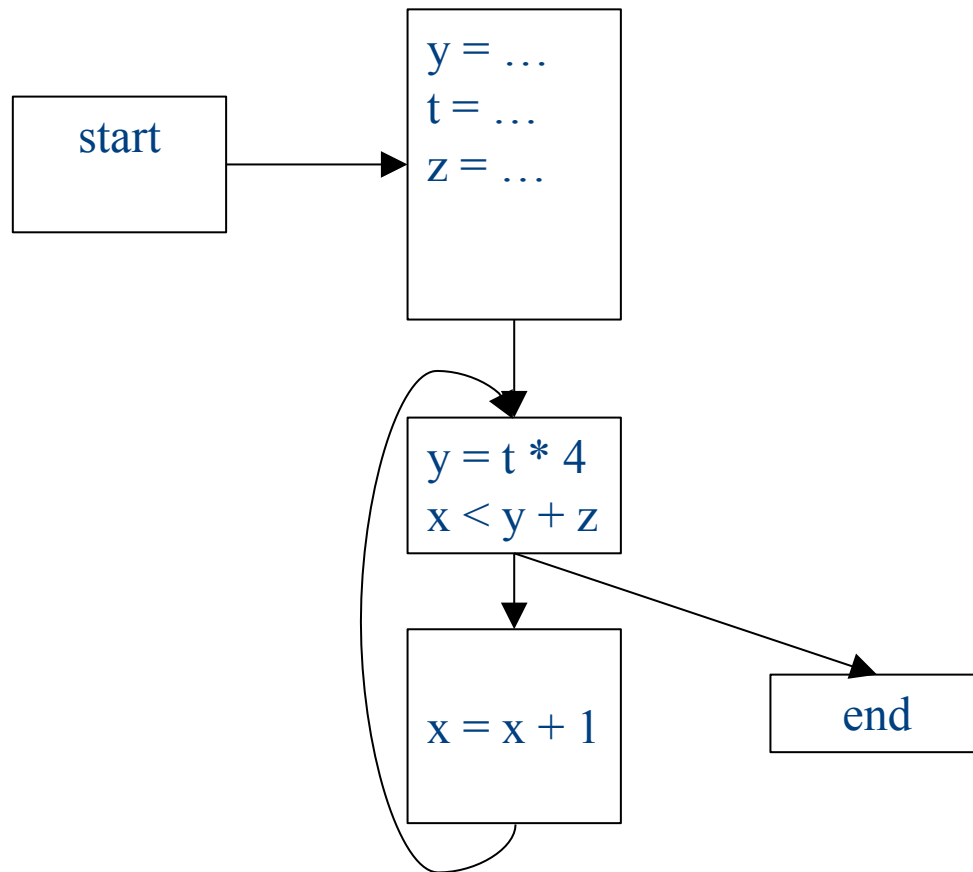
An “optimality” result

- A transfer function f is distributive if
$$f(a \sqcup b) = f(a) \sqcup f(b)$$
for every domain elements a and b
- If all transfer functions are distributive then the fixed-point solution is equal to the solution computed by joining results from all (potentially infinite) control-flow paths
 - Join over all paths
- Optimal if we pretend all control-flow paths can be executed by the program
- Which analyses use distributive functions?

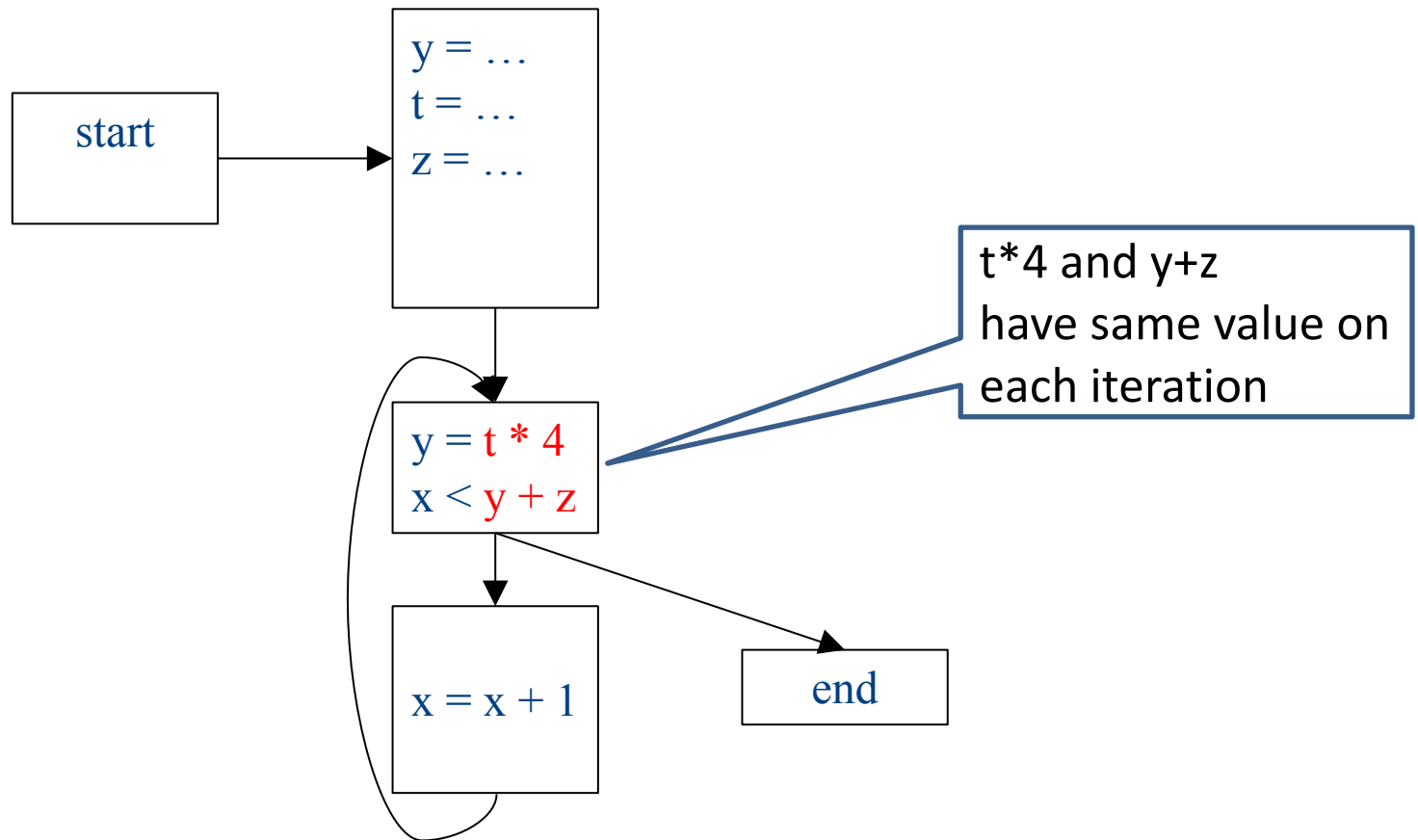
Loop optimizations

- Most of a program's computations are done inside loops
 - Focus optimizations effort on loops
- The optimizations we've seen so far are independent of the control structure
- Some optimizations are specialized to loops
 - Loop-invariant code motion
 - (Strength reduction via induction variables)
- Require another type of analysis to find out where expressions get their values from
 - Reaching definitions
 - (Also useful for improving register allocation)

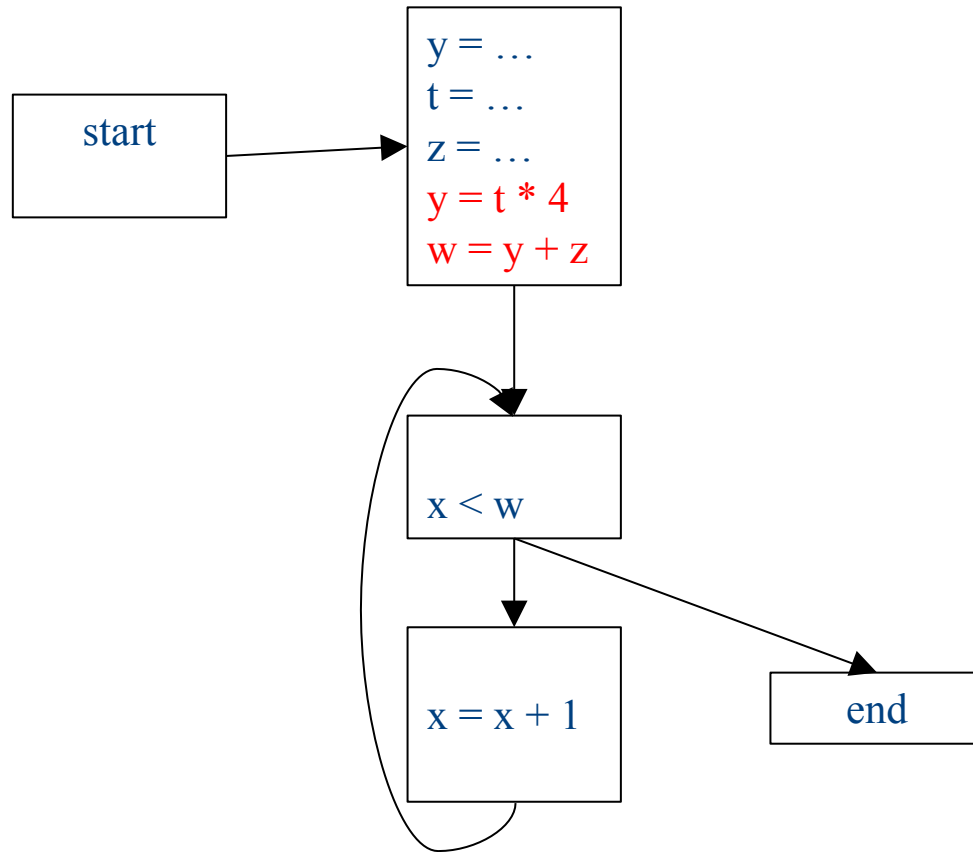
Loop invariant computation



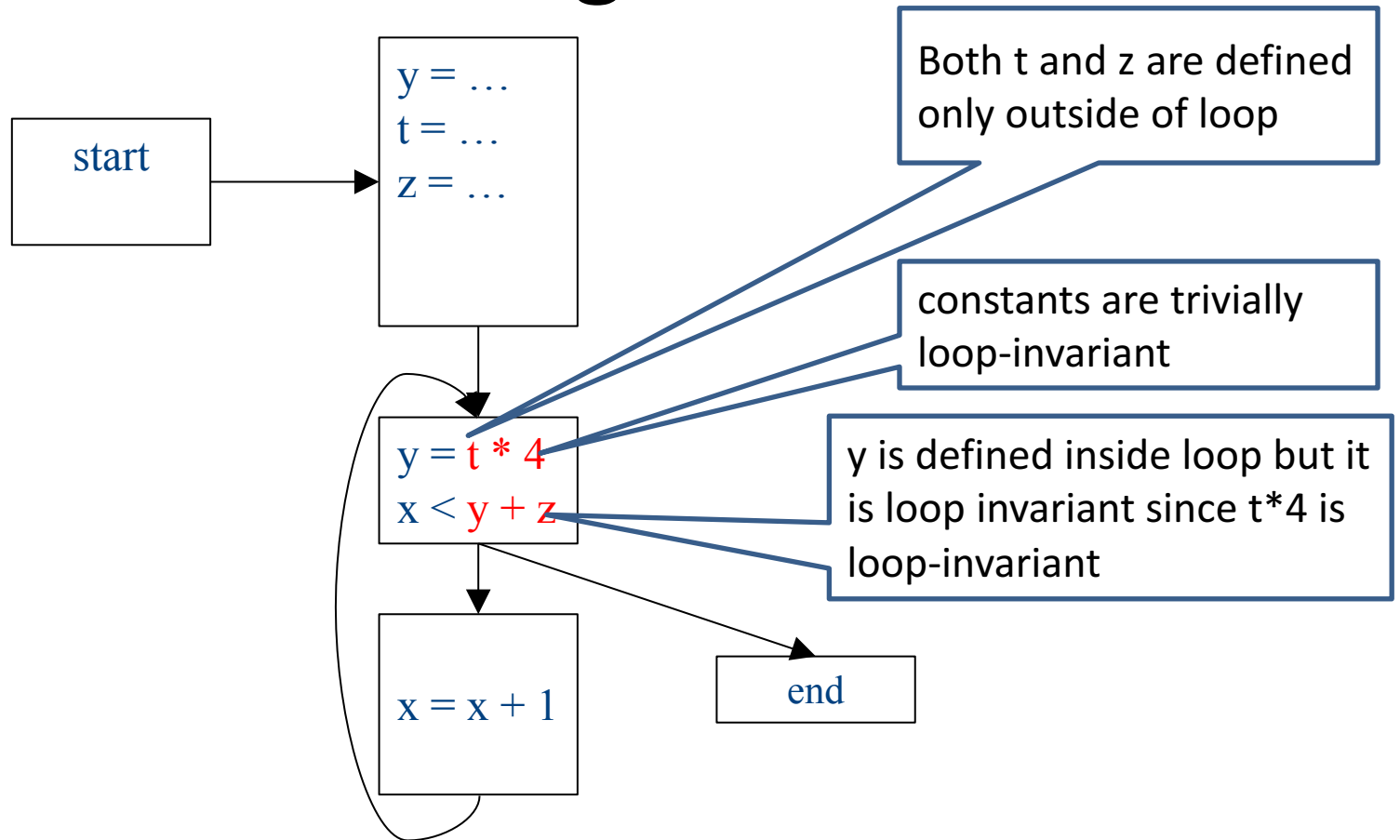
Loop invariant computation



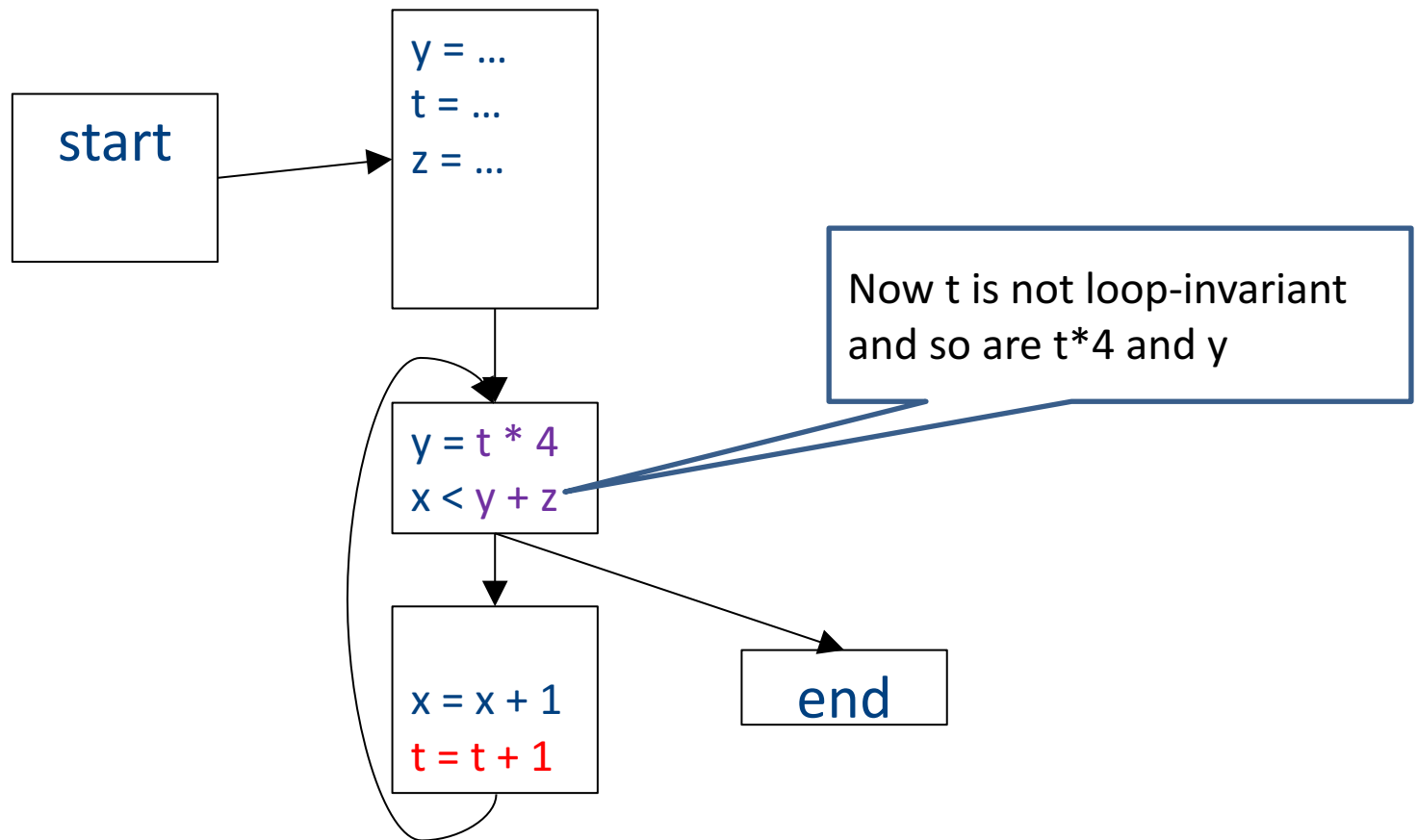
Code hoisting



What reasoning did we use?



What about now?



Loop-invariant code motion

- $d: t = a_1 \text{ op } a_2$
 - d is a **program location**
- $a_1 \text{ op } a_2$ **loop-invariant** (for a loop L) if computes the same value in each iteration
 - Hard to know in general
- Conservative approximation
 - Each a_i is a constant, or
 - All definitions of a_i that reach d are outside L , or
 - Only one definition of a_i reaches d , and is loop-invariant itself
- Transformation: hoist the loop-invariant code outside of the loop

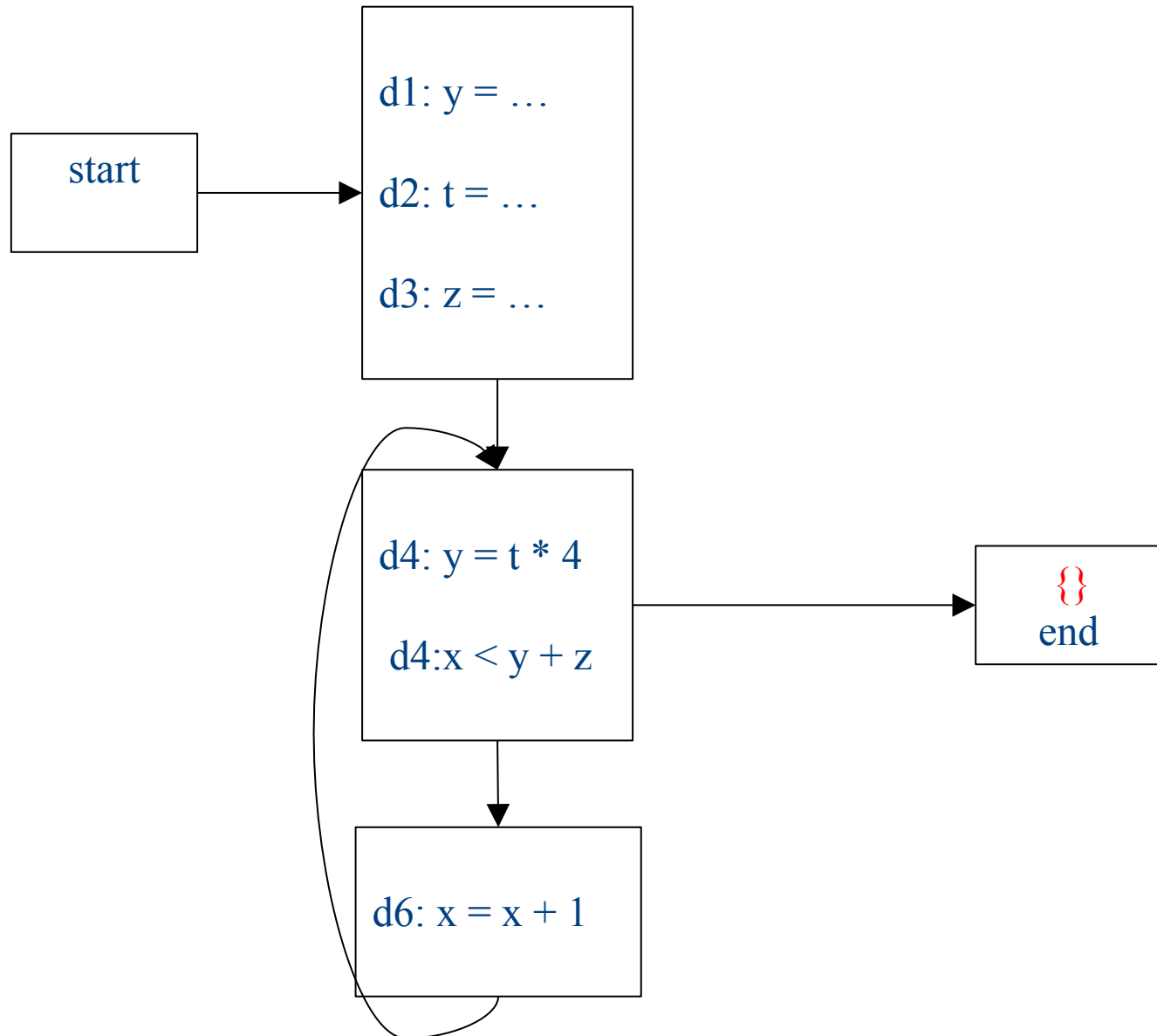
Reaching definitions analysis

- A definition $d: t = \dots$ **reaches** a program location if there is a path from the definition to the program location, along which the defined variable is never redefined

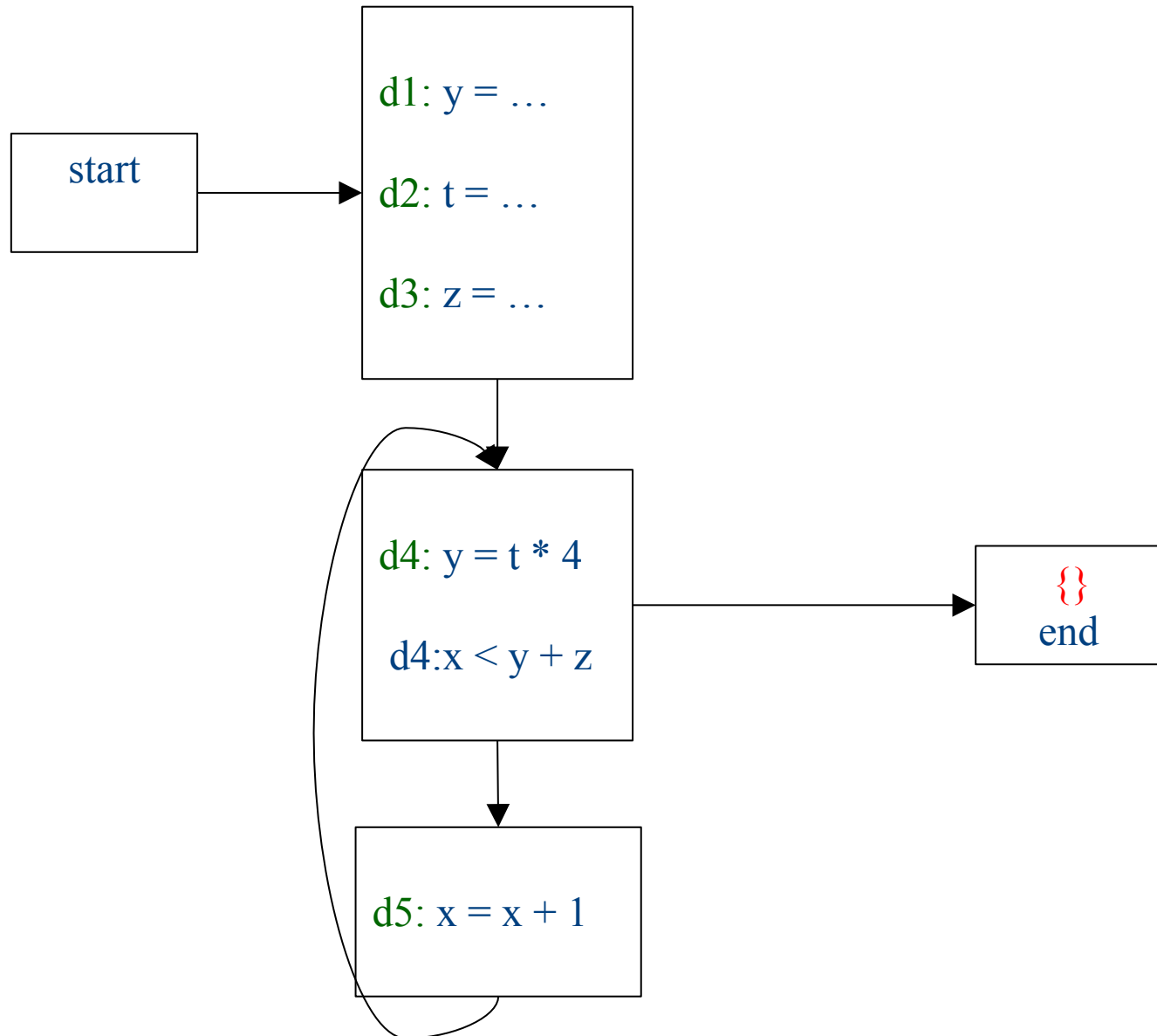
Reaching definitions analysis

- A definition $d: t = \dots$ **reaches** a program location if there is a path from the definition to the program location, along which the defined variable is never redefined
- **Direction:** Forward
- **Domain:** sets of program locations that are definitions `
- **Join operator:** union
- **Transfer function:**
 - $f_{d: a=b \text{ op } c}(\text{RD}) = (\text{RD} - \text{defs}(a)) \cup \{d\}$
 - $f_{d: \text{not-}a\text{-def}}(\text{RD}) = \text{RD}$
 - Where $\text{defs}(a)$ is the set of locations defining a (statements of the form $a=\dots$)
- **Initial value:** $\{\}$

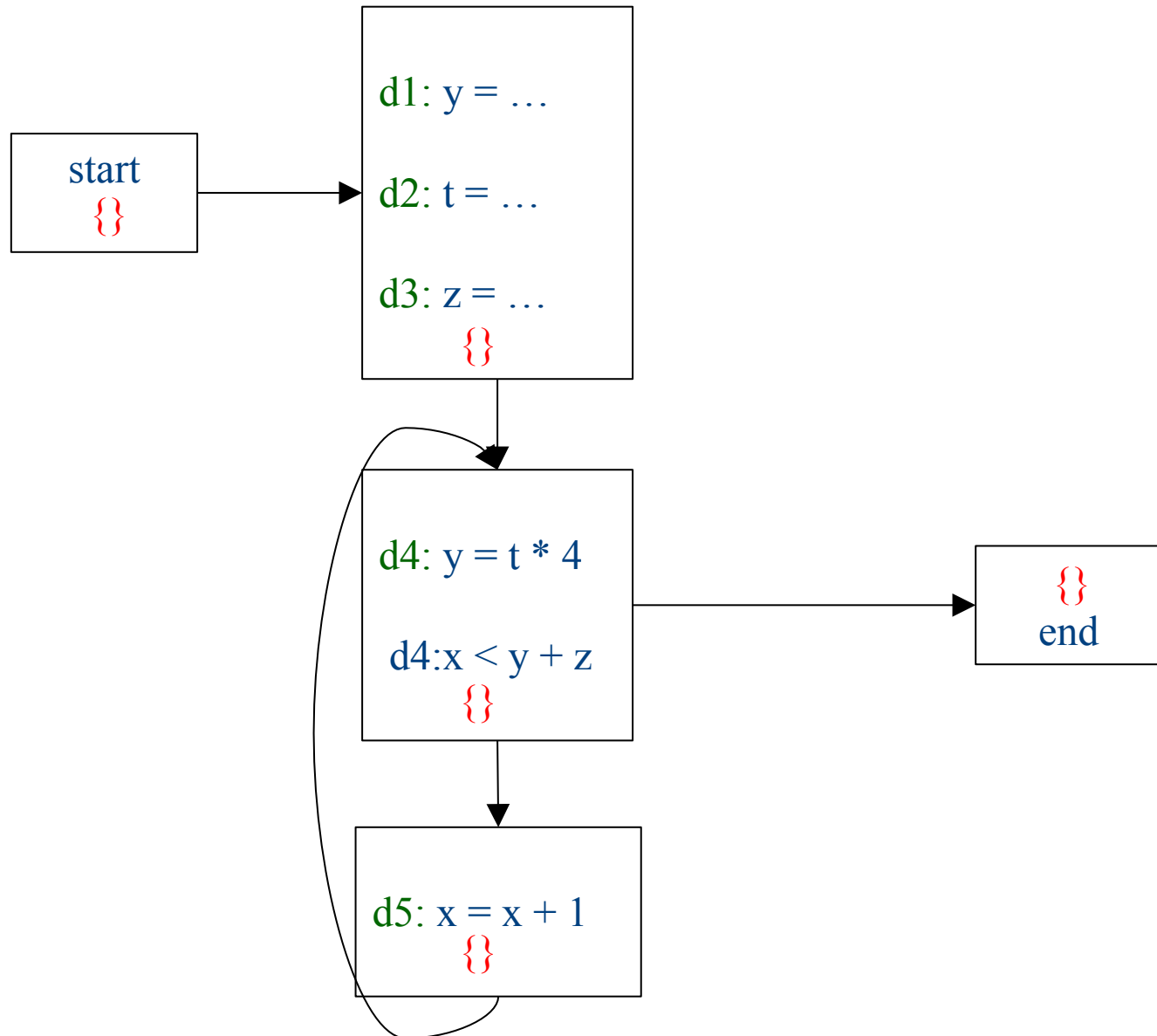
Reaching definitions analysis



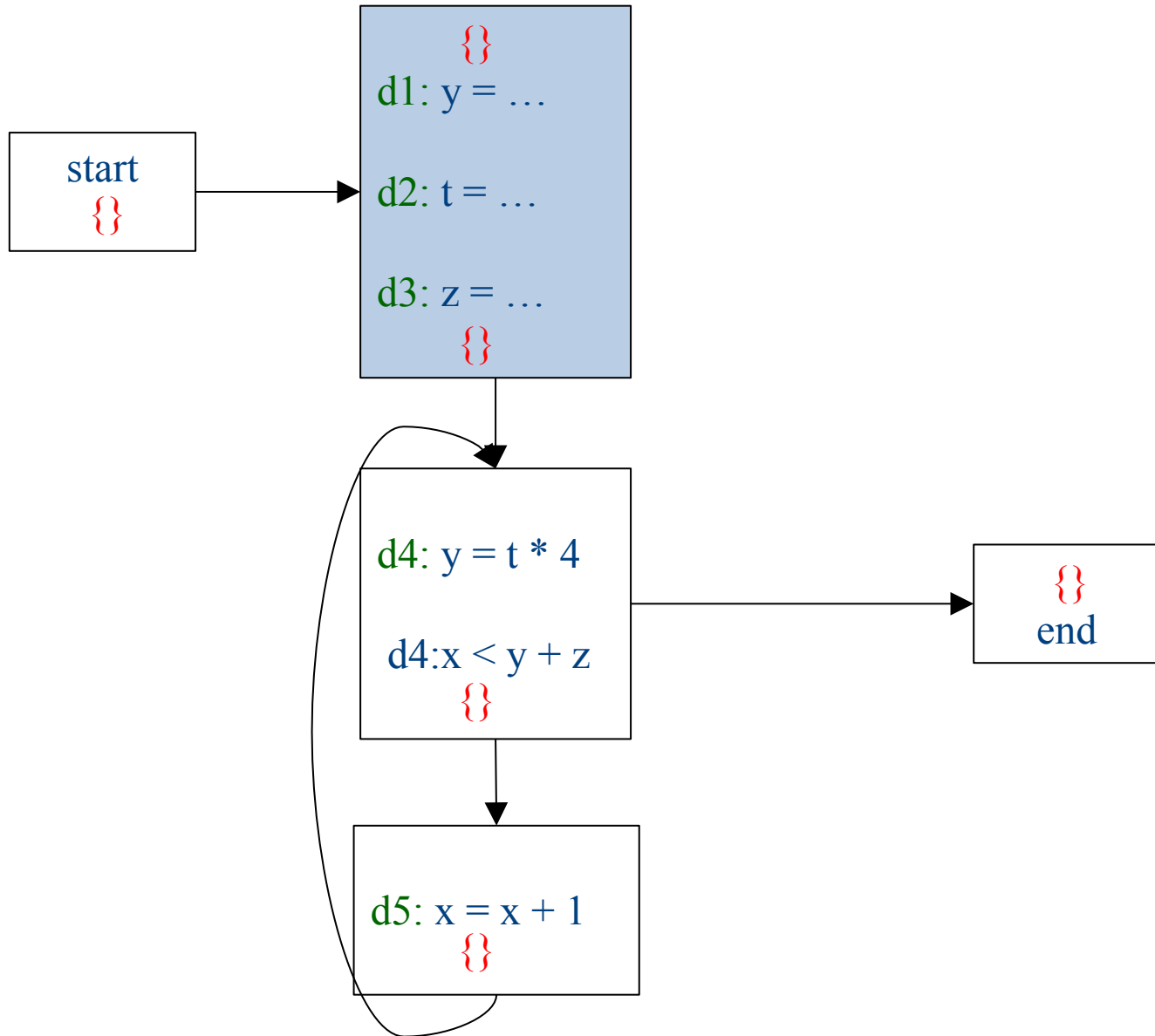
Reaching definitions analysis



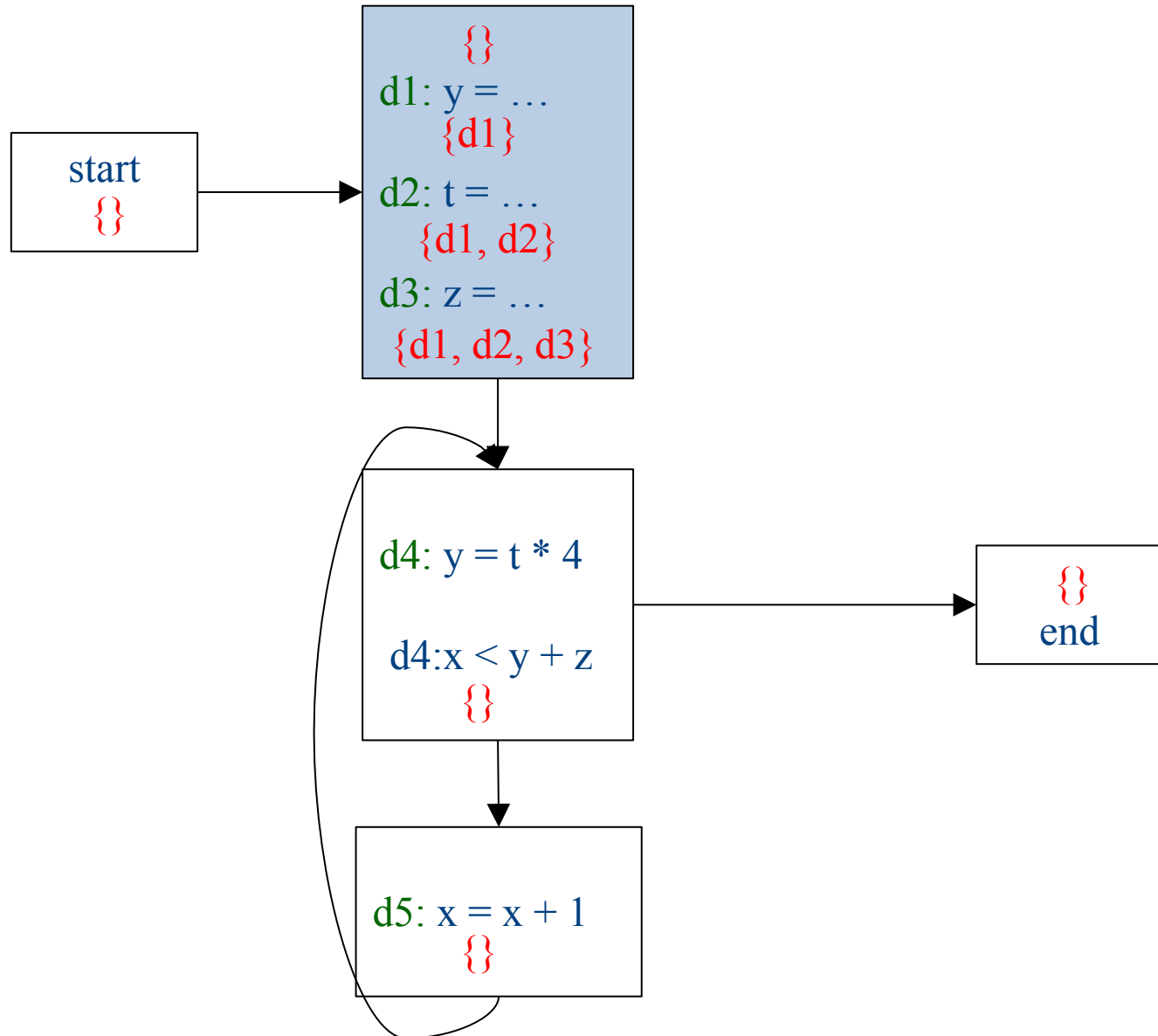
Initialization



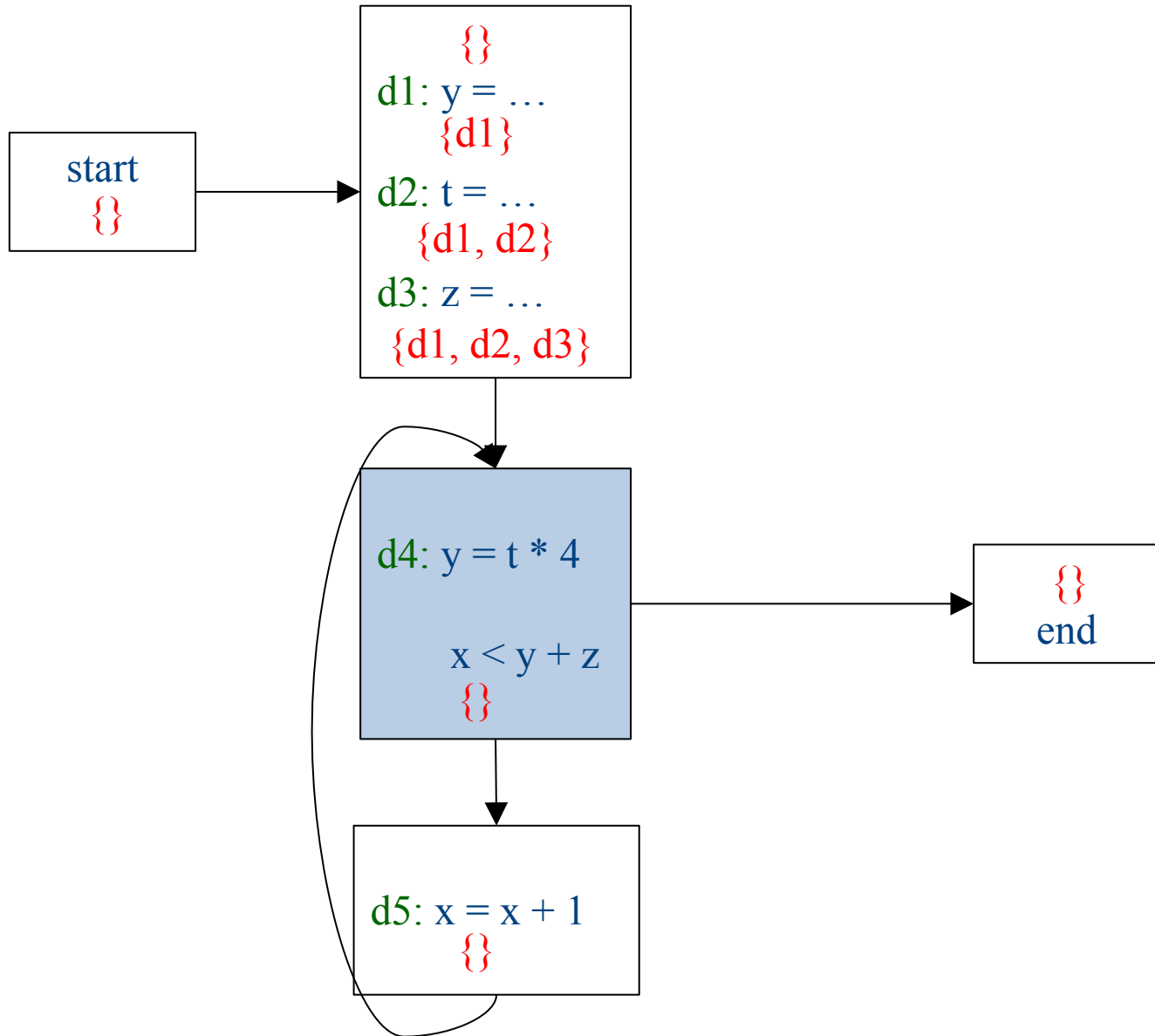
Iteration 1



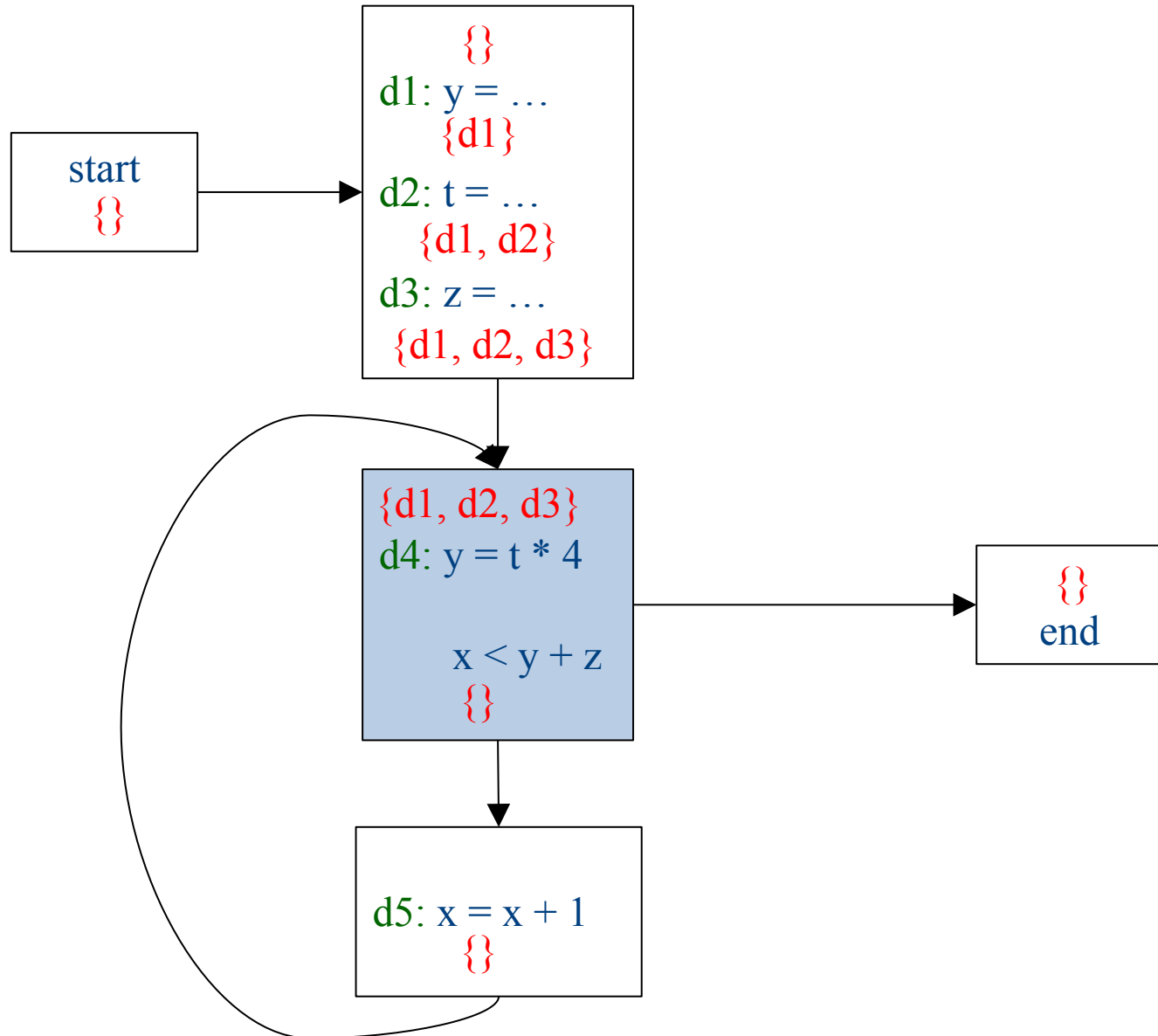
Iteration 1



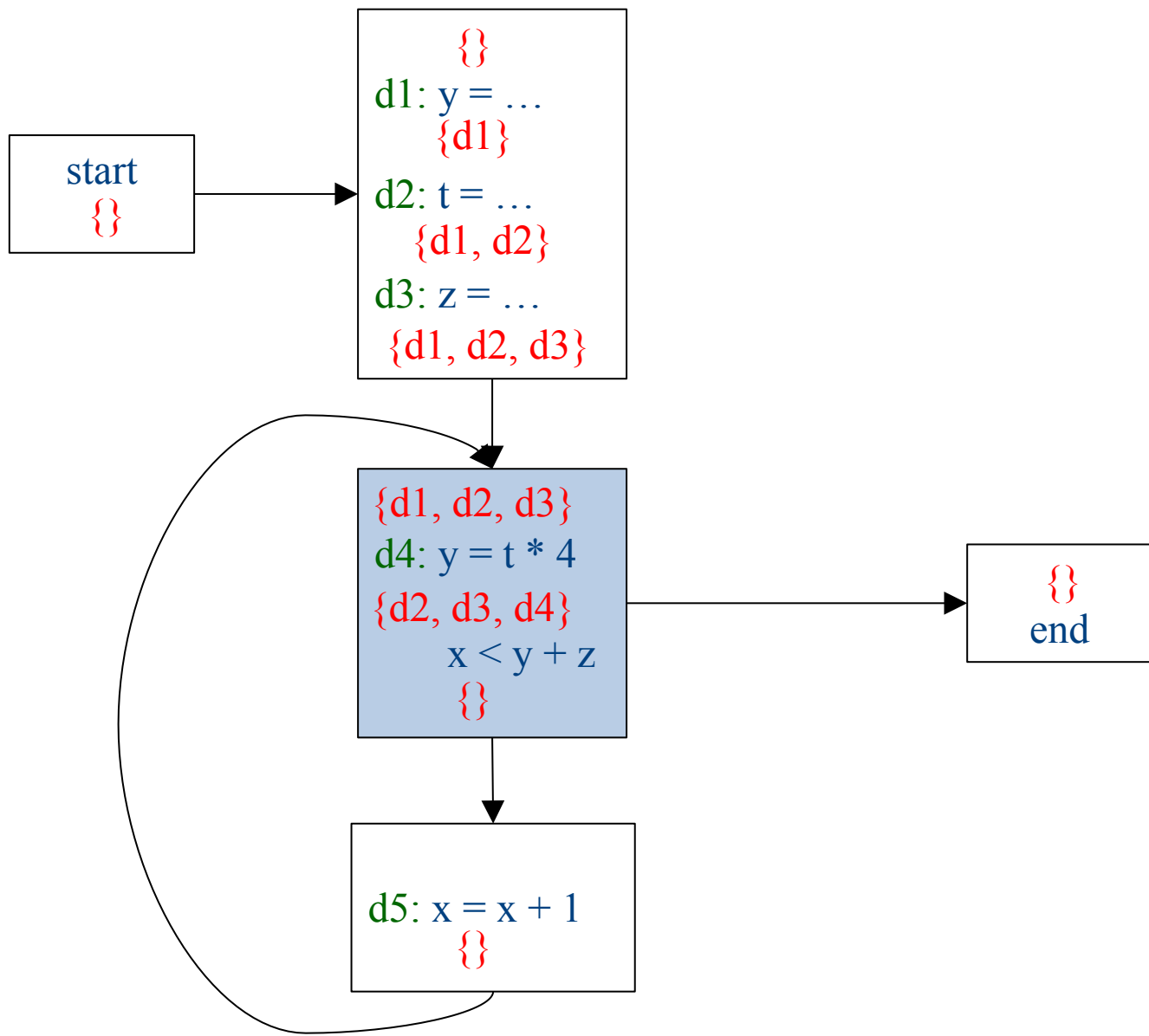
Iteration 2



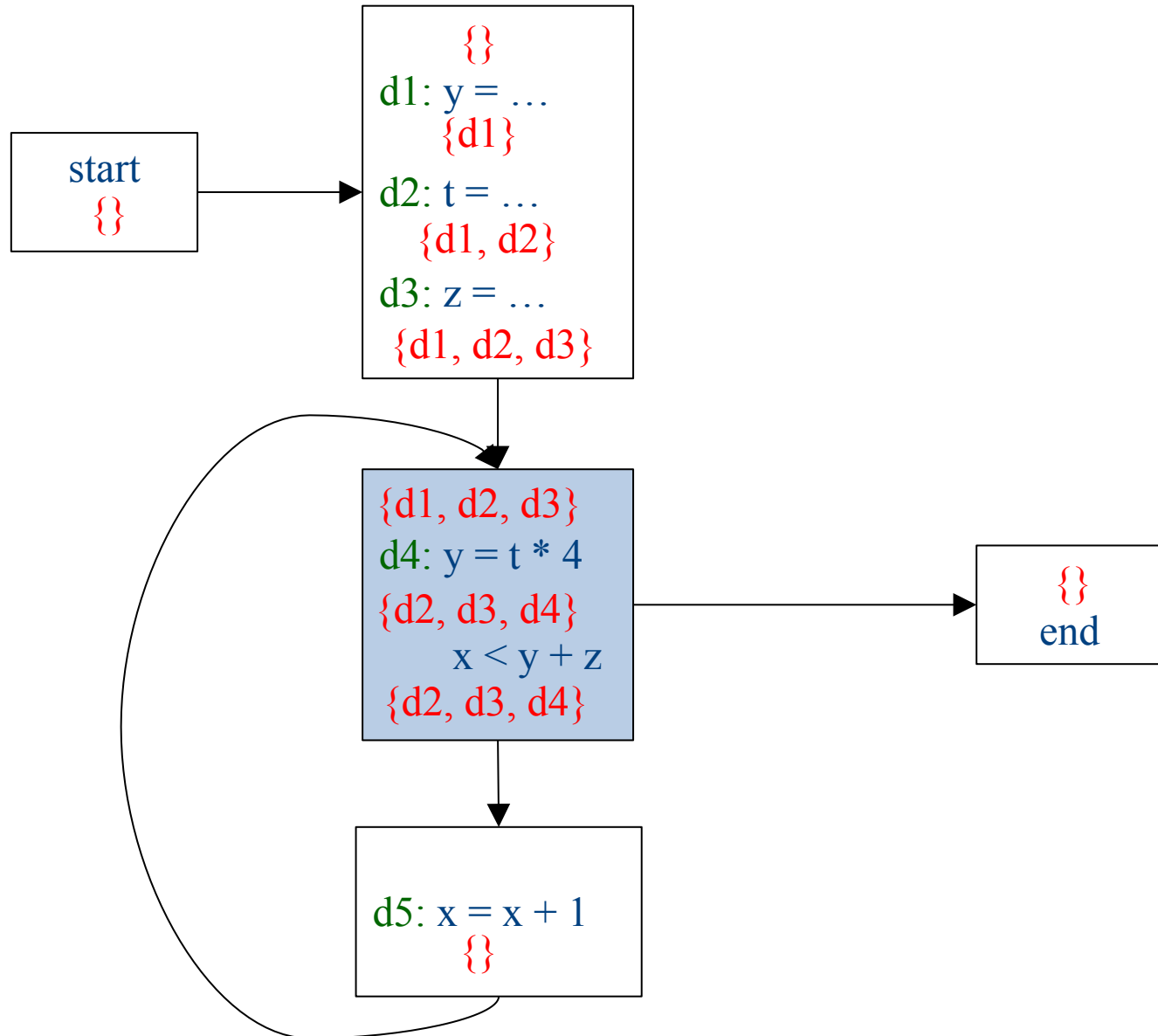
Iteration 2



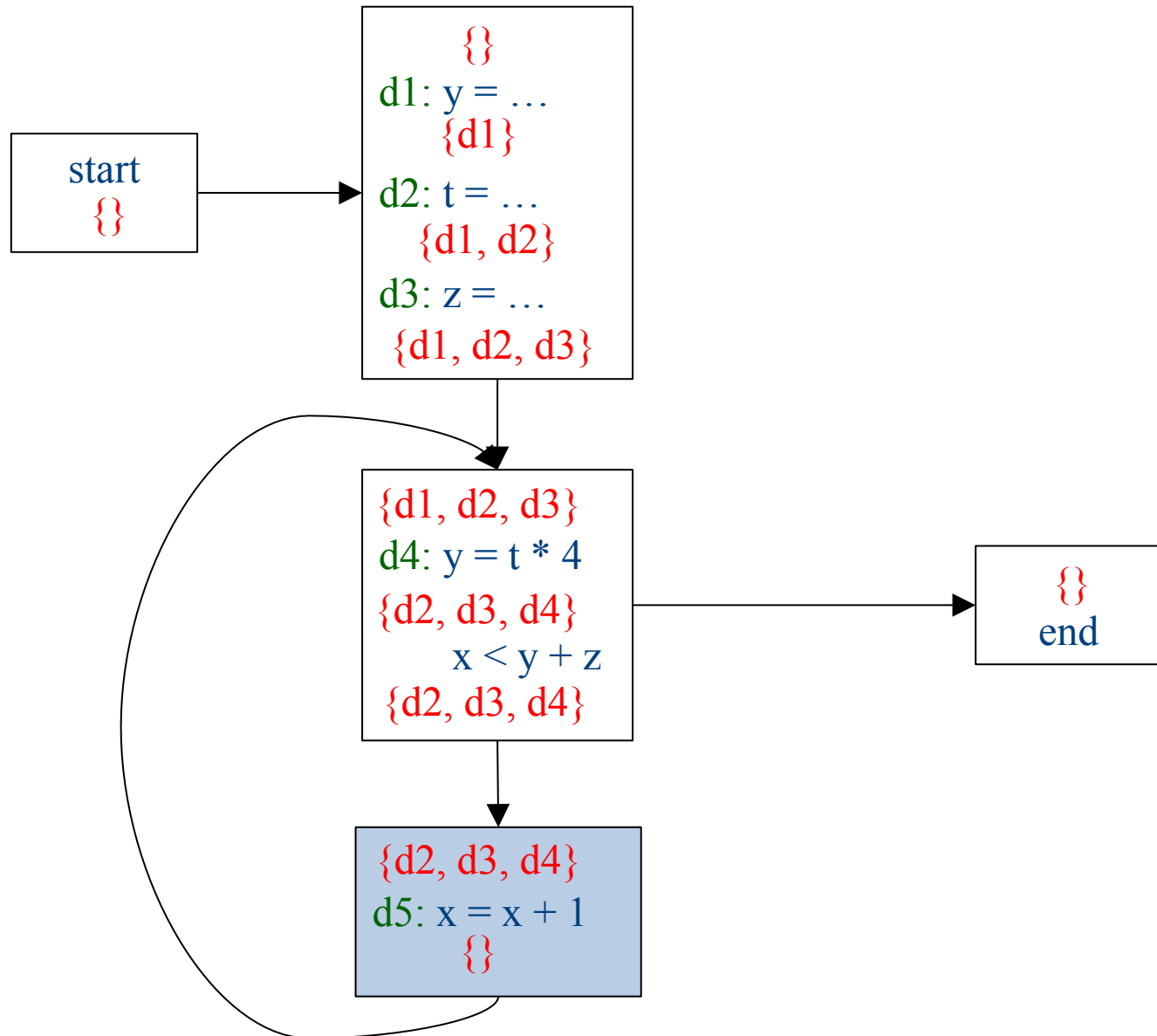
Iteration 2



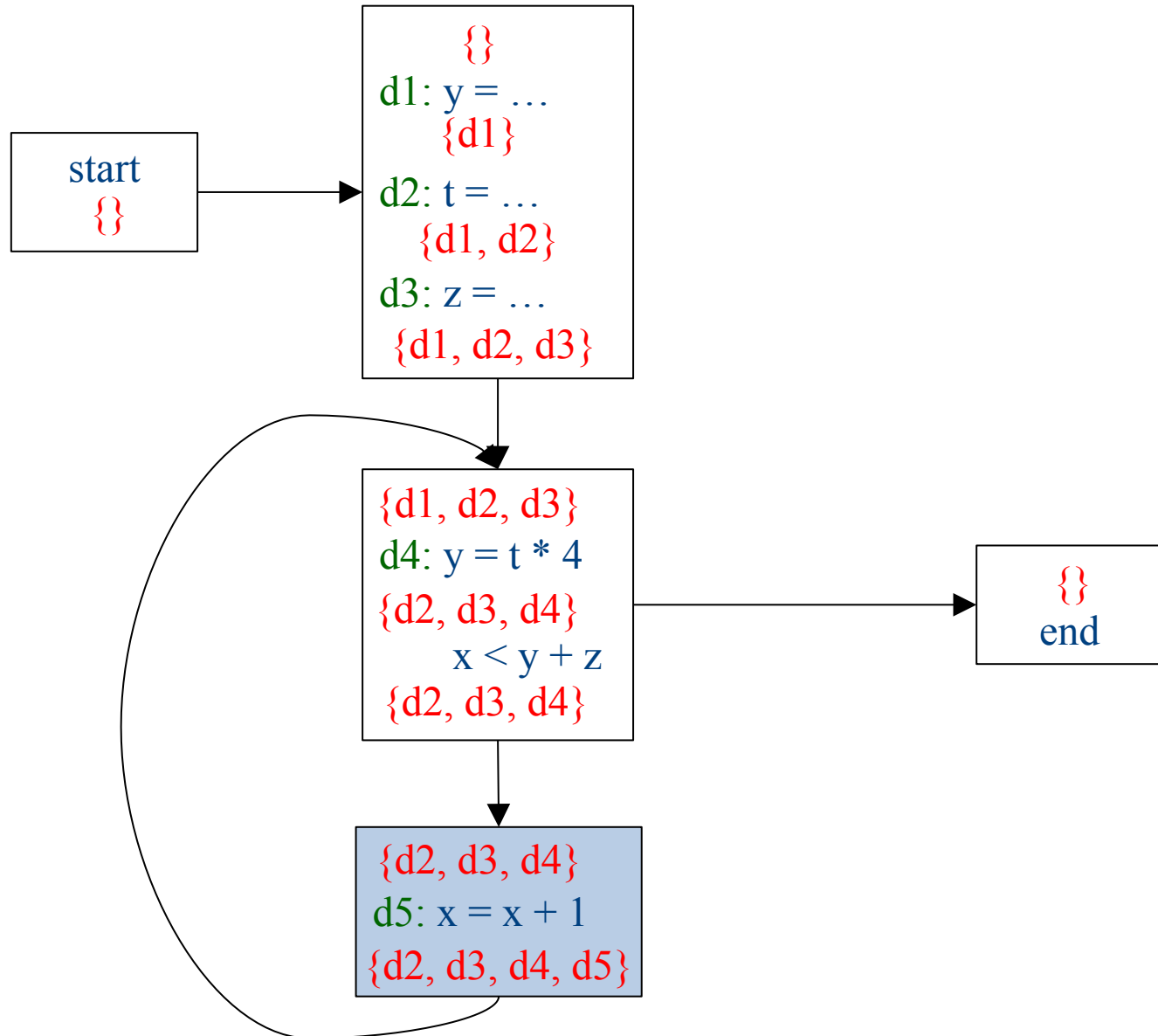
Iteration 2



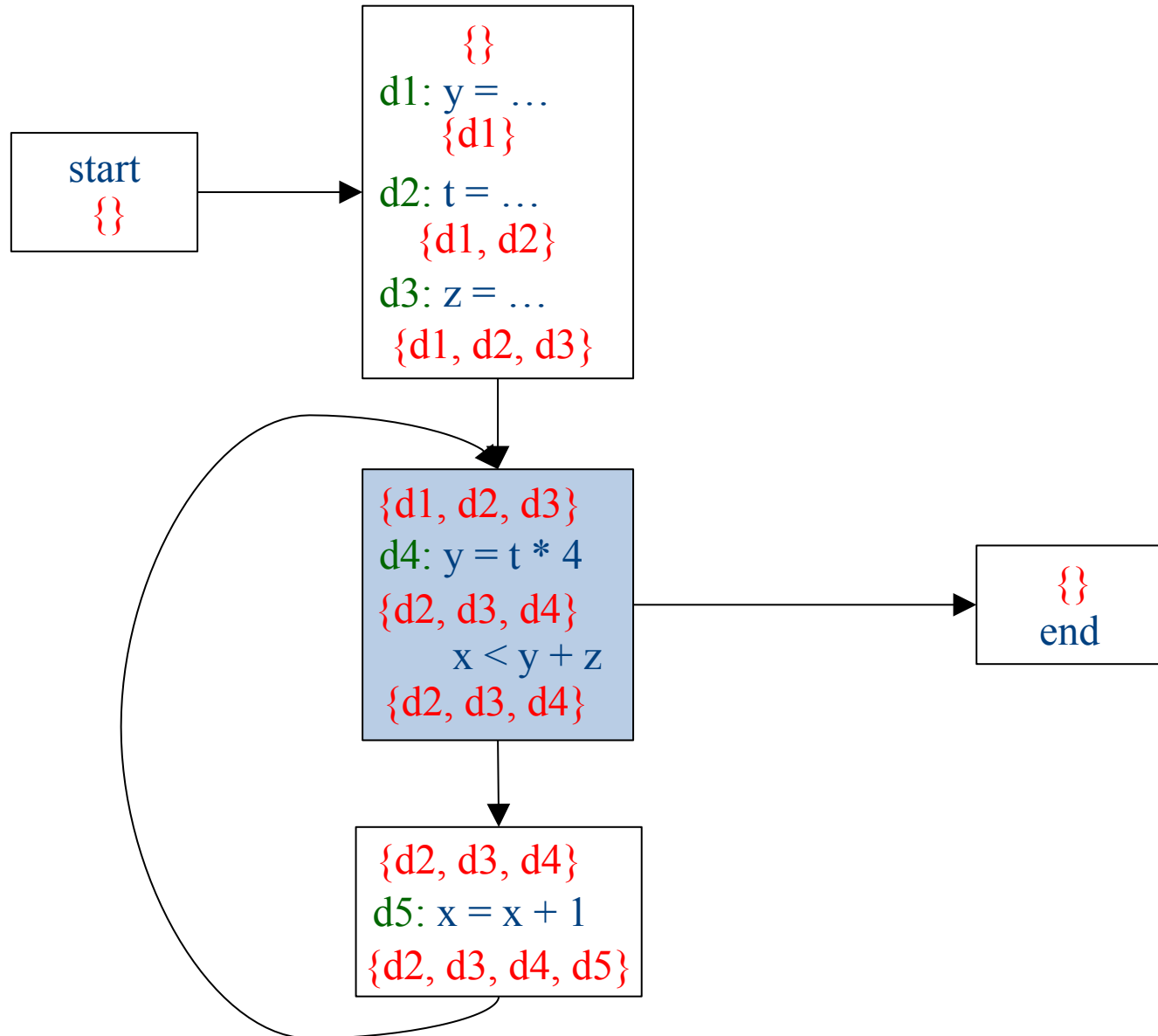
Iteration 3



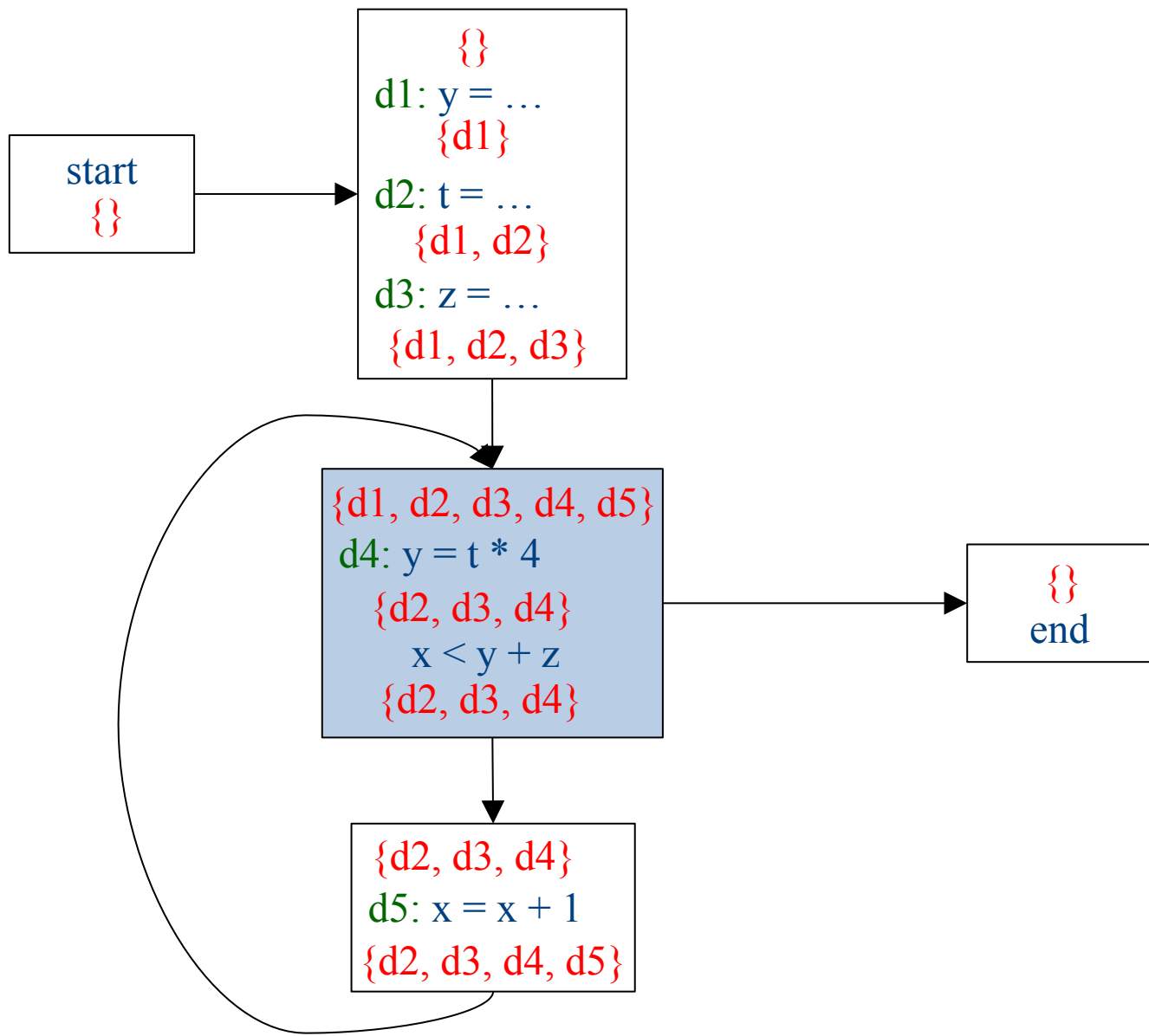
Iteration 3



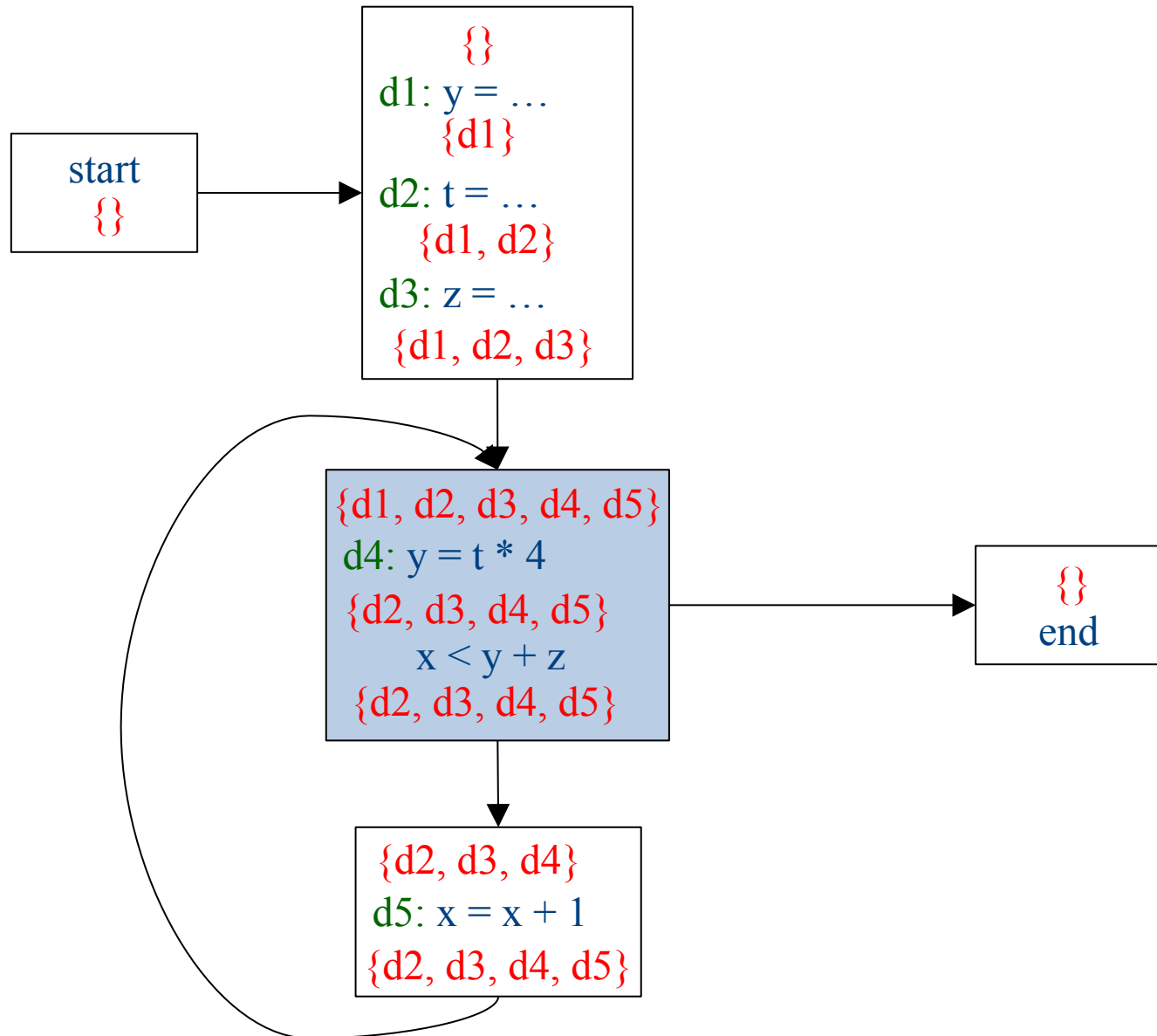
Iteration 4



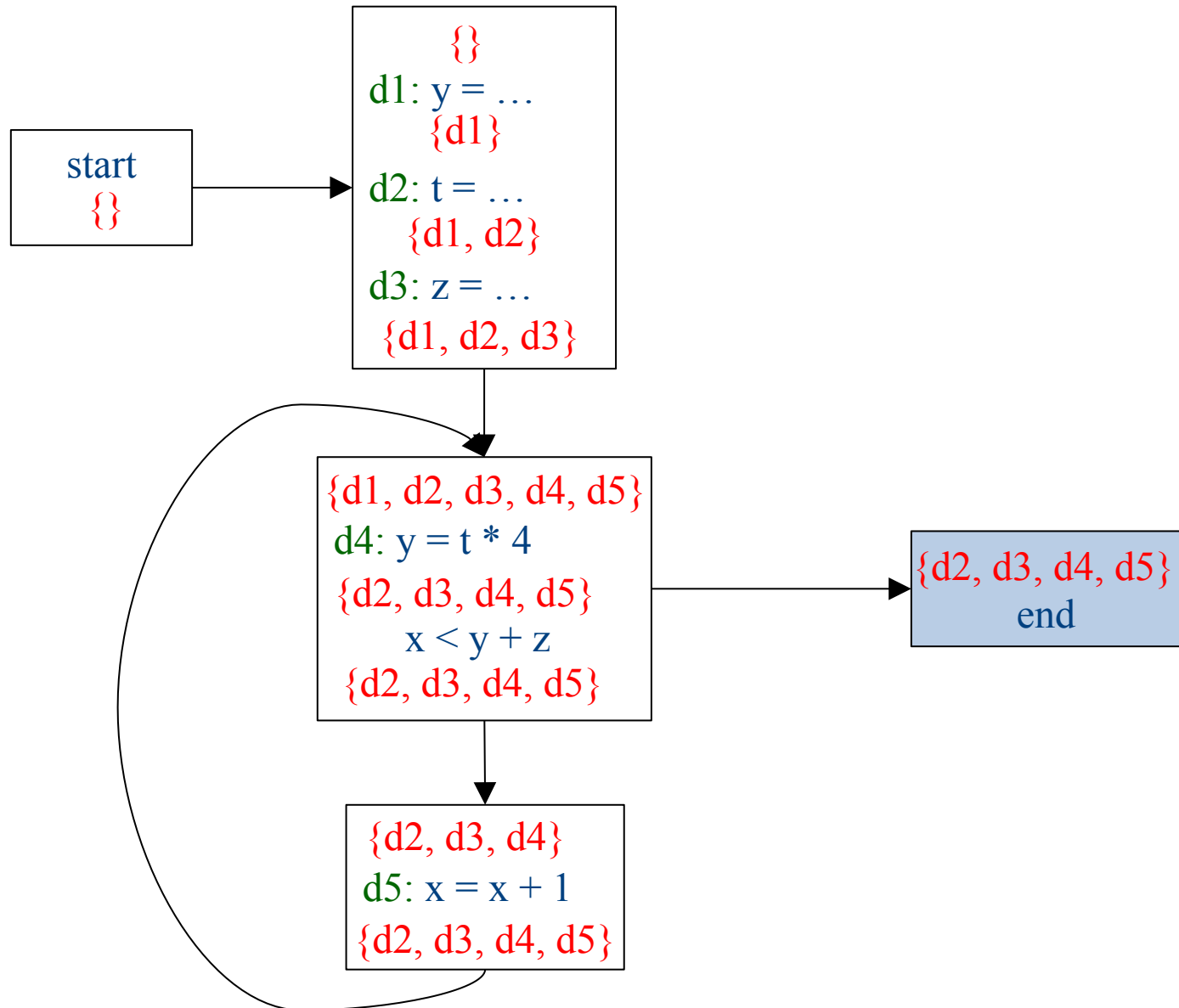
Iteration 4



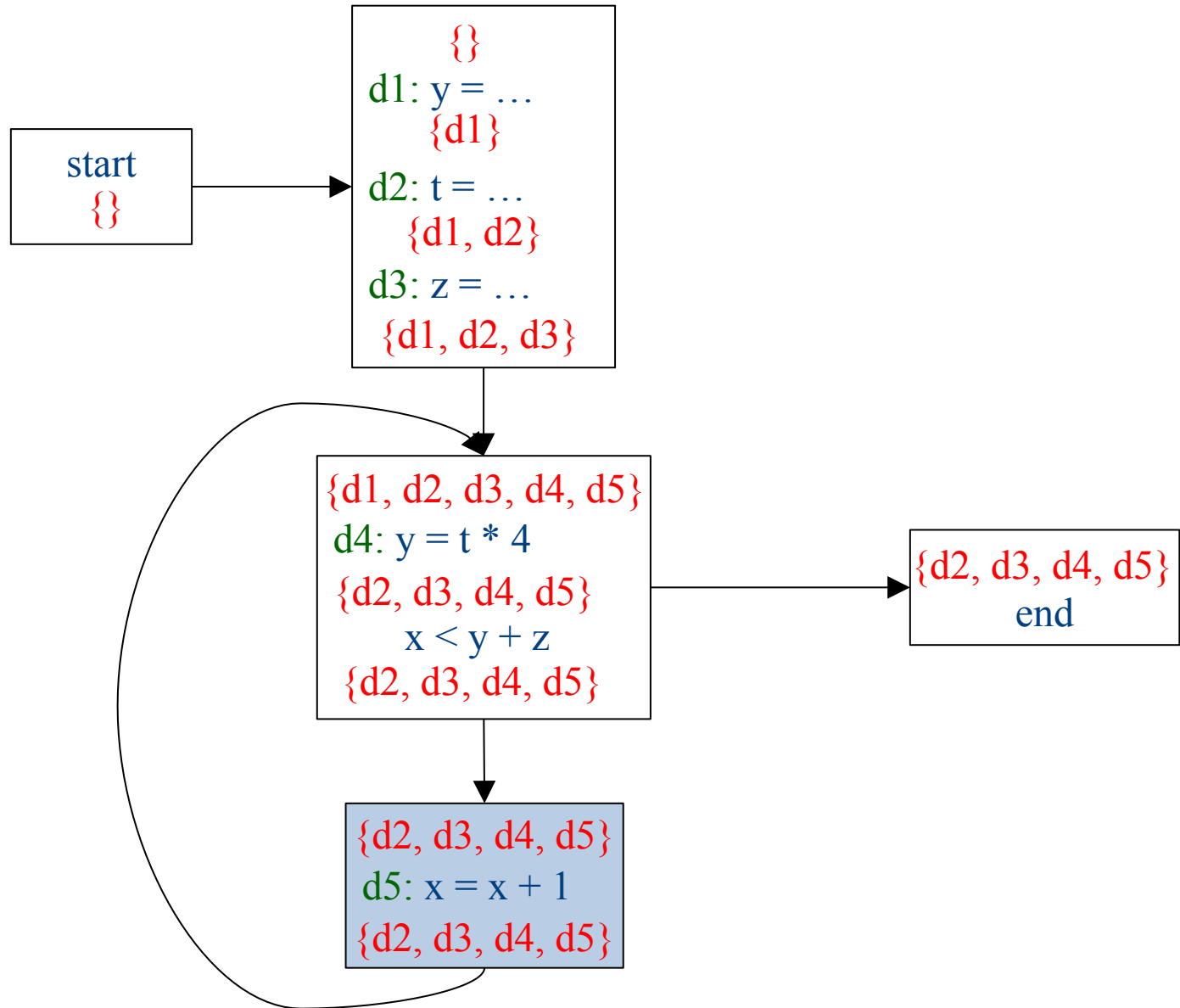
Iteration 4



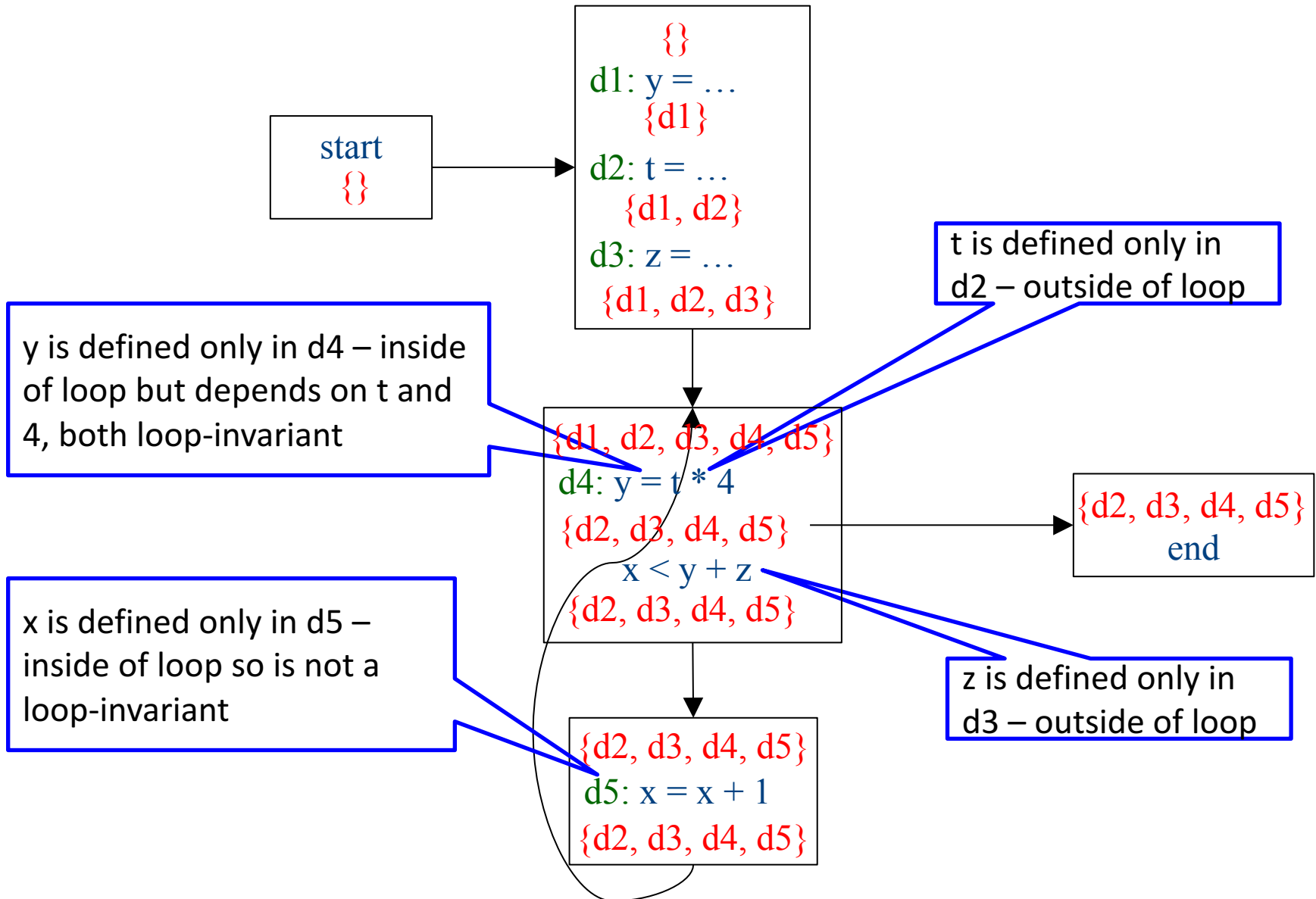
Iteration 5



Iteration 6



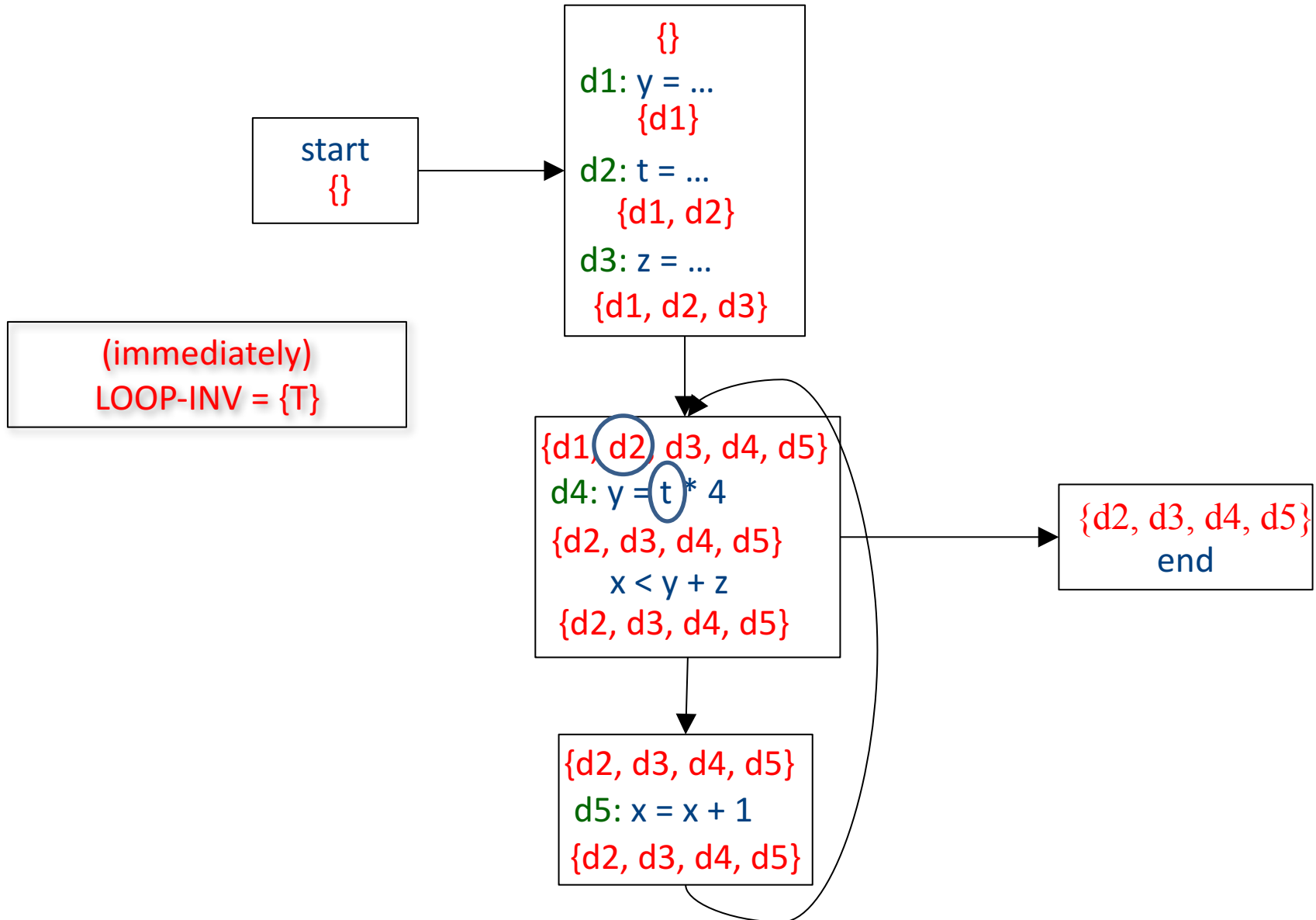
Which expressions are loop invariant?



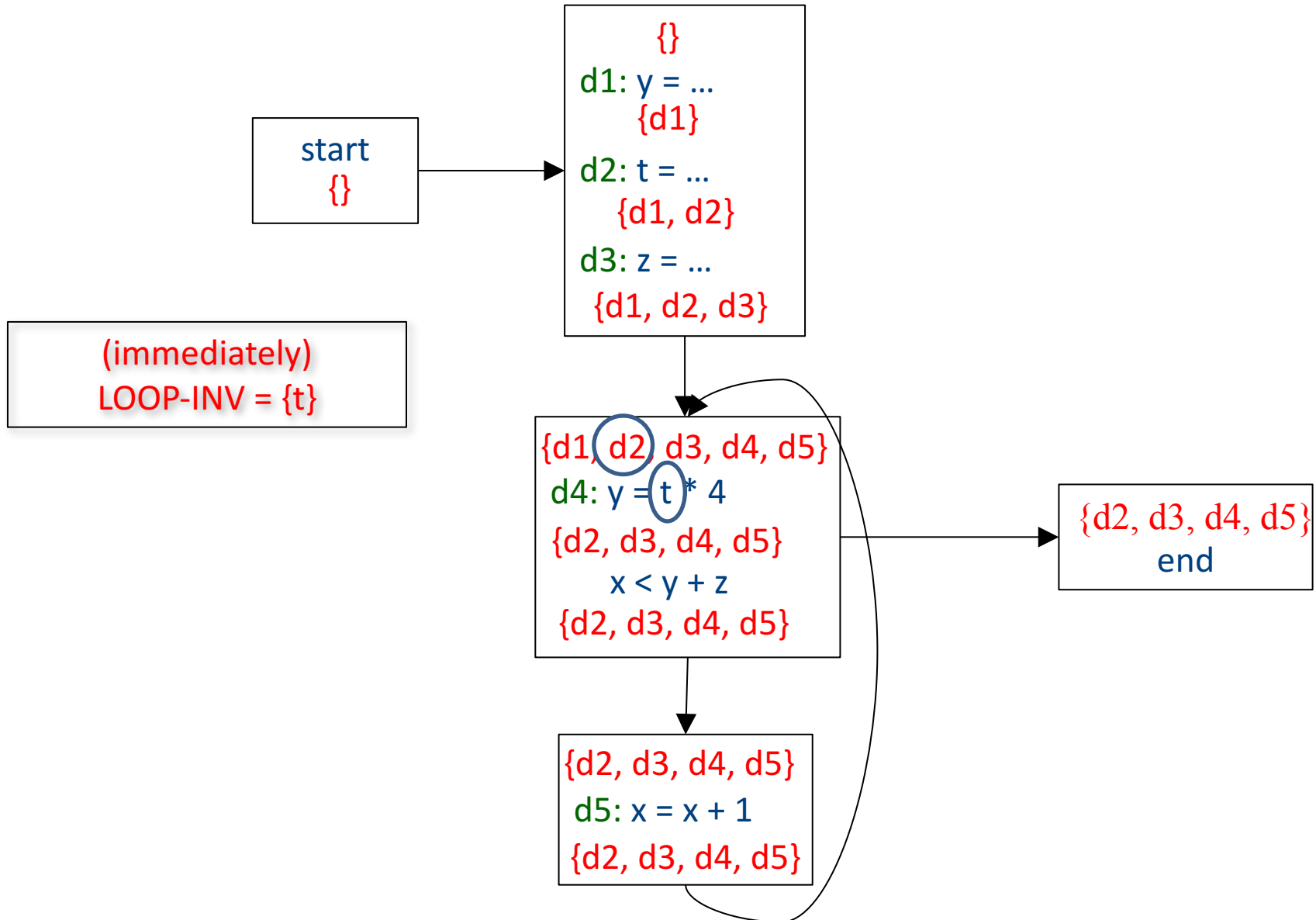
Inferring loop-invariant expressions

- For a statement s of the form $t = a_1 \text{ op } a_2$
- A variable a_i is immediately loop-invariant if all reaching definitions $IN[s]=\{d_1, \dots, d_k\}$ for a_i are outside of the loop
- LOOP-INV = immediately loop-invariant variables and constants
LOOP-INV = LOOP-INV \blacktriangleright $\{x \mid d: x = a_1 \text{ op } a_2, d \text{ is in the loop, and both } a_1 \text{ and } a_2 \text{ are in LOOP-INV}\}$
 - Iterate until fixed-point
- An expression is loop-invariant if all operands are loop-invariants

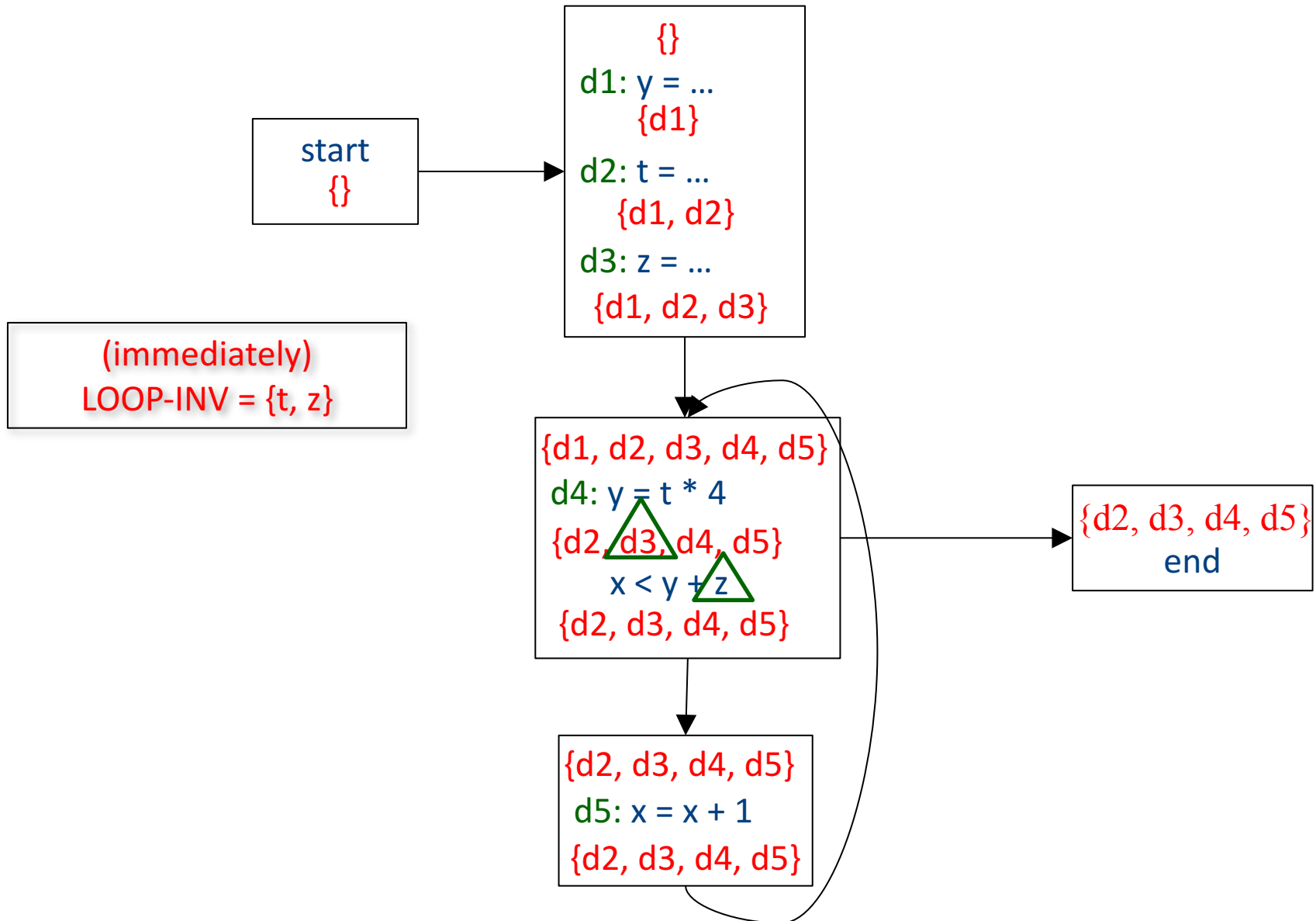
Computing LOOP-INV



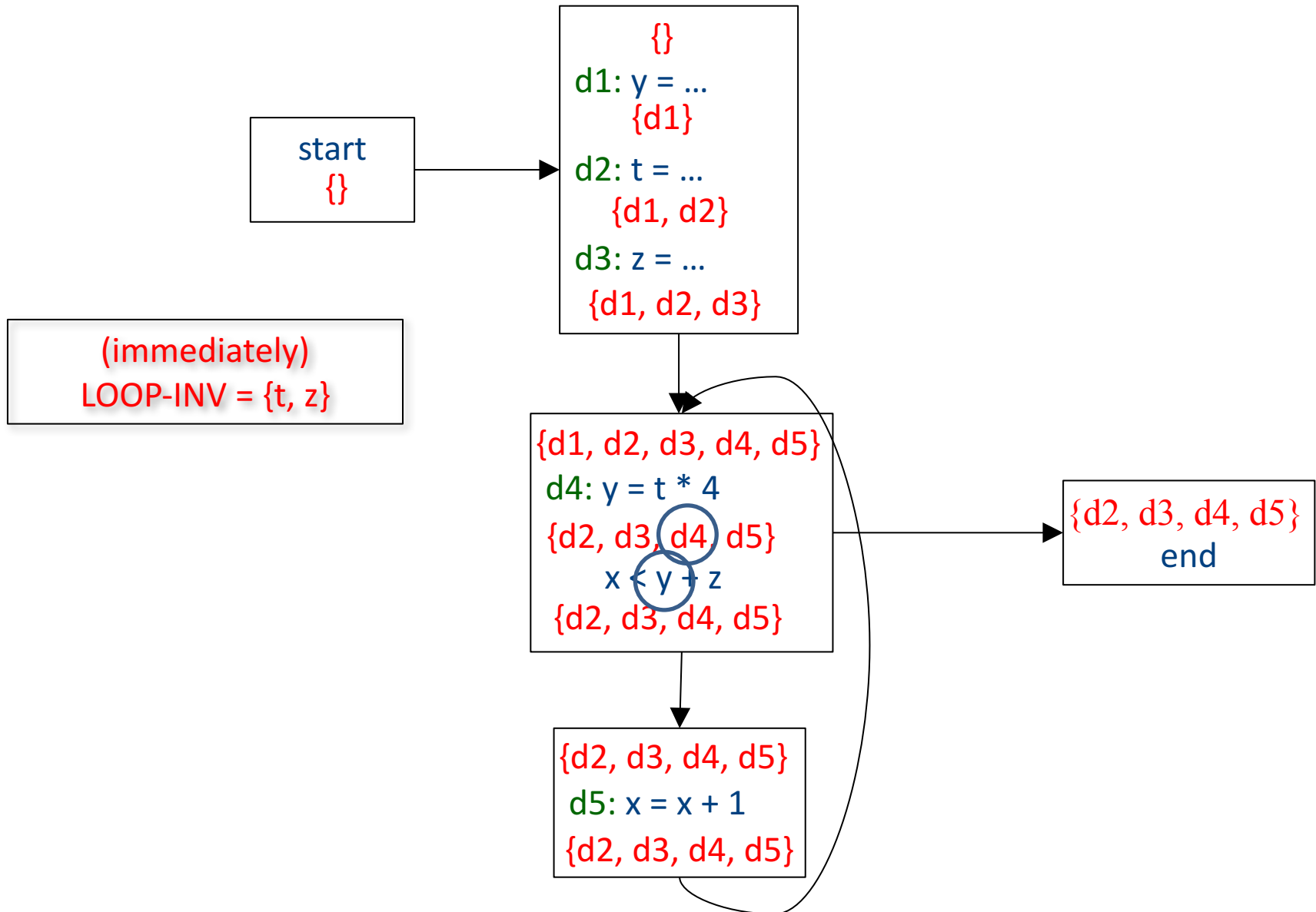
Computing LOOP-INV



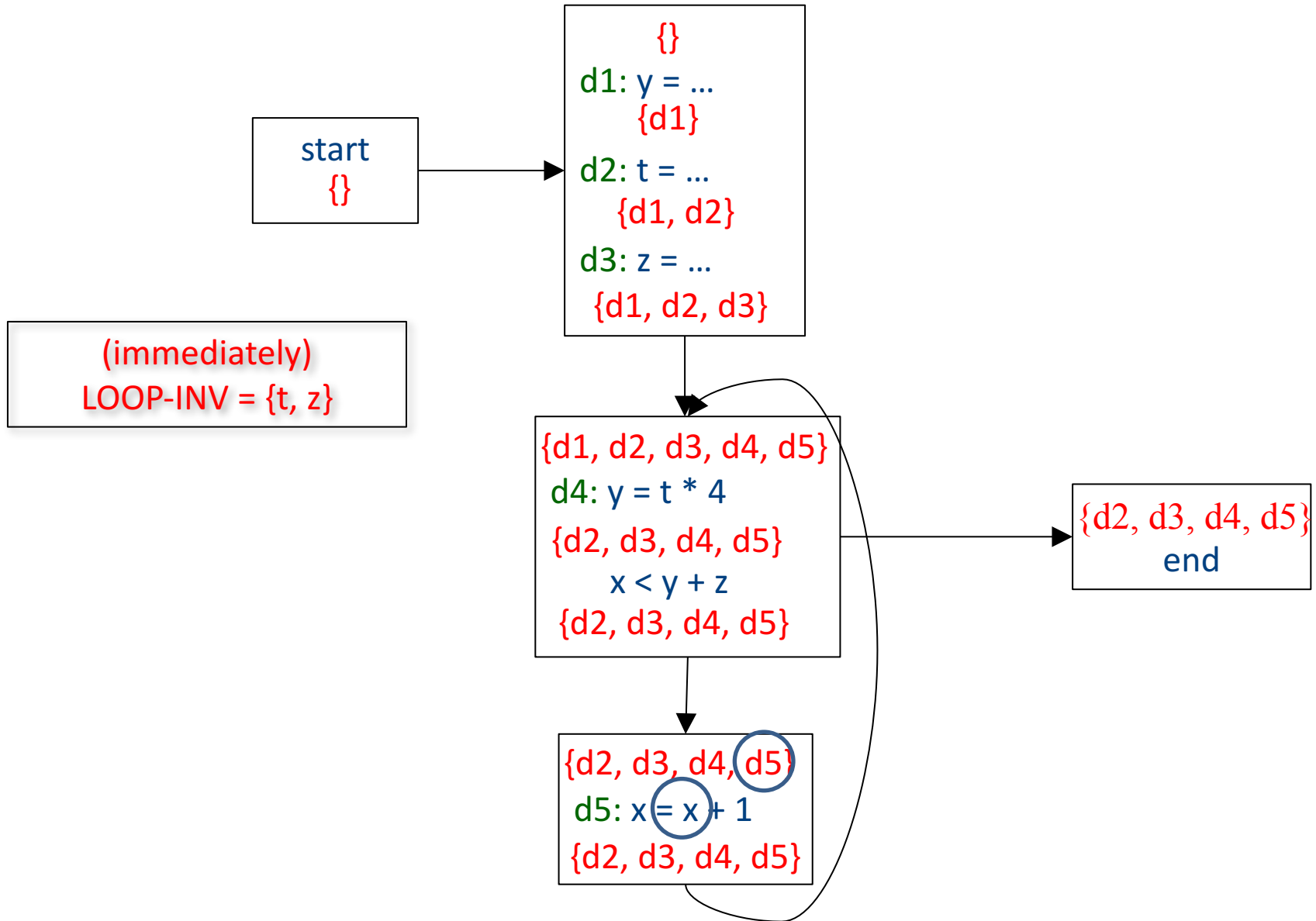
Computing LOOP-INV



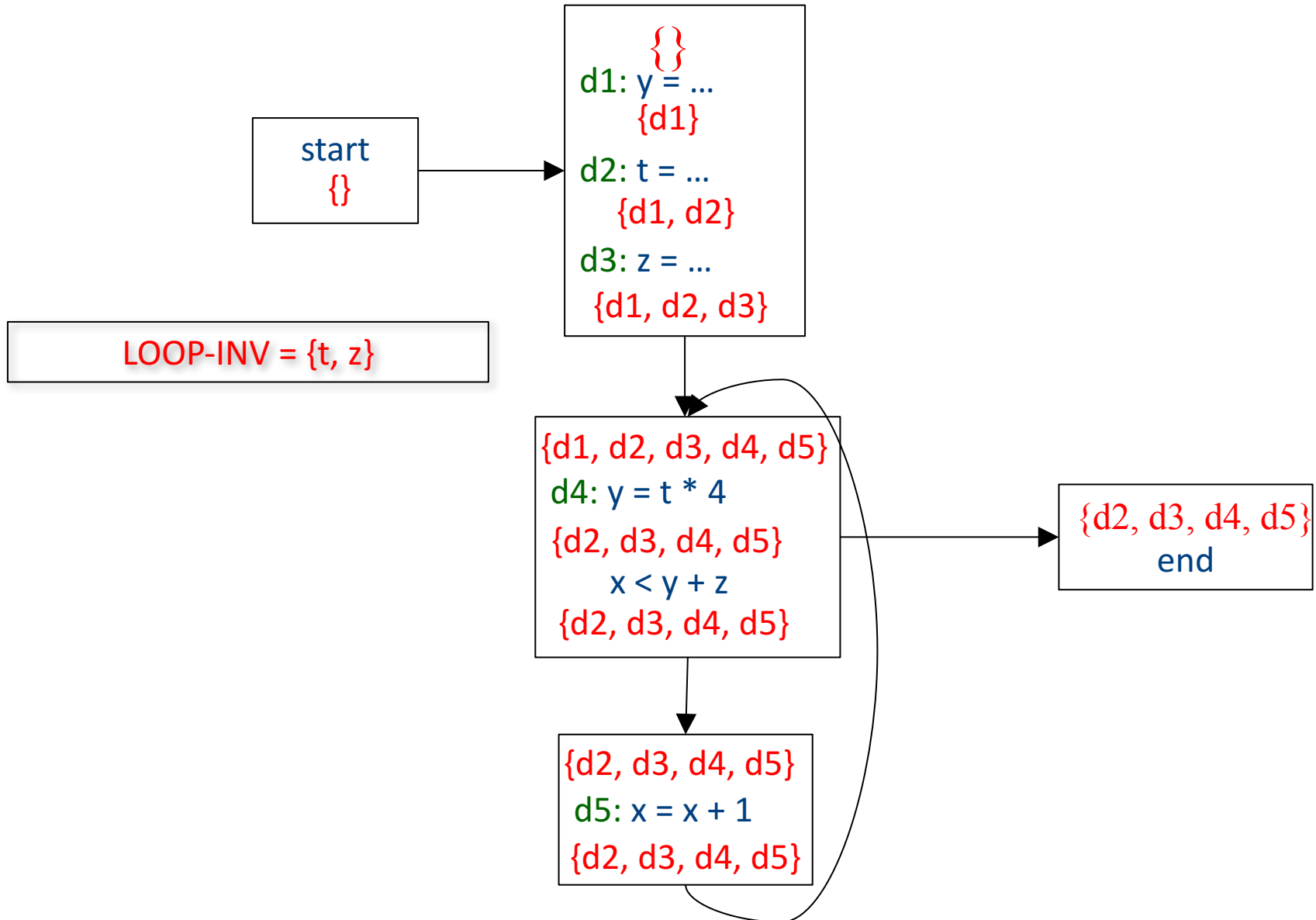
Computing LOOP-INV



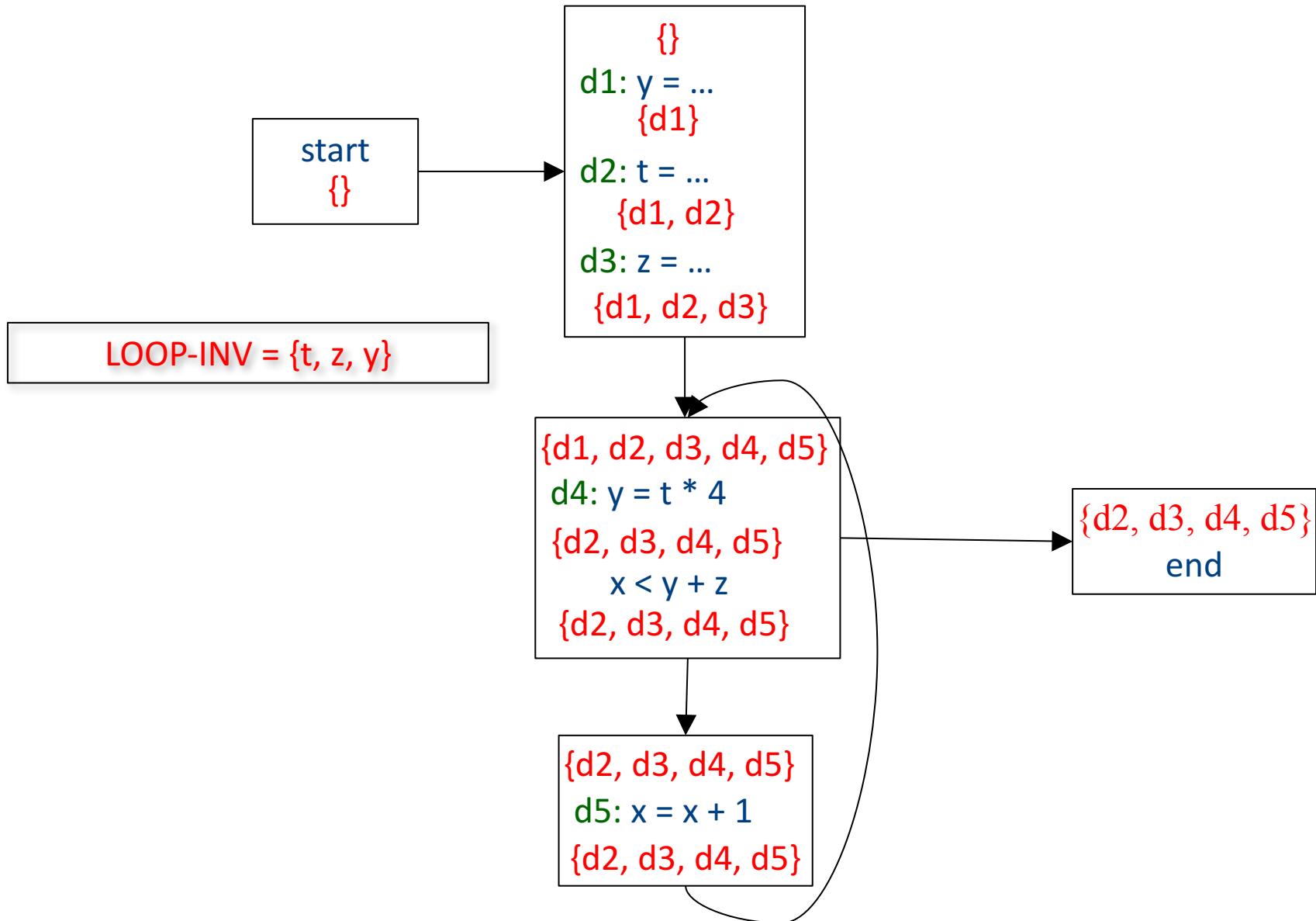
Computing LOOP-INV



Computing LOOP-INV



Computing LOOP-INV



Induction variables

j is a linear function of the induction variable with multiplier 4

```
while (i < x) {  
    j = a + 4 * i  
    a[j] = j  
    i = i + 1  
}
```

i is incremented by a loop-invariant expression on each iteration – this is called an **induction variable**

Strength-reduction

Prepare initial
value

```
j = a + 4 * i
while (i < x)
    j = j + 4
    a[j] = j
    i = i + 1
}
```

Increment by
multiplier

Compilation

0368-3133

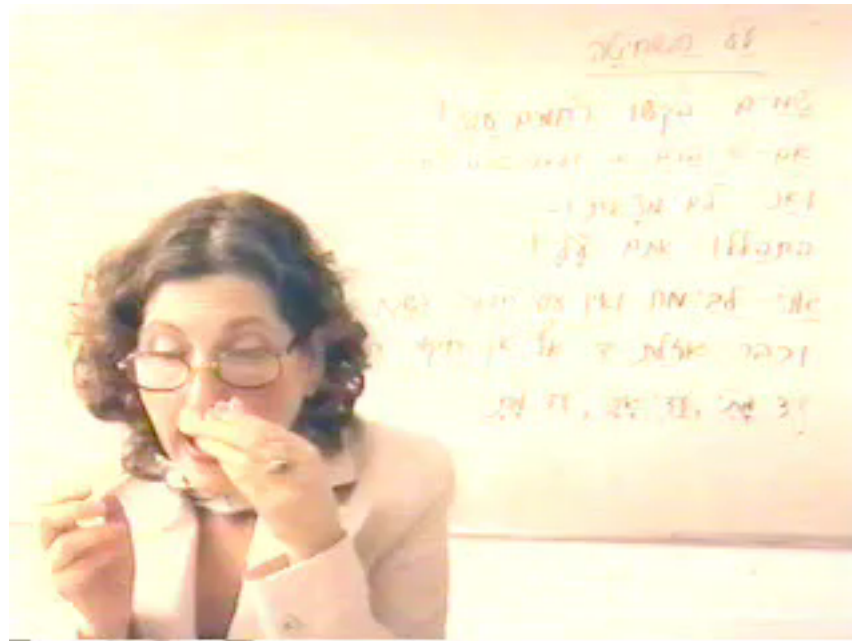
Lecture 10b



Register Allocation

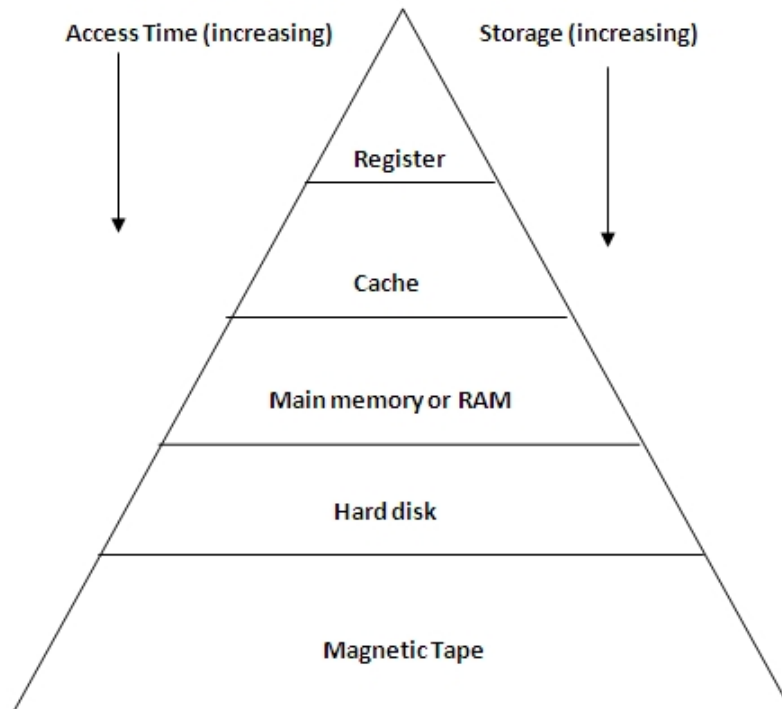
Noam Rinetzky

What is a Compiler?



Registers

- **Dedicated memory** locations that
 - can be accessed quickly,
 - can have computations performed on them, and



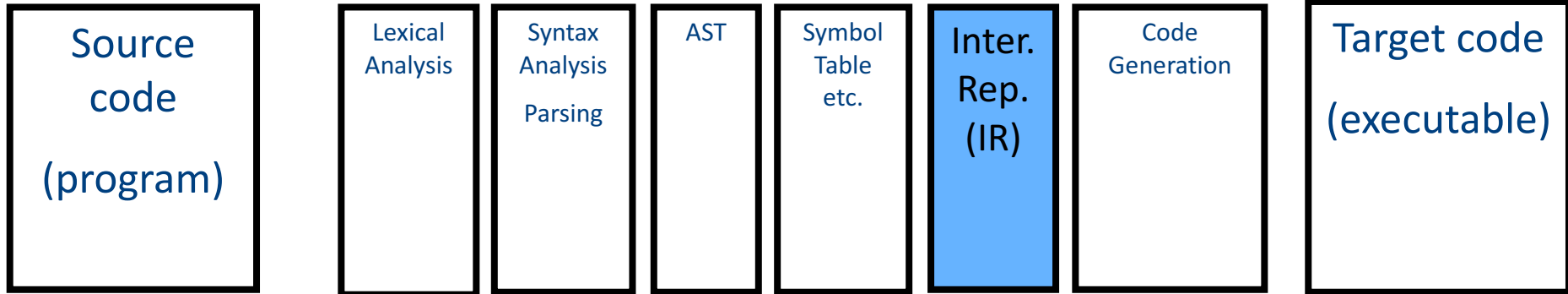
Registers

- **Dedicated memory** locations that
 - can be accessed quickly,
 - can have computations performed on them, and
- Usages
 - Operands of instructions
 - Store temporary results
 - Can (should) be used as loop indexes due to frequent arithmetic operation
 - Used to manage administrative info
 - e.g., runtime stack

Register allocation

- Number of registers is **limited**
- Need to **allocate** them in a clever way
 - Using registers intelligently is a critical step in any compiler
 - A good register allocator can generate code orders of magnitude better than a bad register allocator

Register Allocation: IR



Simple approach

- **Straightforward solution:**
 - Allocate each variable in activation record
 - At each instruction, bring values needed into registers, perform operation, then store result to memory

$x = y + z$



```
mov 16(%ebp), %eax
mov 20(%ebp), %ebx
add %ebx, %eax
mov %eax, 24(%ebp)
```

- **Problem:** program execution very inefficient—moving data back and forth between memory and registers

Simple code generation

- assume machine instructions of the form
 - LD `reg, mem`
 - ST `mem, reg`
 - OP `reg, reg, reg (*)`
- assume that we have all registers available for our use
 - Ignore registers allocated for stack management
 - Treat all registers as general-purpose

Simple code generation

- assume machine instructions of the form
- LD `reg, mem`
- ST `mem, reg`
- OP `reg, reg, reg (*)`



Fixed number of
Registers!

Register allocation

- In **TAC**, there is an unlimited number of variables (temporaries)
- On a physical machine there is a small number of registers:
 - **x86** has **4** general-purpose registers and a number of specialized registers
 - **MIPS** has **24** general-purpose registers and **8** special-purpose registers
- **Register allocation** is the process of assigning variables to registers and managing data transfer in and out of registers

simple code generation

- assume machine instructions of the form
 - LD `reg, mem`
 - ST `mem, reg`
 - OP `reg, reg, reg (*)`
- We will assume that we have all registers available for any usage
 - Ignore registers allocated for stack management
 - Treat all registers as general-purpose



Fixed number of
Registers!

Plan

- Goal: Reduce number of temporaries (registers)
 - Machine-agnostic optimizations
 - Assume unbounded number of registers
 - Machine-dependent optimization
 - Use at most K registers
 - K is machine dependent

Sethi-Ullman translation

- Algorithm by Ravi Sethi and Jeffrey D. Ullman to emit optimal TAC
 - Minimizes number of temporaries for a **single expression**

Generating Compound Expressions

- Use registers to store temporaries
 - Why can we do it?
- Maintain a counter for temporaries in c
- Initially: $c = 0$
- $\mathbf{cgen}(e_1 \text{ op } e_2) = \{$
 - Let $A = \mathbf{cgen}(e_1)$
 - $c = c + 1$
 - Let $B = \mathbf{cgen}(e_2)$
 - $c = c + 1$
 - Emit($_tc = A \text{ op } B;$) // $_tc$ is a register
 - Return $_tc$ $\}$



Improving **cgen** for expressions

- Observation – naïve translation needlessly generates temporaries for leaf expressions
- Observation – temporaries used exactly once
 - Once a temporary has been read it can be reused for another sub-expression
- **cgen**($e_1 \text{ op } e_2$) = {
 Let $_t1$ = **cgen**(e_1)
 Let $_t2$ = **cgen**(e_2)
 Emit($_t1 = _t1 \text{ op } _t2$;)
 Return $_t1$
}
- Temporaries **cgen**(e_1) can be reused in **cgen**(e_2)

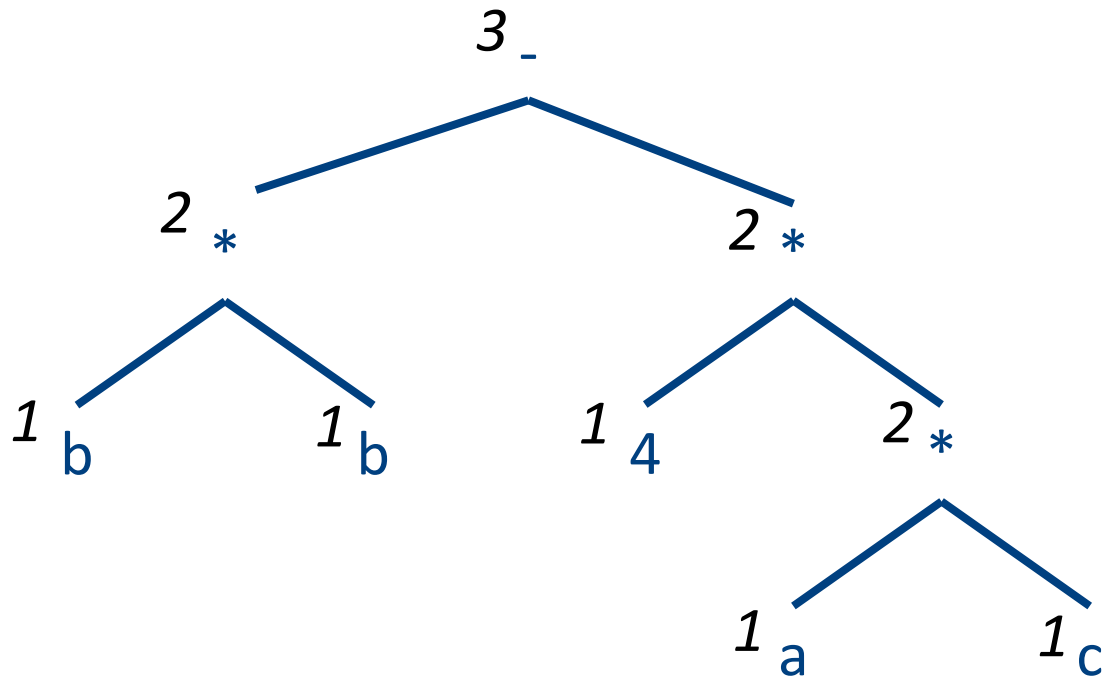
Register Allocation

- Machine-agnostic optimizations
 - Assume unbounded number of registers
 - Expression trees
 - Basic blocks
- Machine-dependent optimization
 - K registers
 - Some have special purposes
 - Control flow graphs (whole program)

Sethi-Ullman translation

- Algorithm by Ravi Sethi and Jeffrey D. Ullman to emit optimal TAC
 - Minimizes number of temporaries for a **single expression**

Example (optimized): $b * b - 4 * a * c$



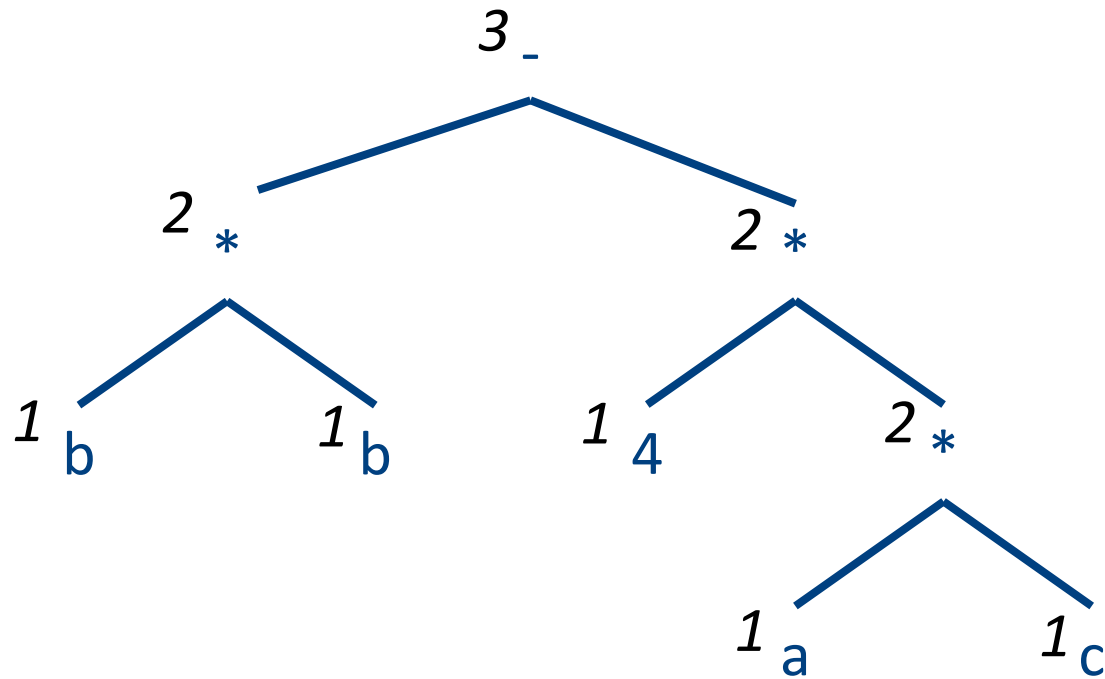
Generalizations

- More than two arguments for operators
 - Function calls
- Multiple effected registers
 - Multiplication
- Spilling
 - Need more registers than available
- Register/memory operations

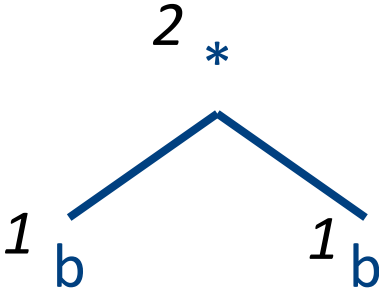
Simple **Spilling** Method

- Heavy tree – Needs more registers than available
- A “heavy” tree contains a “heavy” subtree whose dependents are “light”
- Simple spilling
 - Generate code for the light tree
 - Spill the content into memory and replace subtree by temporary
 - Generate code for the resultant tree

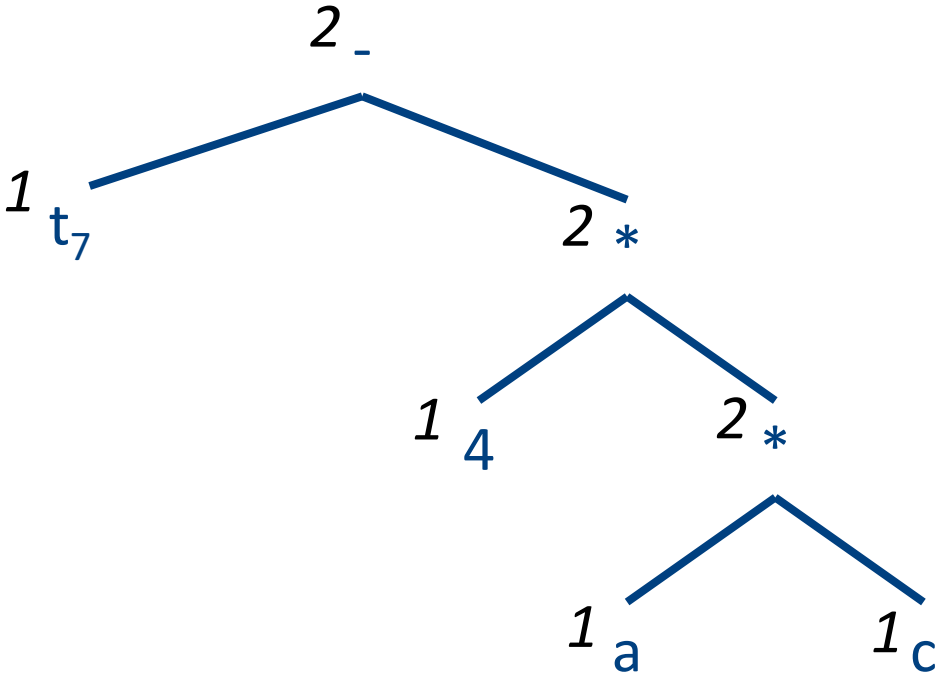
Example (optimized): $x := b * b - 4 * a * c$



Example (spilled): $x := b * b - 4 * a * c$

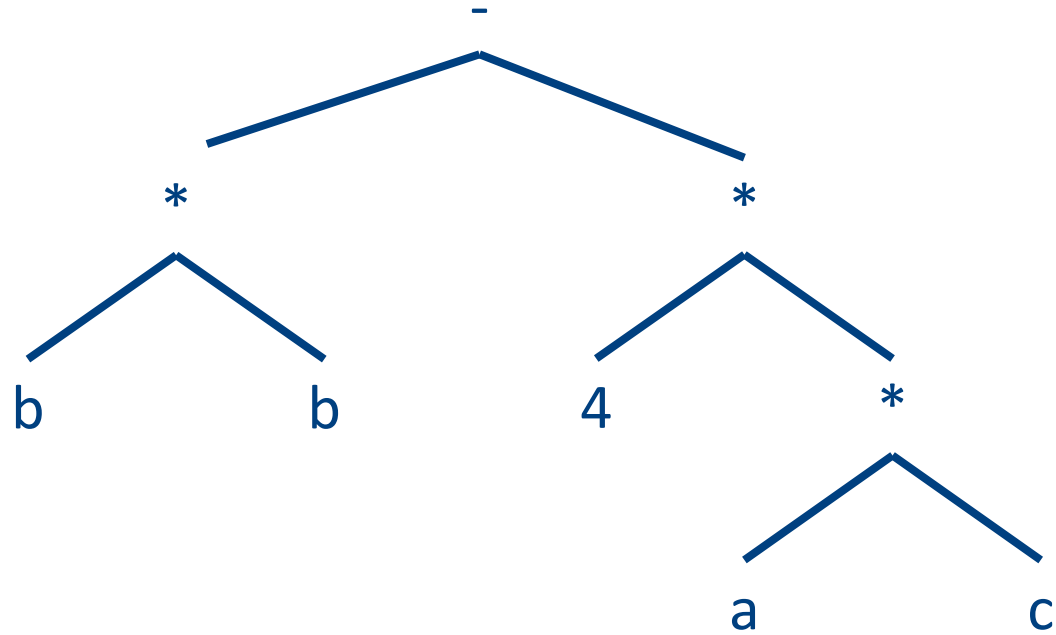


$t7 := b * b$

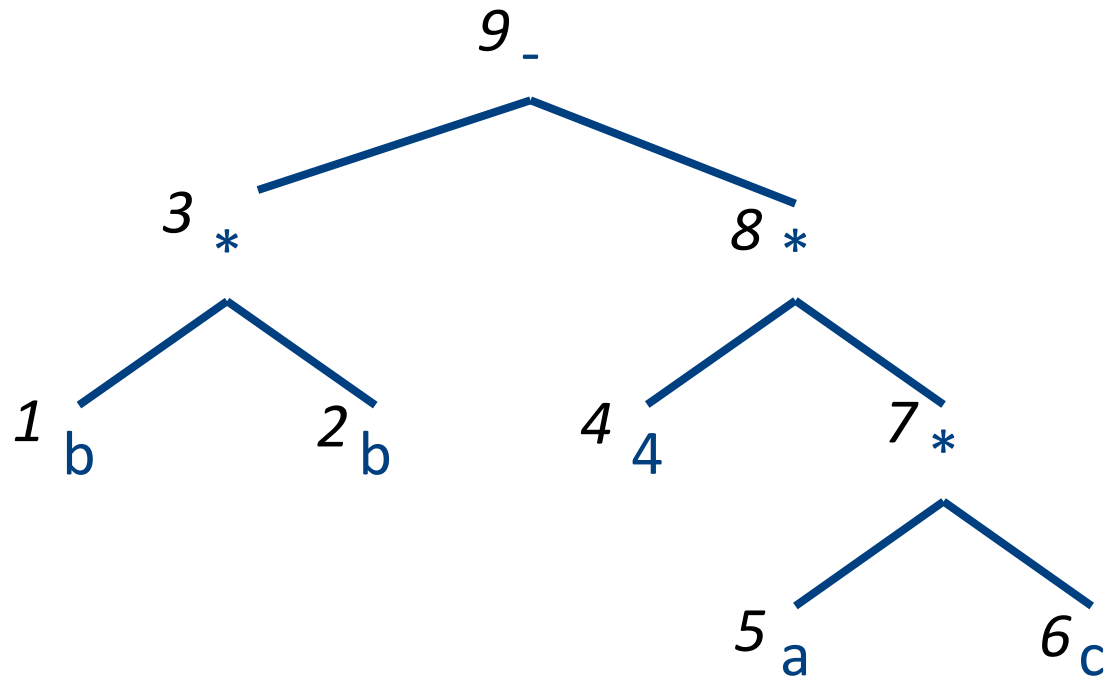


$x := t7 - 4 * a * c$

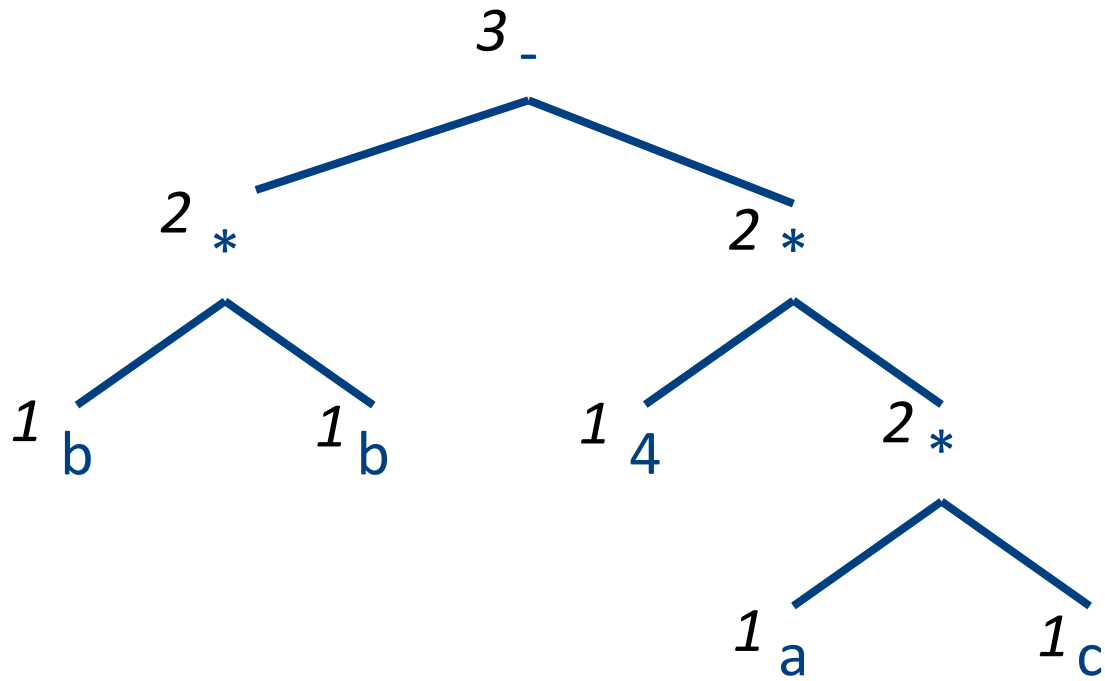
Example: $b * b - 4 * a * c$



Example (simple): $b^*b-4^*a^*c$



Example (optimized): $b * b - 4 * a * c$



Spilling

- Even an optimal register allocator can require more registers than available
- Need to generate code for every correct program
- The compiler can save temporary results
 - Spill registers into temporaries
 - Load when needed
- Many heuristics exist

Simple Spilling Method

- Heavy tree – Needs more registers than available
- A ‘heavy’ tree contains a ‘heavy’ subtree whose dependents are ‘light’
- Generate code for the light tree
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Spilling

- Even an optimal register allocator can require more registers than available
- Need to generate code for every correct program
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$x = y + z$



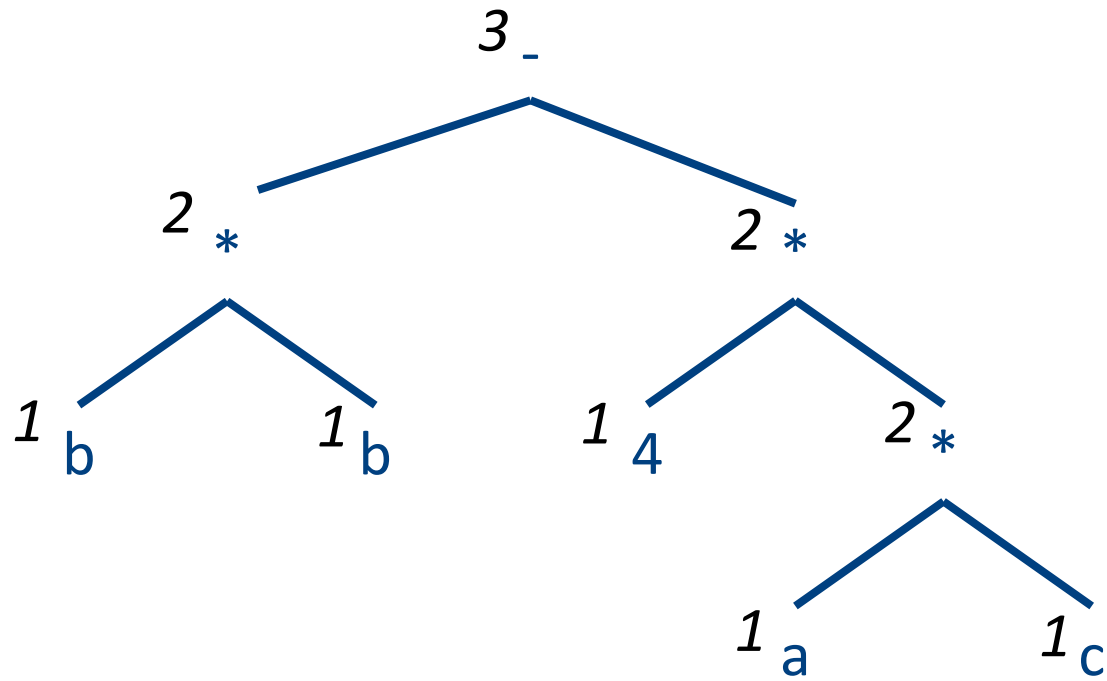
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mov %eax, 24(%ebx)
```

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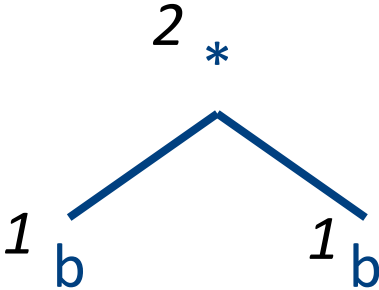
Register Allocation

- Machine-agnostic optimizations
 - Assume unbounded number of registers
 - Expression trees (tree-local)
 - Basic blocks (block-local)
- Machine-dependent optimization
 - K registers
 - Some have special purposes
 - Control flow graphs (global register allocation)

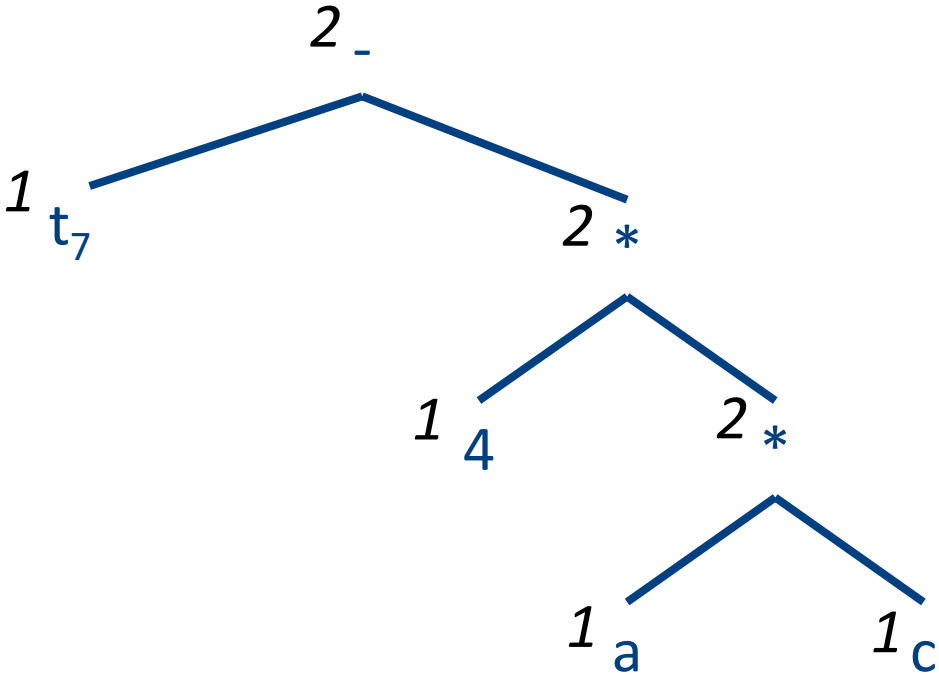
Example (optimized): $b * b - 4 * a * c$



Example (spilled): $x := b * b - 4 * a * c$



$t_7 := b * b$



$x := t_7 - 4 * a * c$

Simple Spilling Method

```
    Available register set \ Target register;
WHILE Node /= No node:
    Compute the weights of all nodes of the tree of Node;
    SET Tree node TO Maximal non_large tree (Node);
    Generate code
        (Tree node, Target register, Auxiliary register set);
    IF Tree node /= Node:
        SET Temporary location TO Next free temporary location();
        Emit ("Store R" Target register ",T" Temporary location);
        Replace Tree node by a reference to Temporary location;
        Return any temporary locations in the tree of Tree node
            to the pool of free temporary locations;
    ELSE Tree node = Node:
        Return any temporary locations in the tree of Node
            to the pool of free temporary locations;
    SET Node TO No node;

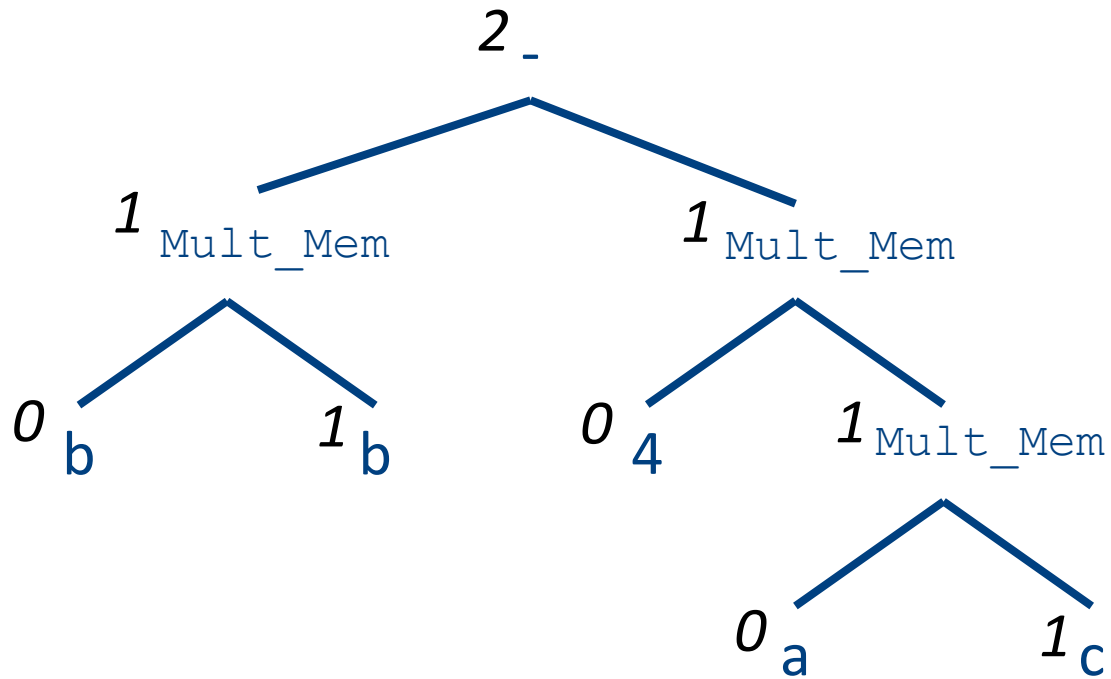
FUNCTION Maximal non_large tree (Node) RETURNING a node:
    IF Node .weight <= Size of Auxiliary register set: RETURN Node;
    IF Node .left .weight > Size of Auxiliary register set:
        RETURN Maximal non_large tree (Node .left);
    IF Node .right .weight > Size of Auxiliary register set:
```


Register Memory Operations

- Add_Mem X, R1
- Mult_Mem X, R1
- No need for registers to store right operands



Example: $b * b - 4 * a * c$



Can We do Better?

- Yes: Increase view of code
 - Simultaneously allocate registers for multiple expressions
- But: Lose per expression optimality
 - Works well in practice

Register Allocation

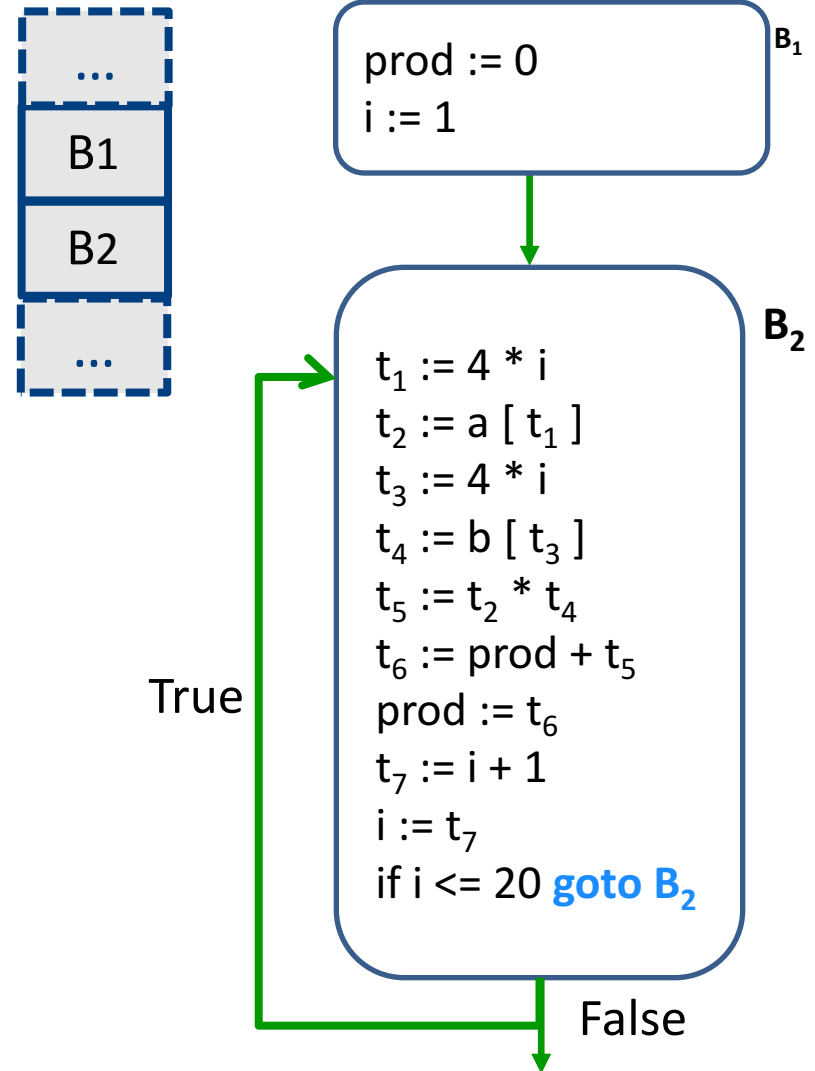
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 - Expression trees
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 - K registers
 - Some have special purposes
 - Control flow graphs (whole program)

Basic Blocks

- **basic block** is a sequence of instructions with
 - **single entry** (to first instruction), no jumps to the middle of the block
 - **single exit** (last instruction)
 - code execute as a sequence from first instruction to last instruction without any jumps
- edge from one basic block B1 to another block B2 when the last statement of B1 may jump to B2

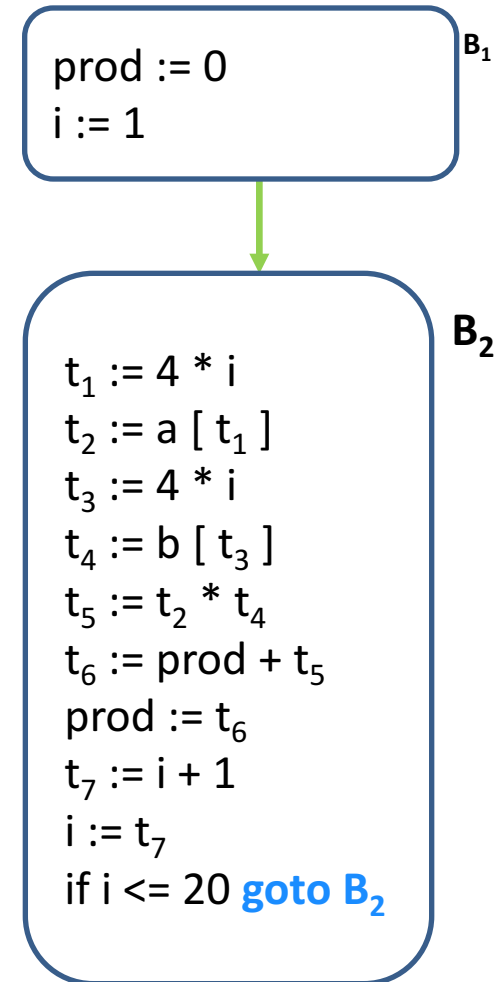
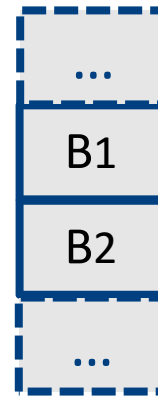
control flow graph

- A directed graph $G=(V,E)$
- nodes V = basic blocks
- edges E = control flow
 - $(B1,B2) \in E$ when control from B1 flows to B2
- **Leaders**-based construction
 - Target of jump instructions
 - Instructions following jumps



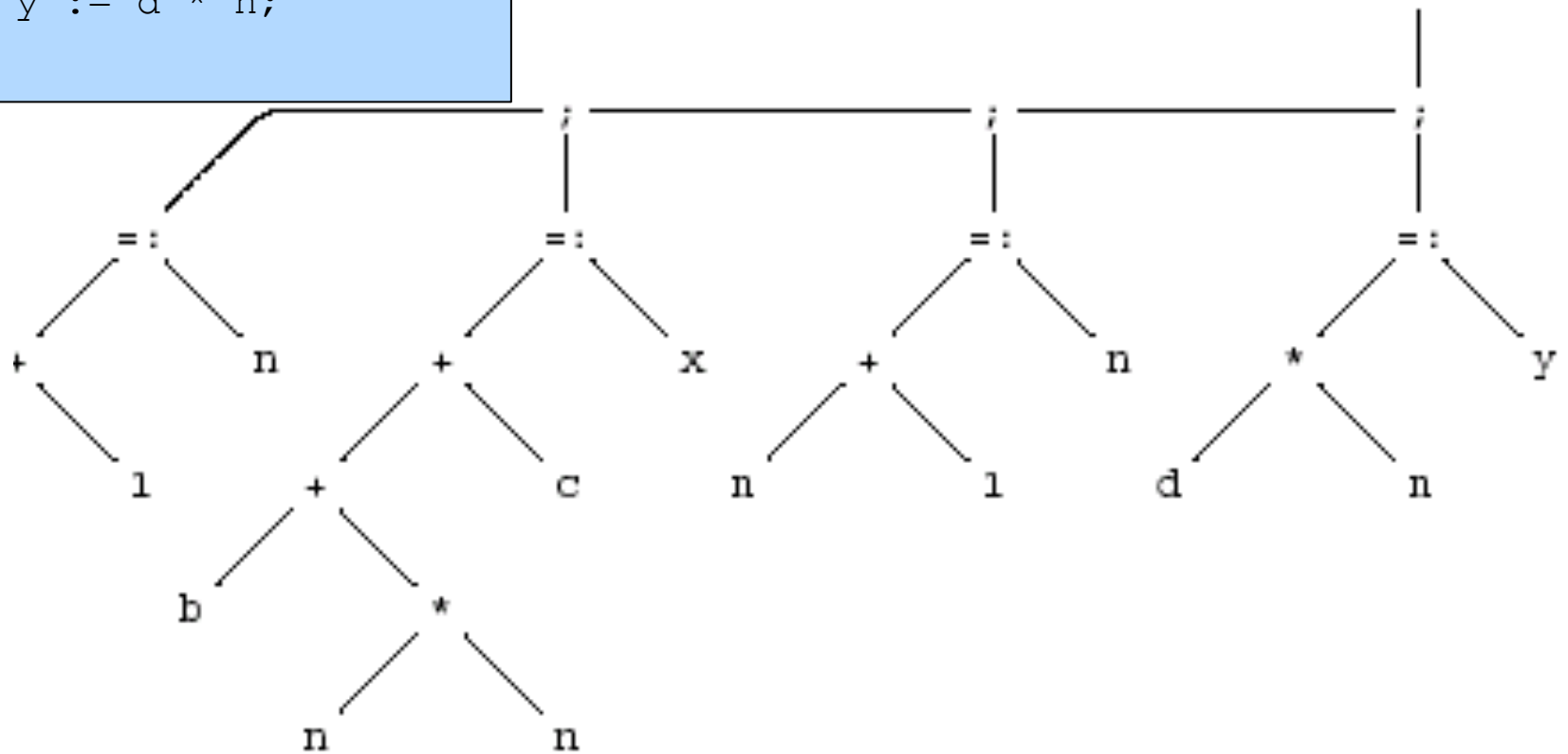
control flow graph

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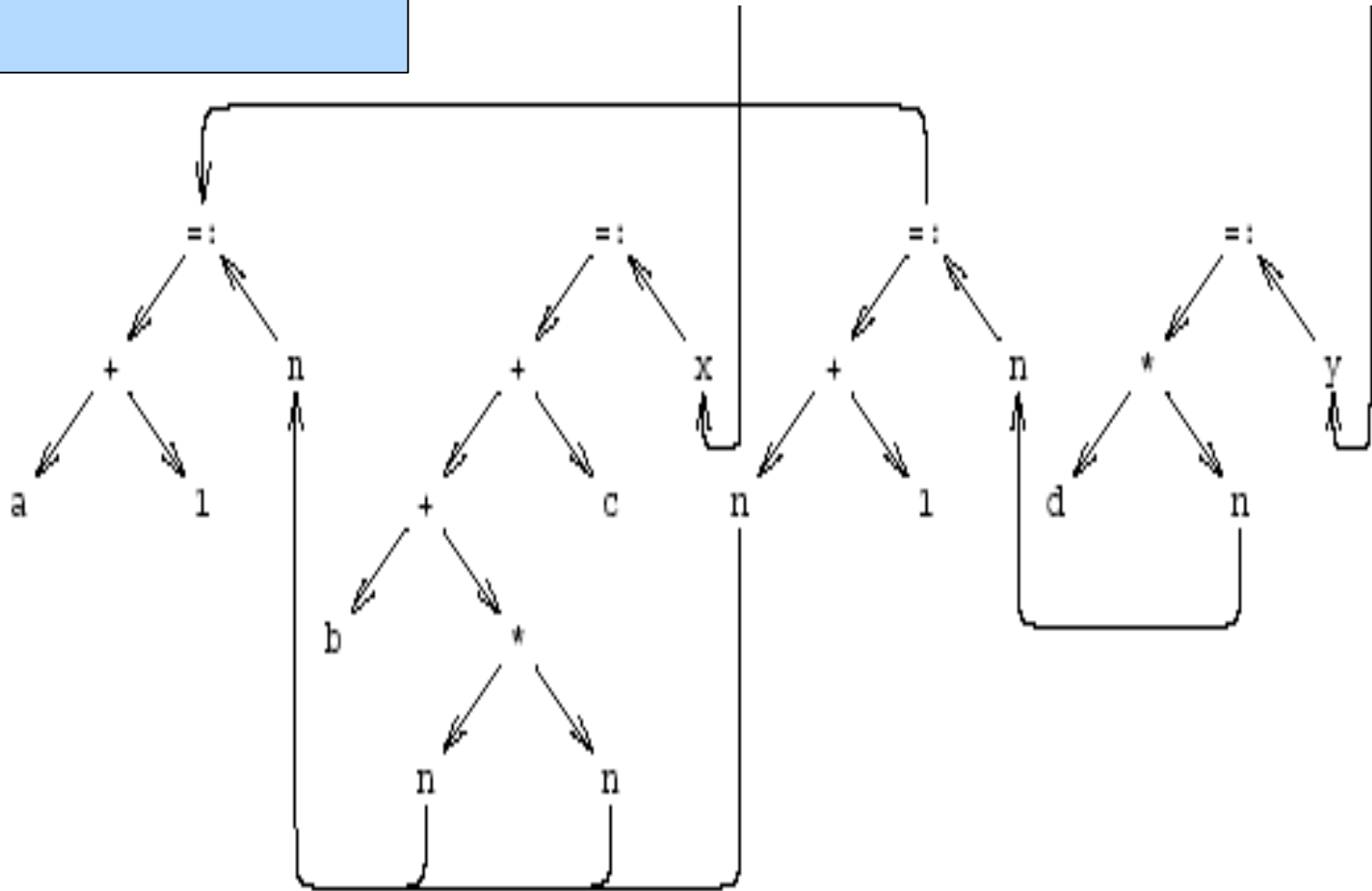
AST for a Basic Block

```
{  
  int n;  
  n := a + 1;  
  x := b + n * n + c;  
  n := n + 1;  
  y := d * n;  
}
```



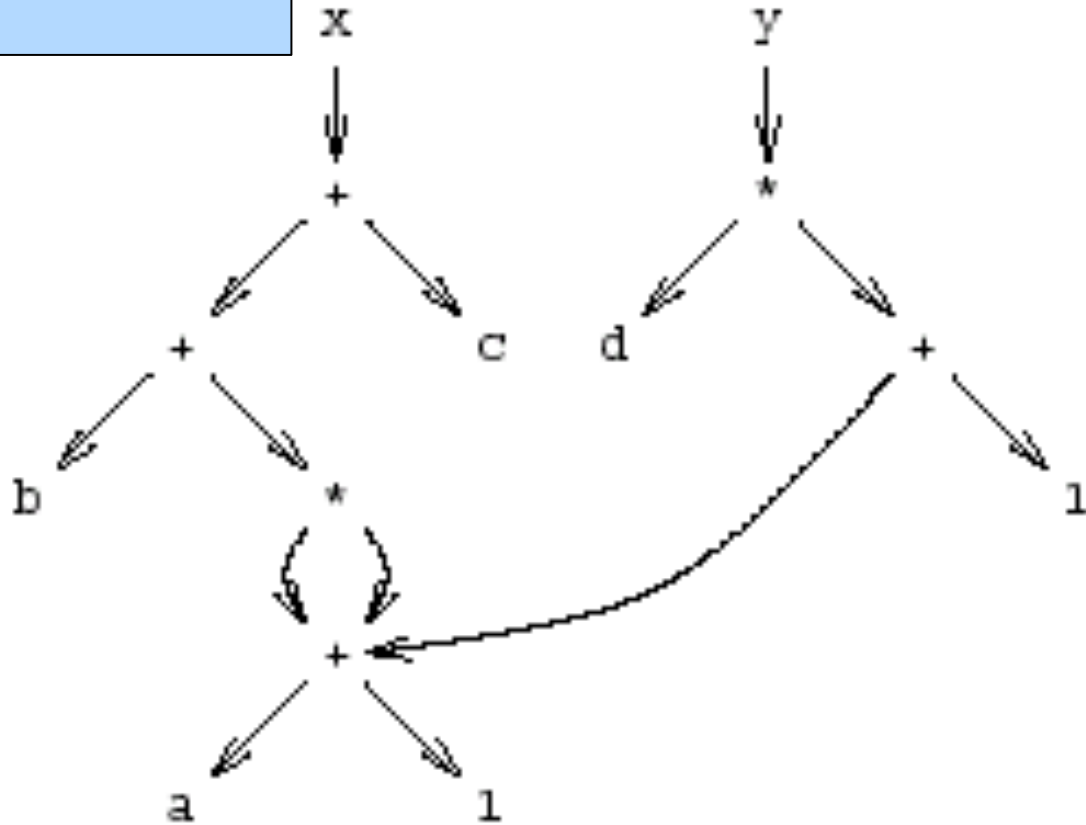
Dependency graph

```
{  
  int n;  
  n := a + 1;  
  x := b + n * n + c;  
  n := n + 1;  
  y := d * n;  
}
```

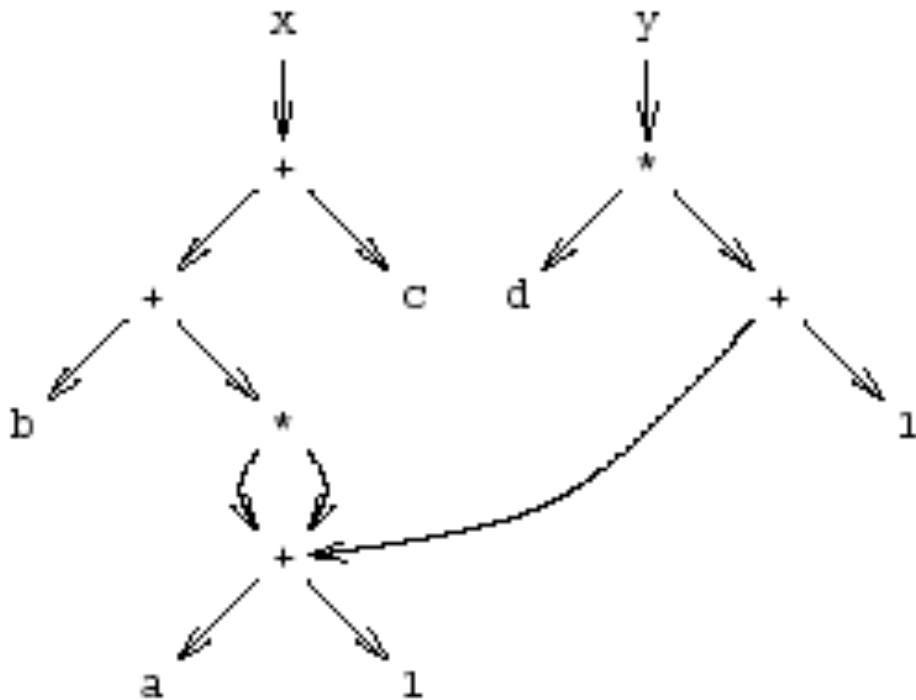


Simplified Data Dependency Graph

```
{  
  int n;  
  n := a + 1;  
  x := b + n * n + c;  
  n := n + 1;  
  y := d * n;  
}
```



Pseudo Register Target Code



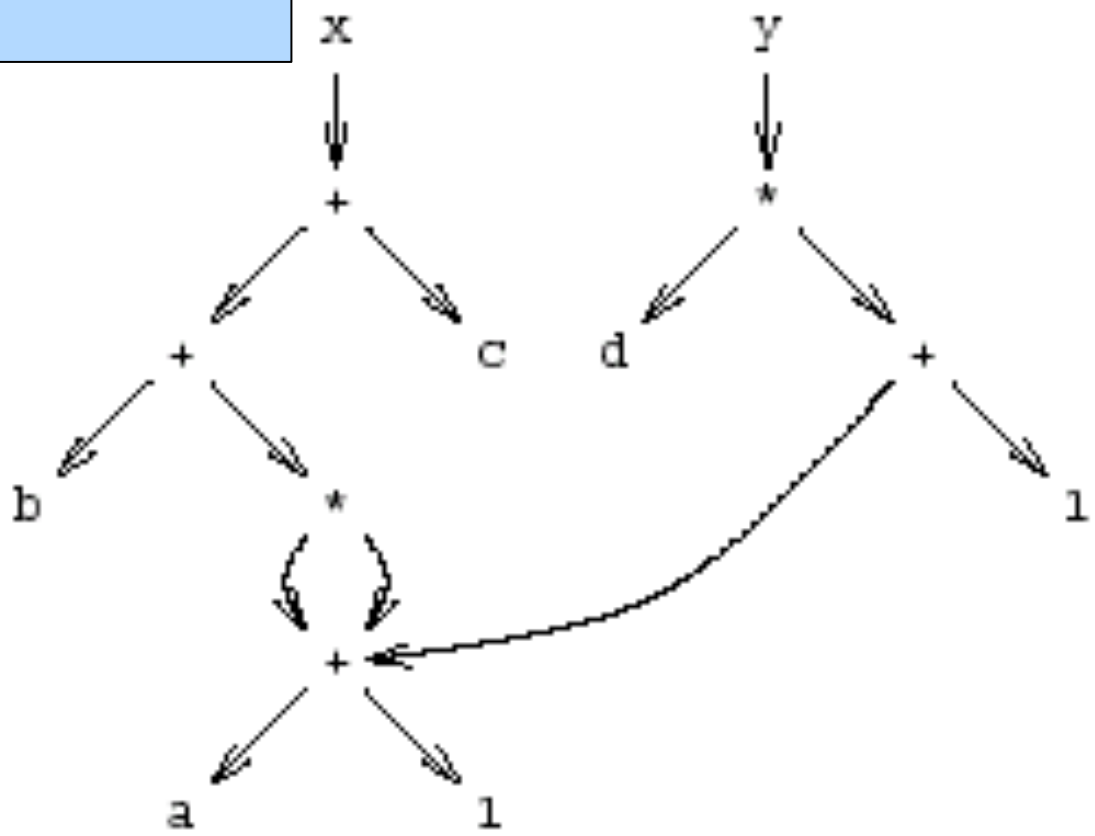
```
Load_Mem    a, R1
Add_Const   1, R1
Load_Reg    R1, X1

Load_Reg    X1, R1
Mult_Reg    X1, R1
Add_Mem     b, R1
Add_Mem     c, R1
Store_Reg   R1, x

Load_Reg    X1, R1
Add_Const   1, R1
Mult_Mem    d, R1
Store_Reg   R1, y
```

```
{
  int n;
  n := a + 1;
  x := b + n * n + c;
  n := n + 1;
  y := d * n;
}
```

Question: Why “y”?



Question: Why “y”?

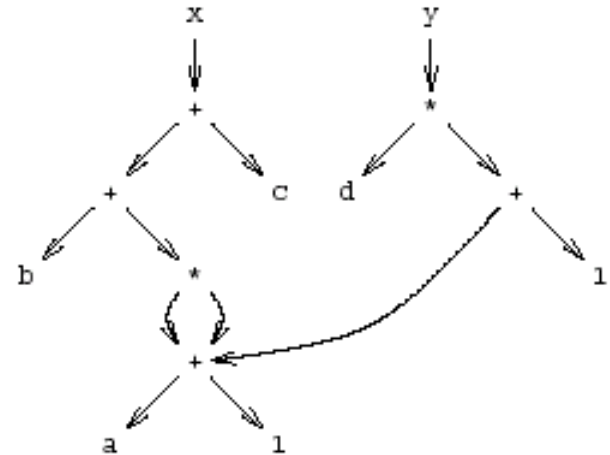
...

False

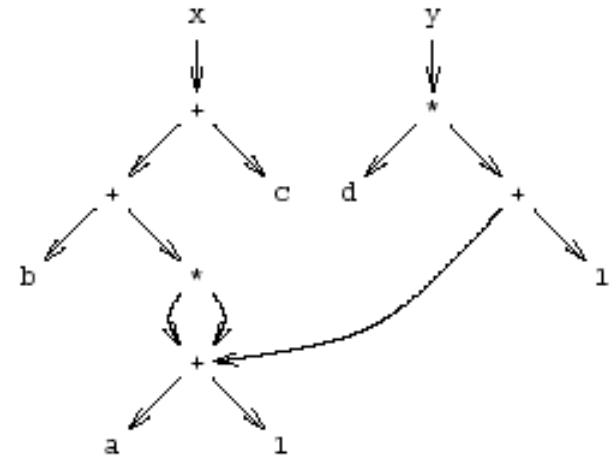
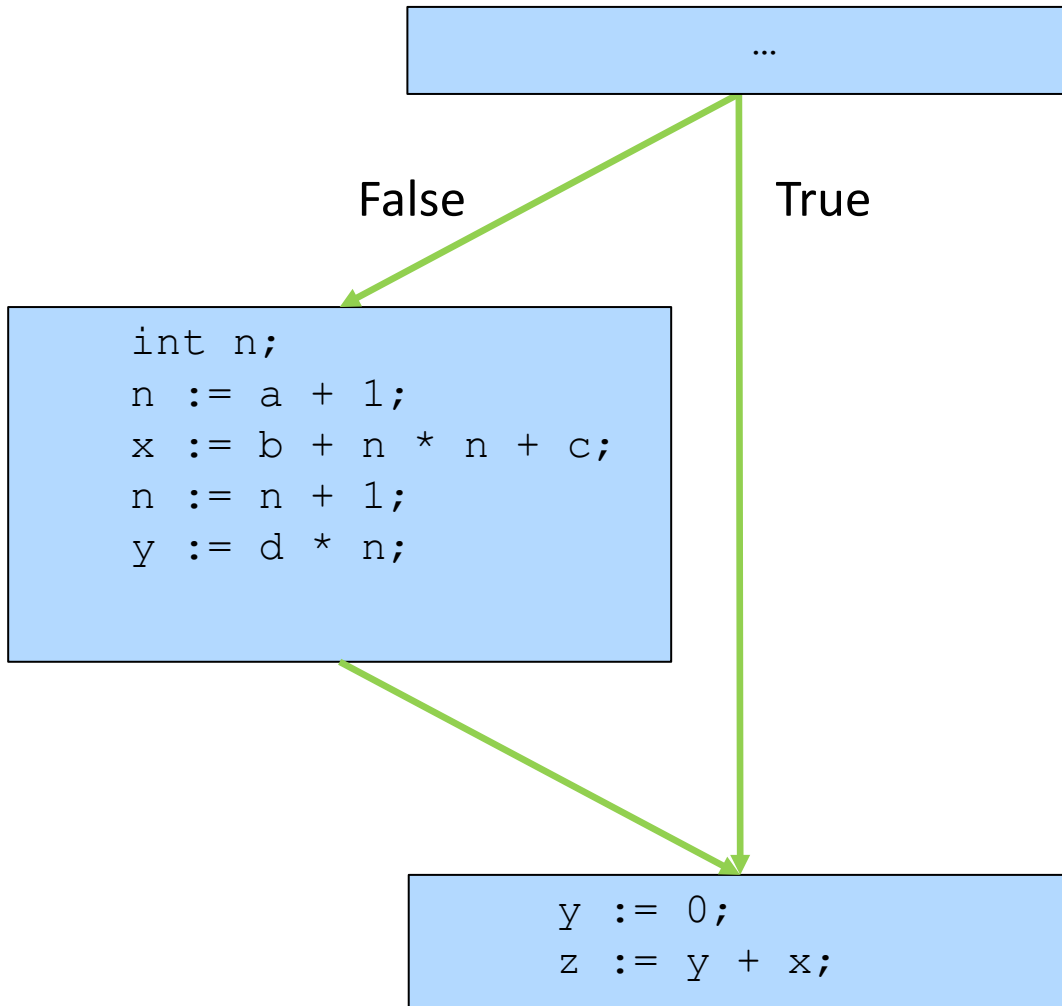
True

```
int n;  
n := a + 1;  
x := b + n * n + c;  
n := n + 1;  
y := d * n;
```

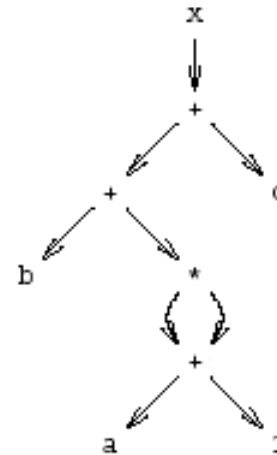
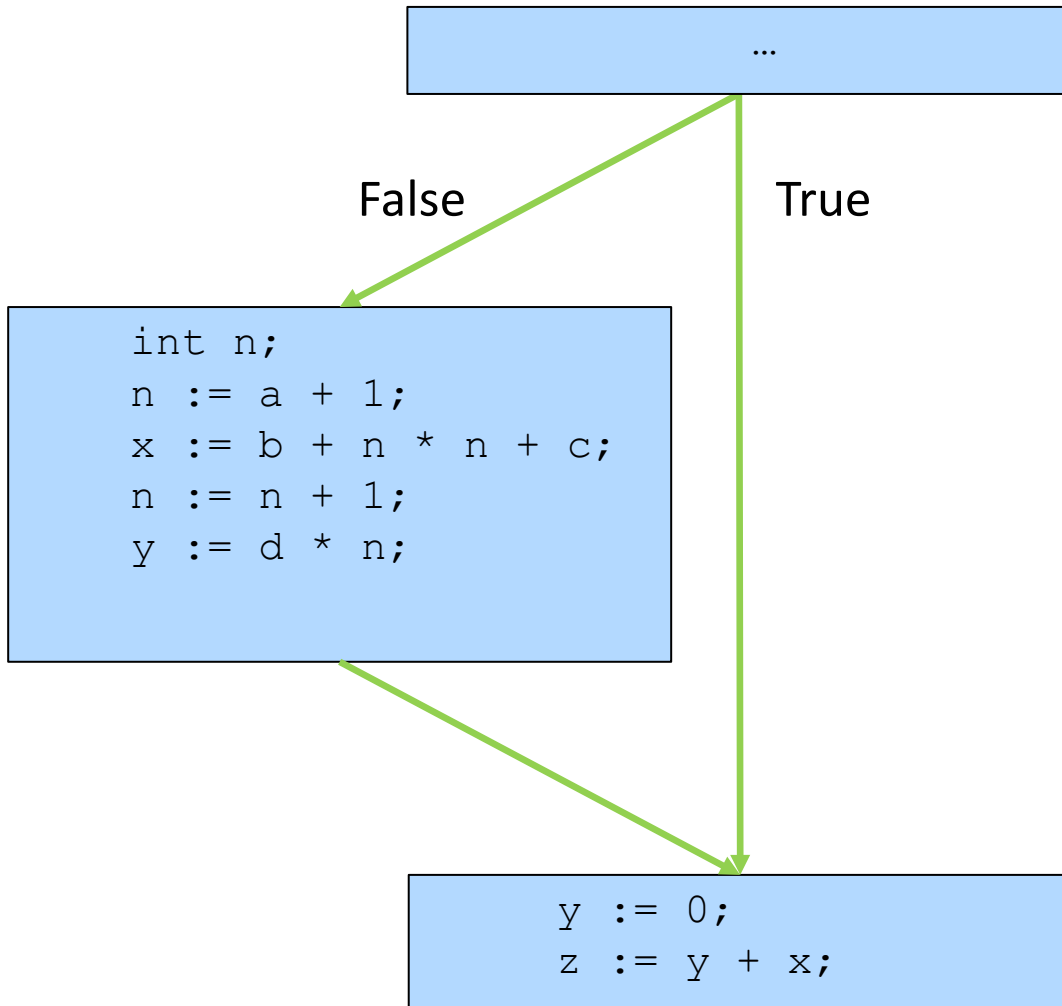
```
z := y + x;  
y := 0;
```



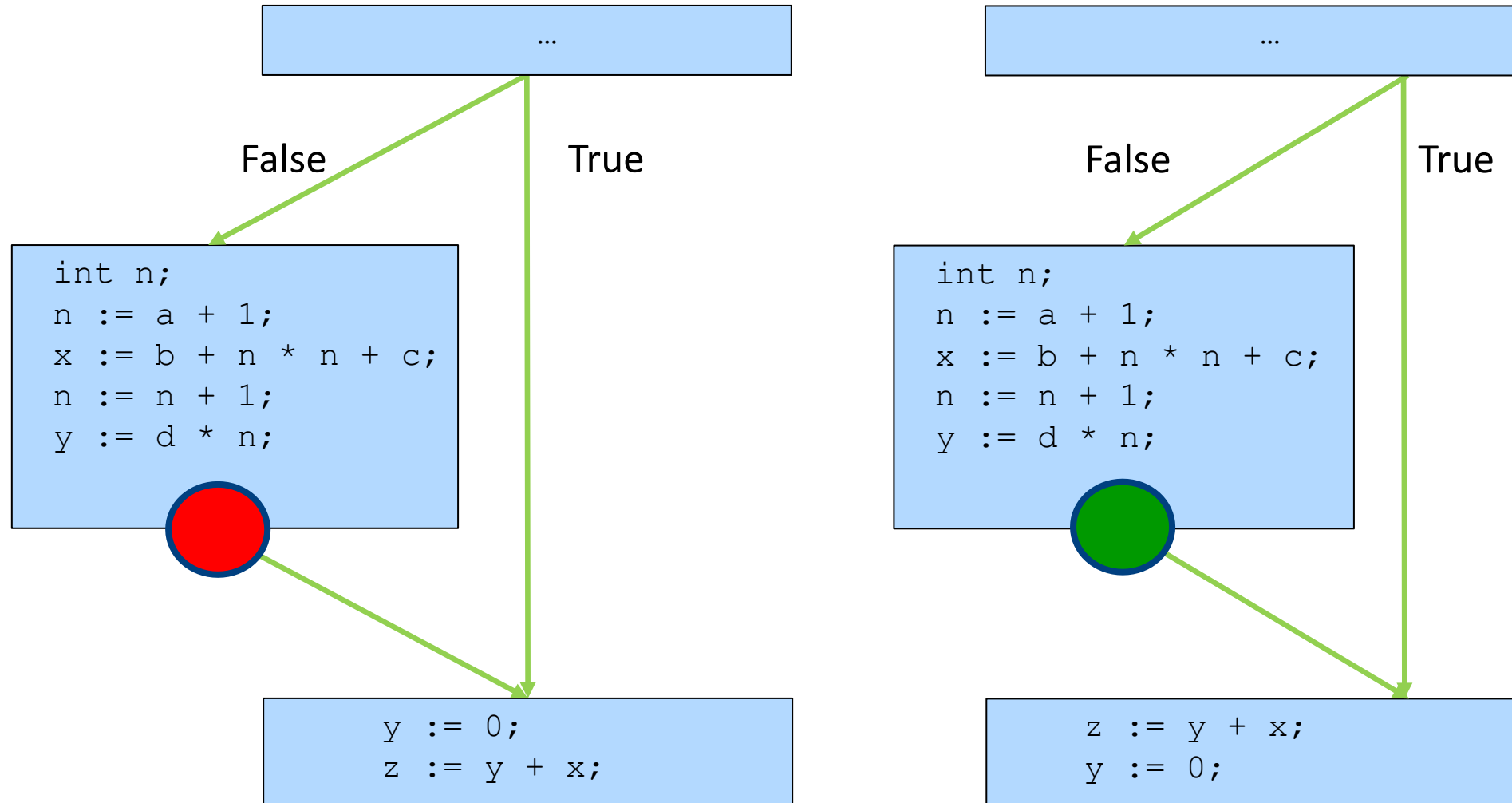
Question: Why “y”?



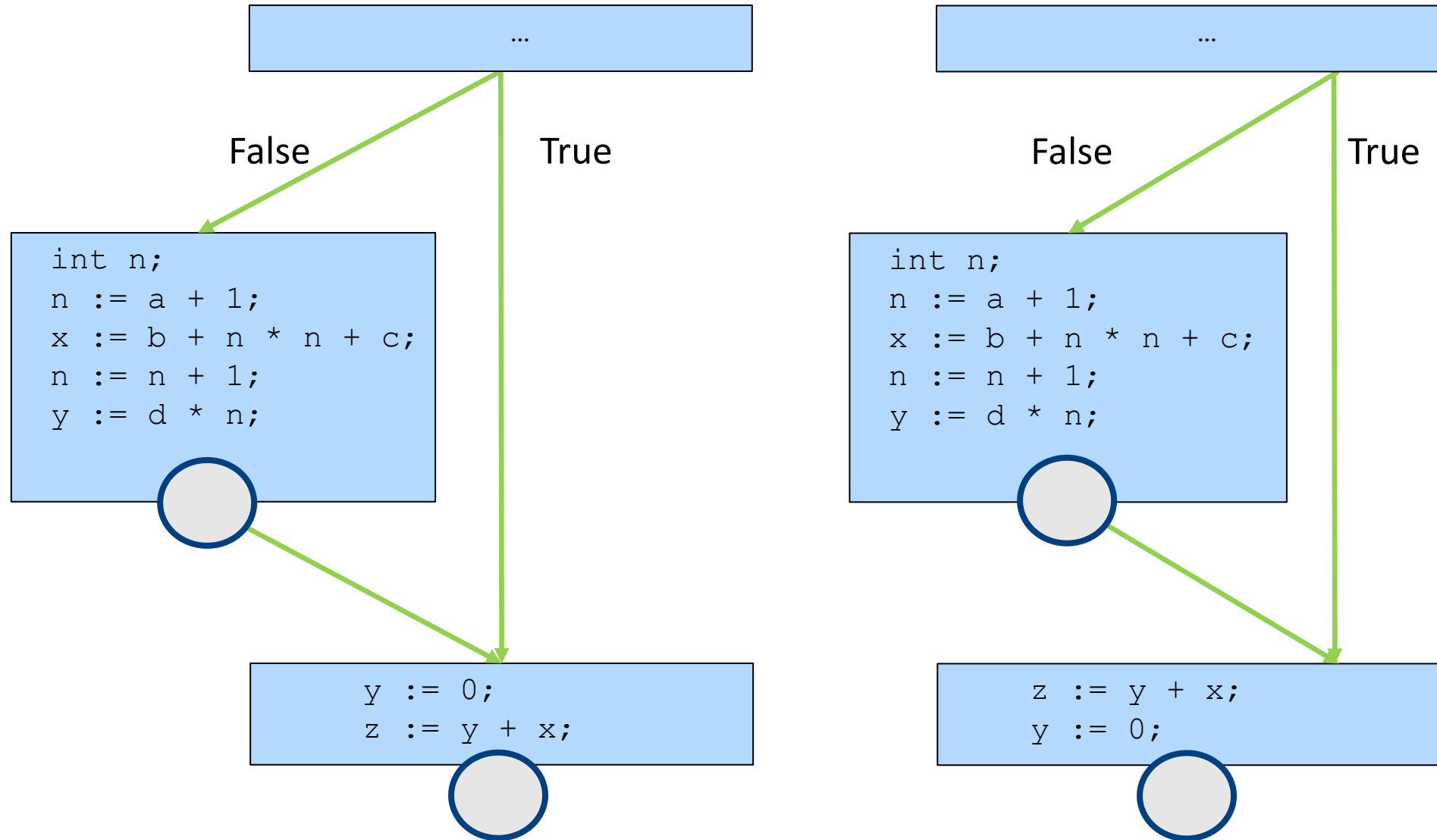
Question: Why “y”?



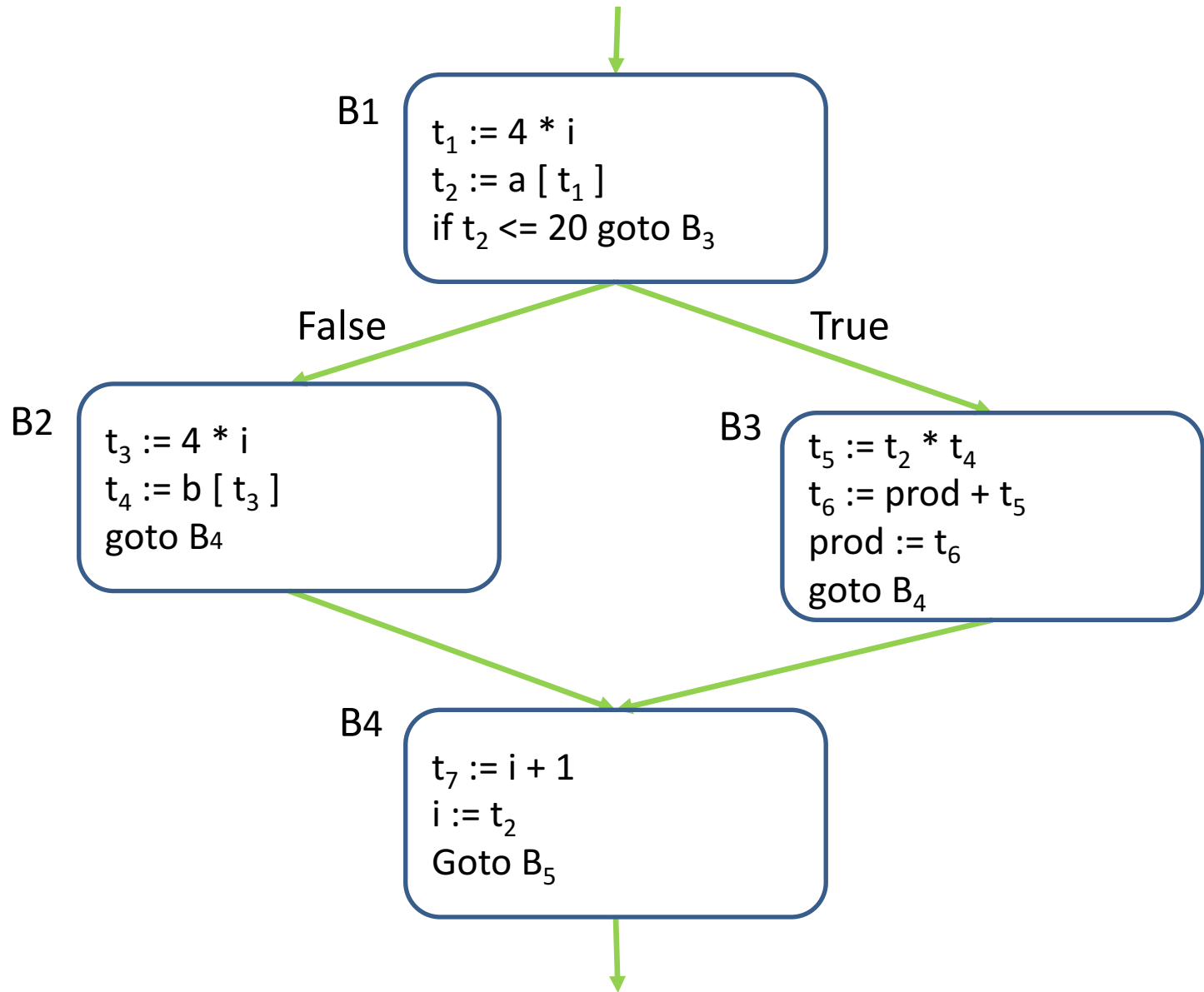
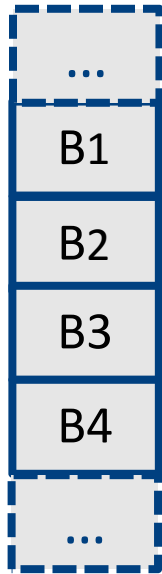
y, dead or alive?



x, dead or alive?



Another Example



Creating Basic Blocks

- **Input:** A sequence of three-address statements
- **Output:** A list of basic blocks with each three-address statement in exactly one block
- **Method**
 - Determine the set of **leaders** (first statement of a block)
 - The first statement is a leader
 - Any statement that is the target of a jump is a leader
 - Any statement that immediately follows a jump is a leader
 - For each leader, its basic block consists of the leader and all statements up to but not including the next leader or the end of the program

example

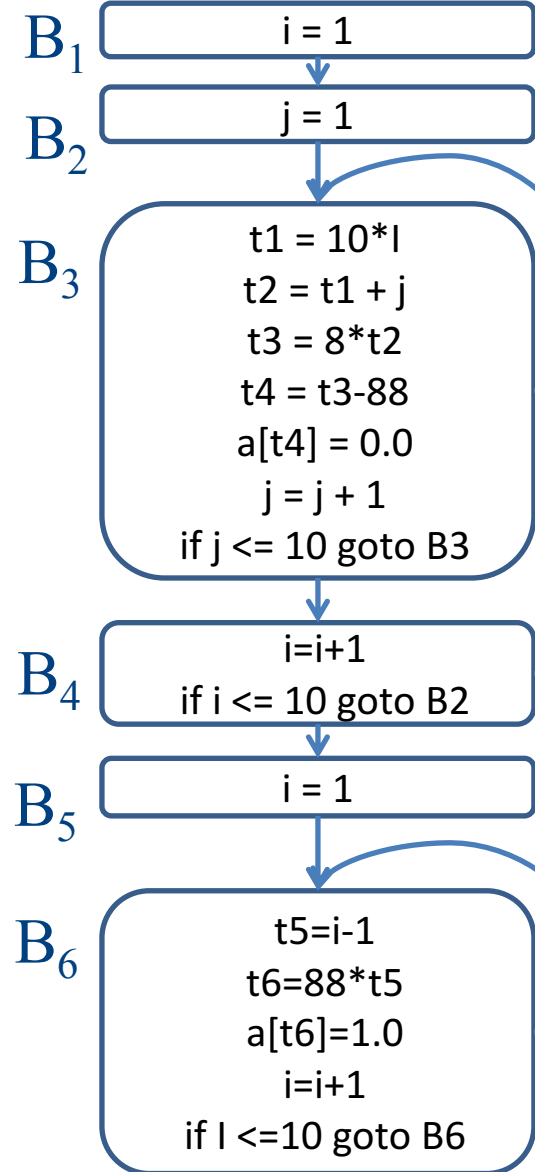
source

```
for i from 1 to 10
do
  for j from 1 to 10
  do
    a[i, j] = 0.0;
  for i from 1 to 10
  do
    a[i, i] = 1.0;
```

IR

```
1) i = 1
2) j = 1
3) t1 = 10 * i
4) t2 = t1 + j
5) t3 = 8 * t2
6) t4 = t3 - 88
7) a[t4] = 0.0
8) j = j + 1
9) if j <= 10 goto (3)
10) i = i + 1
11) if i <= 10 goto (2)
12) i = 1
13) t5 = i - 1
14) t6 = 88 * t5
15) a[t6] = 1.0
16) i = i + 1
17) if i <= 10 goto (13)
```

CFG



Example: Code Block

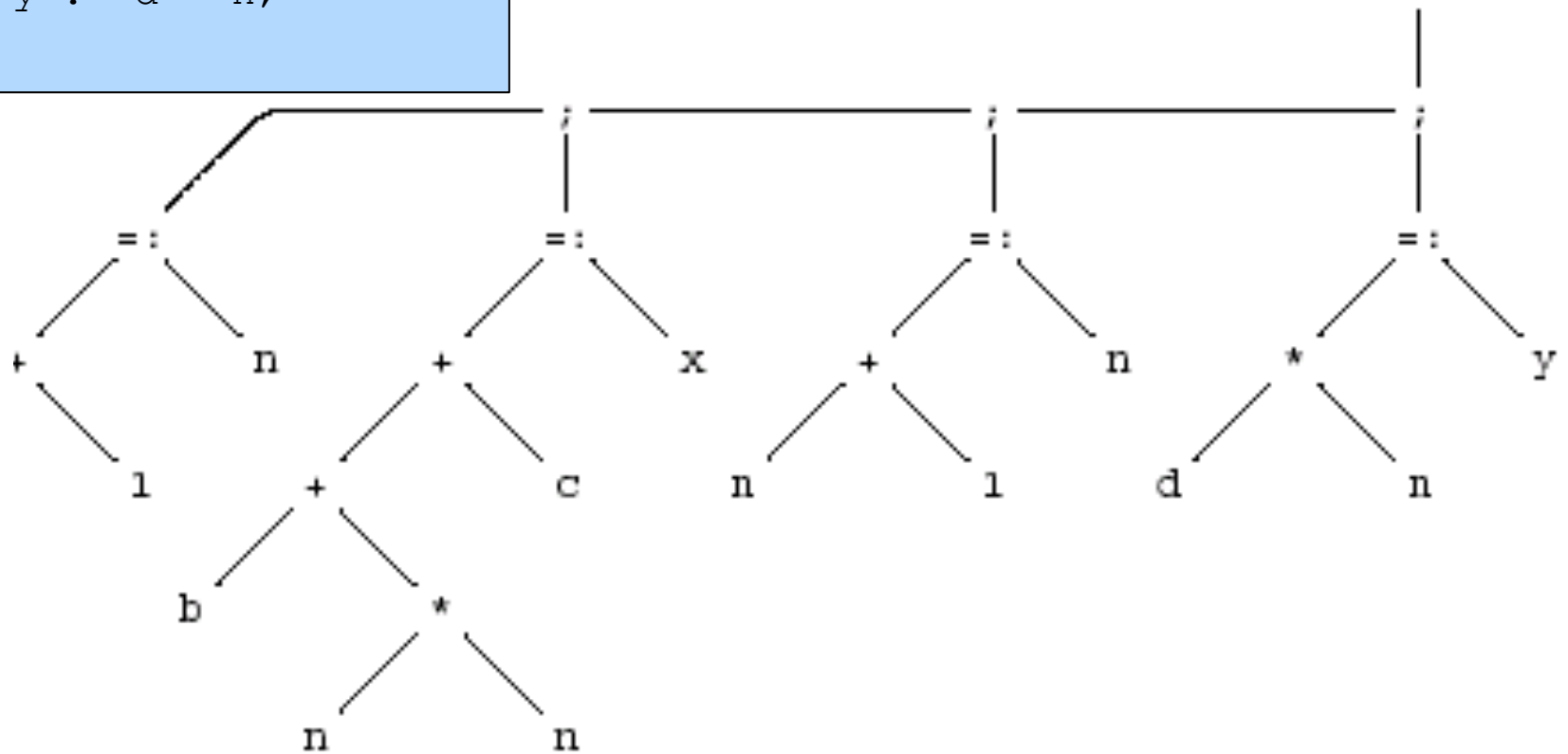
```
{  
    int n;  
    n := a + 1;  
    x := b + n * n + c;  
    n := n + 1;  
    y := d * n;  
}
```

Example: Basic Block

```
n := a + 1;  
x := b + n * n + c;  
n := n + 1;  
y := d * n;
```

AST of the Example

```
{  
  int n;  
  n := a + 1;  
  x := b + n * n + c;  
  n := n + 1;  
  y := d * n;  
}
```



Optimized Code (gcc)

```
{  
  int n;  
  n := a + 1;  
  x := b + n * n + c;  
  n := n + 1;  
  y := d * n;  
}
```

```
Load_Mem      a, R1  
Add_Const    1, R1  
Load_Reg     R1, R2  
  
Mult_Reg     R1, R2  
Add_Mem     b, R2  
Add_Mem     c, R2  
Store_Reg   R2, x  
  
Add_Const    1, R1  
Mult_Mem    d, R1  
Store_Reg   R1, y
```

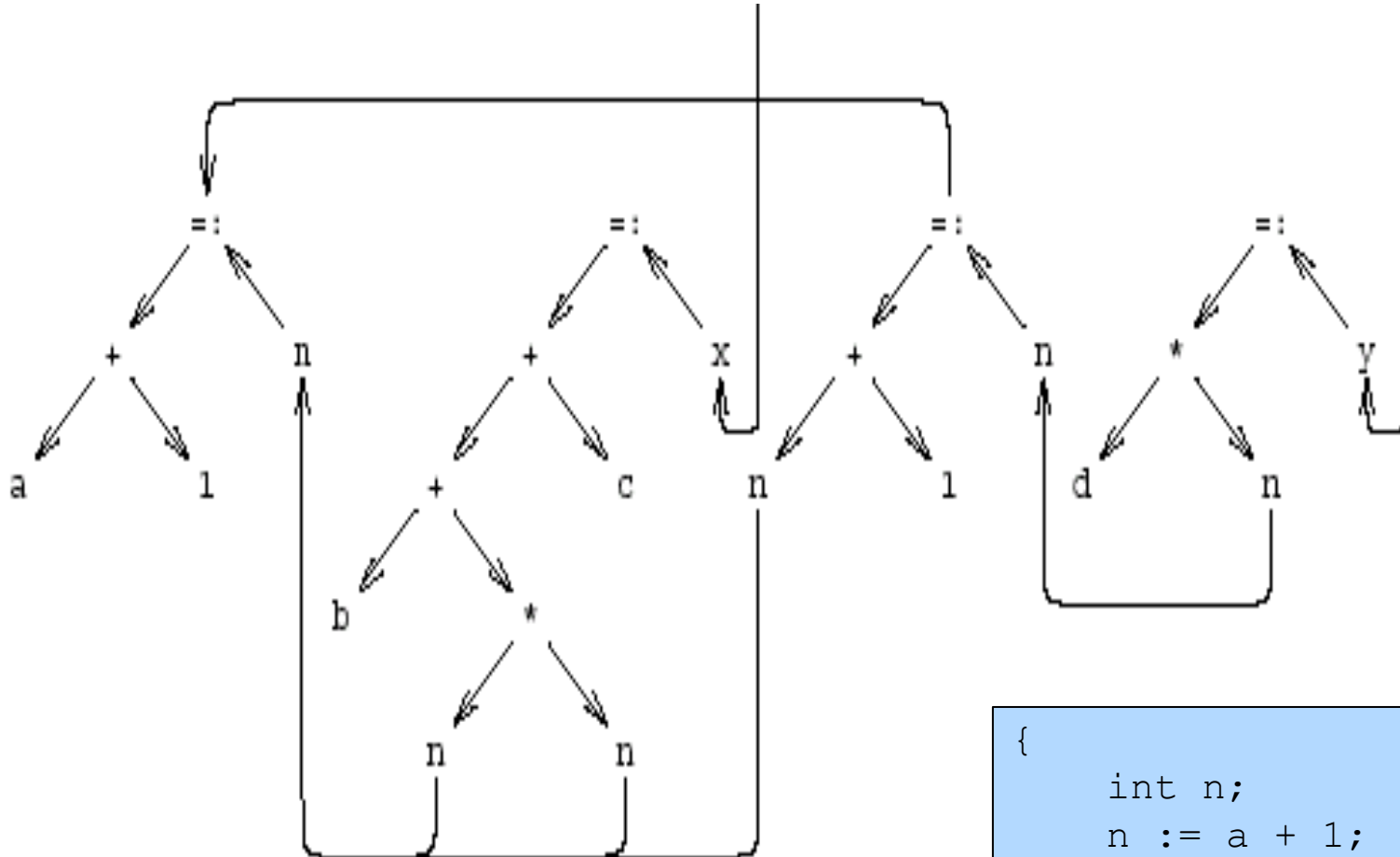

Register Allocation for B.B.

- Dependency graphs for basic blocks
- Transformations on dependency graphs
- From dependency graphs into code
 - Instruction selection
 - linearizations of dependency graphs
 - Register allocation
 - At the basic block level

Dependency graphs

- TAC imposes an order of execution
 - But the compiler can reorder assignments as long as the program results are not changed
- Define a partial order on assignments
 - $a < b \Leftrightarrow a$ must be executed before b
 - Represented as a directed graph
 - Nodes are assignments
 - Edges represent dependency
 - Acyclic for basic blocks

Running Example



```
{  
  int n;  
  n := a + 1;  
  x := b + n * n + c;  
  n := n + 1;  
  y := d * n;  
}
```

Sources of dependency

- Data flow inside expressions
 - Operator depends on operands
 - Assignment depends on assigned expressions
- Data flow between statements
 - From assignments to their use
 - Pointers complicate dependencies

Sources of dependency

- Order of subexpression evaluation is immaterial
 - As long as inside dependencies are respected
- The order of uses of a variable X are immaterial as long as:
 - X is used between dependent assignments
 - Before next assignment to X

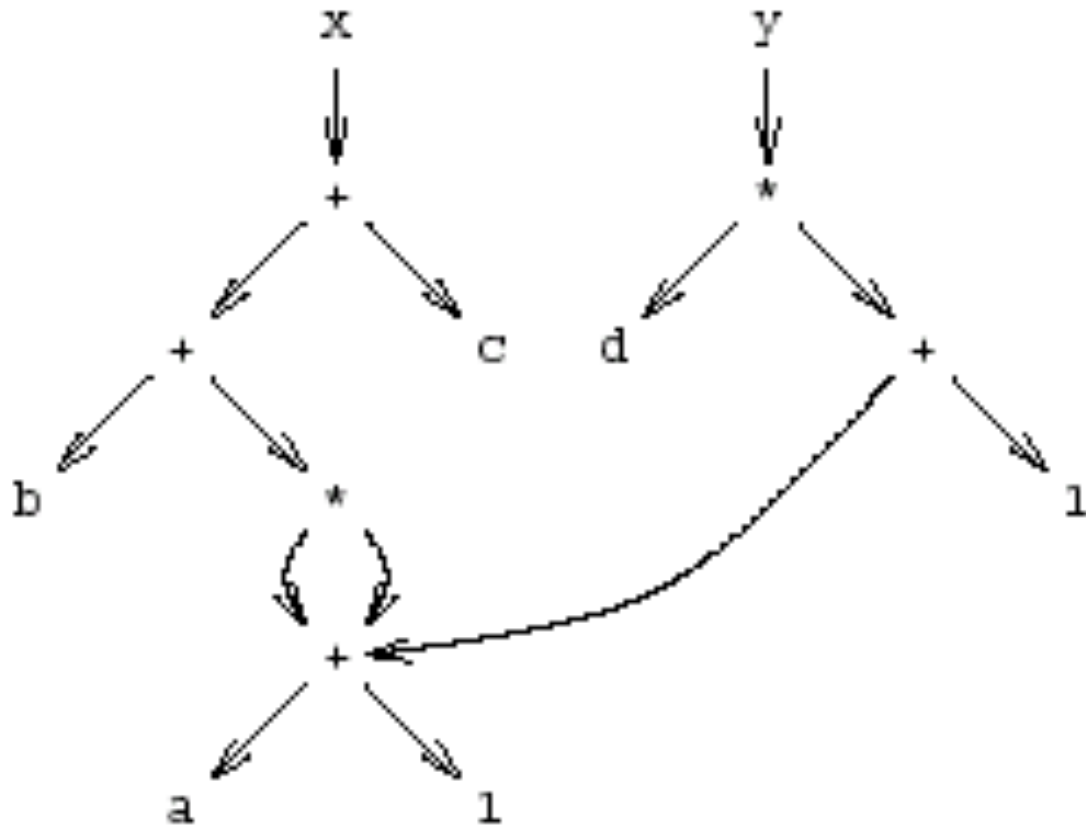
Creating Dependency Graph from AST

- Nodes AST becomes nodes of the graph
- Replaces arcs of AST by dependency arrows
 - Operator \rightarrow Operand
 - Create arcs from assignments to uses
 - Create arcs between assignments of the same variable
- Select output variables (roots)
- Remove ; nodes and their arrows

Dependency Graph Simplifications

- Short-circuit assignments
 - Connect variables to assigned expressions
 - Connect expression to uses
- Eliminate nodes not reachable from roots

Cleaned-Up Data Dependency Graph



Common Subexpressions

- Repeated subexpressions

- Examples

$x = a * a + 2 * a * b + b * b;$

$y = a * a - 2 * a * b + b * b;$

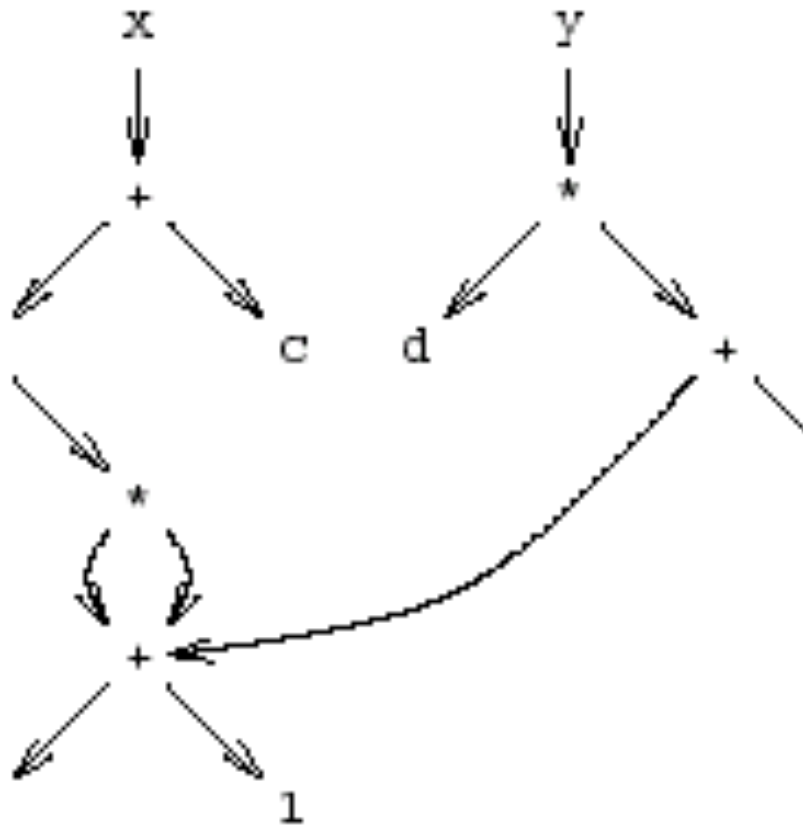
$n[i] := n[i] + m[i]$

- Can be eliminated by the compiler
 - In the case of basic blocks rewrite the DAG

From Dependency Graph into Code

- Linearize the dependency graph
 - Instructions must follow dependency
- Many solutions exist
- Select the one with small runtime cost
- Assume infinite number of registers
 - Symbolic registers
 - Assign registers later
 - May need additional spill
 - Possible Heuristics
 - Late evaluation
 - Ladders

Pseudo Register Target Code



```
Load_Mem    a, R1
Add_Const   1, R1
Load_Reg    R1, X1

Load_Reg    X1, R1
Mult_Reg    X1, R1
Add_Mem     b, R1
Add_Mem     c, R1
Store_Reg   R1, x

Load_Reg    X1, R1
Add_Const   1, R1
Mult_Mem    d, R1
Store_Reg   R1, y
```

Non optimized vs Optimized Code

```
Load_Mem    a, R1
Add_Const   1, R1
Load_Reg    R1, X1

Load_Reg    X1, R1
Mult_Reg    X1, R1
Add_Mem     b, R1
Add_Mem     c, R1
Store_Reg   R1, x

Load_Reg    X1, R1
Add_Const   1, R1
Mult_Mem    d, R1
Store_Reg   R1, y
```

```
Load_Mem    a, R1
Add_Const   1, R1
Load_Reg    R1, R2

Load_Reg    R2, R1
Mult_Reg    R2, R1
Add_Mem     b, R1
Add_Mem     c, R1
Store_Reg   R1, x

Load_Reg    R2, R1
Add_Const   1, R1
Mult_Mem    d, R1
Store_Reg   R1, y
```

```
Load_Mem    a, R1
Add_Const   1, R1
Load_Reg    R1, R2

Store_Reg   R1, R2
Load_Mem    b, R2
Load_Mem    c, R2
Store_Reg   R2, x

Add_Const   1, R1
Store_Mem   d, R1
Store_Reg   R1, y
```

```
{
  int n;
  n := a + 1;
  x := b + n * n + c;
  n := n + 1;
  y := d * n;
}
```

Register Allocation

- Maps symbolic registers into physical registers
 - Reuse registers as much as possible
 - Graph coloring (next)
 - Undirected graph
 - Nodes = Registers (Symbolic and real)
 - Edges = Interference
 - May require spilling

Register Allocation for Basic Blocks

- Heuristics for code generation of basic blocks
- Works well in practice
- Fits modern machine architecture
- Can be extended to perform other tasks
 - Common subexpression elimination
- But basic blocks are small
- Can be generalized to a procedure

Problem	Technique	Quality
Expression trees, using register-register or memory-register instructions	Weighted trees; Figure 4.30	
with sufficient registers:		Optimal
with insufficient registers:		Optimal
Dependency graphs, using register-register or memory-register instructions	Ladder sequences; Section 4.2.5.2	Heuristic
Expression trees, using any instructions with cost function	Bottom-up tree rewriting; Section 4.2.6	
with sufficient registers:		Optimal
with insufficient registers:		Heuristic
Register allocation when all interferences are known	Graph coloring; Section 4.2.7	Heuristic

The End