# Compilation Lecture 8a



#### Code generation for procedure calls Noam Rinetzky

1

#### A Short Reminder

#### **IR** Generation



3

# TAC generation

- At this stage in compilation, we have
  - an AST
  - annotated with scope information
  - and annotated with type information
- To generate TAC for the program, we do recursive tree traversal
  - Generate TAC for any subexpressions or substatements
  - Using the result, generate TAC for the overall expression

### cgen for binary operators

cgen(e<sub>1</sub> + e<sub>2</sub>) = {
 Choose a new temporary t
 Let t<sub>1</sub> = cgen(e<sub>1</sub>)
 Let t<sub>2</sub> = cgen(e<sub>2</sub>)
 Emit( t = t<sub>1</sub> + t<sub>2</sub> )
 Return t
}

#### cgen for statements

- We can extend the **cgen** function to operate over statements as well
- Unlike cgen for expressions, cgen for statements does not return the name of a temporary holding a value.

– (Why?)

#### cgen for if-then-else

 $cgen(if (e) s_1 else s_2)$ 

Let \_t = **cgen**(e) Let L<sub>true</sub> be a new label Let L<sub>false</sub> be a new label Let L<sub>after</sub> be a new label Emit( IfZ \_t Goto L<sub>false</sub>; )  $cgen(s_1)$ Emit(Goto L<sub>after</sub>;) Emit( L<sub>false</sub>: )  $cgen(s_2)$ Emit( Goto L<sub>after</sub>;) Emit(L<sub>after</sub>:)

# cgen for while loops

cgen(while (expr) stmt)

Let L<sub>before</sub> be a new label. Let L<sub>after</sub> be a new label. Emit( L<sub>before</sub>: ) Let t = cgen(expr) Emit( IfZ t Goto Lafter; ) cgen(stmt) Emit( Goto L<sub>before</sub>; ) Emit( L<sub>after</sub>: )

# Weighted register allocation

Temporaries

- Suppose we have expression  $e_1 op e_2$ 
  - $-e_1, e_2$  without side-effects
    - That is, no function calls, memory accesses, ++x
  - **cgen**( $e_1 op e_2$ ) = **cgen**( $e_2 op e_1$ )
  - Does order of translation matter?
- Sethi & Ullman's algorithm translates heavier sub-tree first
  - Optimal local (per-statement) allocation for sideeffect-free statements

#### Example

\_t0 = cgen( a+(b+(c\*d)) ) + and \* are commutative operators



# Code generation for procedure calls (+ a few words on the runtime system)



# Code generation for procedure calls

• Compile time generation of code for procedure invocations

• Activation Records (aka Stack Frames)

### Supporting Procedures

Stack: a new computing environment

– e.g., temporary memory for local variables

- Passing information into the new environment
  - Parameters
- Transfer of control to/from procedure
- Handling return values

# **Calling Conventions**

• In general, compiler can use any convention to handle procedures

- In practice, CPUs specify standards
  - Aka calling conventios
  - Allows for compiler interoperability
    - Libraries!

#### Abstract Register Machine



#### **Design Decisions**

- Scoping rules
  - Static scoping vs. dynamic scoping
- Caller/callee conventions
  - Parameters
  - Who saves register values?
- Allocating space for local variables

# Static (lexical) Scoping



a name refers to its (closest) enclosing scope known at

compile time

Declaration	Scopes
a=0	B0,B1,B3
b=0	B0
b=1	B1,B2
a=2	B2
b=3	B3

# **Dynamic Scoping**

- Each identifier is associated with a global stack of bindings
- When entering scope where identifier is declared
   push declaration on identifier stack
- When exiting scope where identifier is declared
   pop identifier stack
- Evaluating the identifier in any context binds to the current top of stack
- Determined **at runtime**

### Example

int x = 42;

```
int f() { return x; }
int g() { int x = 1; return f(); }
int main() { return g(); }
```

- What value is returned from main?
  - Static scoping?
  - Dynamic scoping?

## Why do we care?

- We need to generate code to access variables
- Static scoping
  - Identifier binding is known at compile time
  - "Address" of the variable is known at compile time
  - Assigning addresses to variables is part of code generation
  - No runtime errors of "access to undefined variable"
  - Can check types of variables

#### Variable addresses for static scoping: first attempt

int x = 42;

```
int f() { return x; }
int g() { int x = 1; return f(); }
int main() { return g(); }
```

identifier	address
x (global)	0x42
x (inside g)	0x73

#### Variable addresses for static scoping: first attempt

int a [11] ;

```
void quicksort(int m, int n) {
    int i;
    if (n > m) {
        i = partition(m, n);
        quicksort (m, i-1);
        quicksort (i+1, n);
    }
```

```
main() {
```

```
quicksort (1, 9);
```

what is the address of the variable "i" in the procedure quicksort?

# **Compile-Time Information on Variables**

- Name
- Type
- Scope
  - when is it recognized
- Duration
  - Until when does its value exist
- Size
  - How many bytes are required at runtime
- Address
  - Fixed
  - Relative
  - Dynamic

# Activation Record (Stack Frames)

- separate space for each procedure invocation
- managed at runtime
  - code for managing it generated by the compiler
- desired properties
  - efficient allocation and deallocation
    - procedures are called frequently
  - variable size
    - different procedures may require different memory sizes

### Semi-Abstract Register Machine



# A Logical Stack Frame (Simplified)



Stack frame for function f(a1,...,aN)

#### Runtime Stack

- Stack of activation records
- Call = push new activation record
- Return = pop activation record
- Only one "active" activation record top of stack
- How do we handle recursion?

# Activation Record (frame)



#### **Runtime Stack**

- SP stack pointer
   top of current frame
- FP frame pointer
   base of current frame
  - Sometimes called BP (base pointer)
  - Usually points to a "fixed" offset from the "start" of the frame



#### Code Blocks

 Programming language provide code blocks void foo() adminstrative x1 y1 int x = 8; y=9;//1 x2  $\{ int x = y * y ; //2 \}$ x3 { int x = y \* 7 ; //3 } ... x = y + 1;

#### L-Values of Local Variables

- The offset in the stack is known at compile time
- L-val(x) = FP+offset(x)
- x = 5 ⇒ Load\_Constant 5, R3
   Store R3, offset(x)(FP)

#### Pentium Runtime Stack

Register	Usage
ESP	Stack pointer
EBP	Base pointer

Pentium stack registers

Instruction	Usage
push, pusha,	push on runtime stack
pop,popa,	Base pointer
call	transfer control to called routine
return	transfer control back to caller

Pentium stack and call/ret instructions

### **Accessing Stack Variables**

- Use offset from FP (%ebp)

   Remember: stack grows
   downwards
- Above FP = parameters
- Below FP = locals
- Examples
  - %ebp + 4 = return address
  - %ebp + 8 = first parameter
  - -%ebp-4 = first local



#### Factorial - fact(int n)



#### Call Sequences

• The processor does not save the content of registers on procedure calls

- So who will?
  - Caller saves and restores registers
  - Callee saves and restores registers
  - But can also have both save/restore some registers

#### **Call Sequences**



36
## "To Callee-save or to Caller-save?"

- Callee-saved registers need only be saved when callee modifies their value
- Some heuristics and conventions are followed

## Caller-Save and Callee-Save Registers

- Callee-Save Registers
  - Saved by the callee before modification
  - Values are automatically preserved across calls
- Caller-Save Registers
  - Saved (if needed) by the caller before calls
  - Values are not automatically preserved across calls
- Usually the architecture defines caller-save and calleesave registers
- Separate compilation
- Interoperability between code produced by different compilers/languages
- But compiler writers decide when to use caller/callee registers

## **Callee-Save Registers**

- Saved by the callee before modification
- Usually at procedure prolog
- Restored at procedure epilog
- Hardware support may be available
- Values are automatically preserved across calls

```
int foo(int a) { .global _foo
    int b=a+1;
    f1();
    g1(b);
    return(b+2);
} .global _foo
Add_Constant -K, SP //allocate space for foo
    Store_Local R5, -14(FP) // save R5
    Load_Reg R5, R0; Add_Constant R5, 1
    JSR f1; JSR g1;
    Add_Constant R5, 2; Load_Reg R5, R0
    Load_Local -14(FP), R5 // restore R5
    Add_Constant K, SP; RTS // deallocate
```

## **Caller-Save Registers**

- Saved by the caller before calls when needed
- Values are not automatically preserved across calls

	.global _bar
<pre>void bar (int y) {     int x=y+1;     f2(x);     g2(2);     g2(8); }</pre>	Add_Constant -K, SP //allocate space for bar
	Add_Constant R0, 1
	JSR f2
	Load_Constant 2, R0 ; JSR g2;
	Load_Constant 8, R0 ; JSR g2
	Add_Constant K, SP // deallocate space for bar
	RTS

### **Parameter Passing**

- 1960s
  - In memory
    - No recursion is allowed
- 1970s
  - In stack
- 1980s
  - In registers
  - First k parameters are passed in registers (k=4 or k=6)
  - Where is time saved?
- Most procedures are leaf procedures
- Interprocedural register allocation
- Many of the registers may be dead before another invocation
- Register windows are allocated in some architectures per call (e.g., sun Sparc)

# Activation Records & Language Design

## **Compile-Time Information on Variables**

- Name, type, size
- Address kind
  - Fixed (global)
  - Relative (local)
  - Dynamic (heap)
- Scope
  - when is it recognized
- Duration
  - Until when does its value exist

## Scoping

int x = 42;

```
int f() { return x; }
int g() { int x = 1; return f(); }
int main() { return g(); }
```

- What value is returned from main?
- Static scoping?
- Dynamic scoping?

- For example Pascal
- Any routine can have sub-routines
- Any sub-routine can access anything that is defined in its containing scope or inside the sub-routine itself
  - "non-local" variables

#### **Example: Nested Procedures**

```
program p() {
  int x;
  procedure a() {
     int y;
   [ procedure b() { ... c() ... };
     procedure c() {
       int z;
      [procedure d() {
         y := x + z
       };
       ... b() ... d() ...
     ... a() ... c() ...
  a()
```

Possible call sequence:  $P \rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow c \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$ 

what are the addresses of variables "x," "y" and "z" in procedure d?

- can call a sibling, ancestor
- when "c" uses (non-local) variables from "a", which instance of "a" is it?
- how do you find the right activation record at runtime?

Possible call sequence:  $P \rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow c \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$ a а d

- goal: find the closest routine in the stack from a given nesting level
- if we reached the same routine in a sequence of calls
  - routine of level k uses variables of the same nesting level, it uses its own variables
  - if it uses variables of nesting level
     j < k then it must be the last</li>
     routine called at level j
- If a procedure is last at level j on the stack, then it must be ancestor of the current routine

Possible call sequence:  $P \rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow c \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$ 



- problem: a routine may need to access variables of another routine that contains it statically
- solution: **lexical pointer** (a.k.a. **access link**) in the activation record
- lexical pointer points to the last activation record of the nesting level above it
  - in our example, lexical pointer of d points to activation records of c
- lexical pointers created at runtime
- number of links to be traversed is known at compile time

## **Lexical Pointers**



## **Lexical Pointers**



#### **Activation Records: Remarks**

## Stack Frames

- Allocate a separate space for every procedure incarnation
- Relative addresses
- Provide a simple mean to achieve modularity
- Supports separate code generation of procedures
- Naturally supports recursion
- Efficient memory allocation policy
  - Low overhead
  - Hardware support may be available
- LIFO policy
- Not a pure stack
  - Non local references
  - Updated using arithmetic

#### Non-Local goto in C syntax

void level\_0(void) { void level\_1(void) { void level\_2(void) { . . . goto L\_1; . . . } . . . L\_1:... . . . } . . . }

## Non-local gotos in C

- setjmp remembers the current location and the stack frame
- longjmp jumps to the current location (popping many activation records)

#### Non-Local Transfer of Control in C

```
#include <set]mp.n>
void find div 7(int n, jmp buf *jmpbuf ptr) {
    if (n % 7 == 0) longjmp(*jmpbuf ptr, n);
    find_div_7(n + 1, jmpbuf ptr);
int main(void) {
                           /* type defined in setjmp.h */
    jmp buf jmpbuf;
    int return value;
    if ((return value = setjmp(jmpbuf)) == 0) {
        /* setting up the label for longjmp() lands here */
        find div 7(1, &jmpbuf);
    }
    else {
        /* returning from a call of longjmp() lands here */
        printf("Answer = %d\n", return value);
    return 0;
```

## Variable Length Frame Size

- C allows allocating objects of unbounded size in the stack void p() { int i; char \*p; scanf("%d", &i); p = (char \*) alloca(i\*sizeof(int)); }
- Some versions of Pascal allows conformant array value parameters

#### Limitations

- The compiler may be forced to store a value on a stack instead of registers
- The stack may not suffice to handle some language features

## Frame-Resident Variables

- A variable x cannot be stored in register when:
  - x is passed by reference
  - Address of x is taken (&x)
  - is addressed via pointer arithmetic on the stack-frame (C varags)
  - x is accessed from a nested procedure
  - The value is too big to fit into a single register
  - The variable is an array
  - The register of x is needed for other purposes
  - Too many local variables
- An escape variable:
  - Passed by reference
  - Address is taken
  - Addressed via pointer arithmetic on the stack-frame
  - Accessed from a nested procedure

#### The Frames in Different Architectures

g(x, y, z) where x escapes

	Pentium	MIPS	Sparc
х	InFrame(8)	InFrame(0)	InFrame(68)
У	InFrame(12)	InReg(X <sub>157</sub> )	InReg(X <sub>157</sub> )
Z	InFrame(16)	InReg(X <sub>158</sub> )	InReg(X <sub>158</sub> )
View Change	M[sp+0]←fp fp ←sp sp ←sp-K	sp $\leftarrow$ sp-K M[sp+K+0] $\leftarrow$ r <sub>2</sub> X <sub>157</sub> $\leftarrow$ r4 X <sub>158</sub> $\leftarrow$ r5	save %sp, -K, %sp M[fp+68] $\leftarrow i_0$ X <sub>157</sub> $\leftarrow i_1$ X <sub>158</sub> $\leftarrow i_2$

60

## Limitations of Stack Frames

- A local variable of P cannot be stored in the activation record of P if its duration exceeds the duration of P
- Example 1: Static variables in C
   (own variables in Algol)
   void p(int x)
   {
   static int y = 6;
   y += x;
   }

```
    Example 2: Features of the C language
int * f()
```

```
{ int x ;
    return &x ;
}
```

• Example 3: Dynamic allocation

```
int * f() { return (int *)
malloc(sizeof(int)); }
```

## **Compiler Implementation**

- Hide machine dependent parts
- Hide language dependent part
- Use special modules



## Hidden in the frame ADT

- Word size
- The location of the formals
- Frame resident variables
- Machine instructions to implement "shiftof-view" (prologue/epilogue)
- The number of locals "allocated" so far
- The label in which the machine code starts

#### **Activation Records: Summary**

- compile time memory management for procedure data
- works well for data with well-scoped lifetime
  - deallocation when procedure returns

## Compilation Lecture 8b



Optimizations Noam Rinetzky



#### **IR** Optimization



#### **Optimization points**





## **IR** Optimization

• Making code better

## **IR** Optimization

• Making code "better"

## "Optimized" evaluation \_t0 = cgen( a+b[5\*c] )

Phase 2: - use weights to decide on order of translation


#### But what about...

- a := 1 + 2; y := a + b; x := a + b + 8; z := b + a;
- a := a + 1; w:= a + b;

## **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?)









#### Semantics-preserving optimizations

- An optimization is semantics-preserving if it does not alter the semantics of the original program
- Examples:
  - Eliminating unnecessary temporary variables
  - Computing values that are known statically at compile-time instead of runtime
  - Evaluating constant expressions outside of a loop instead of inside
- Non-examples:
  - Replacing bubble sort with quicksort (why?)
  - The optimizations we will consider in this class are all semantics-preserving

# A formalism for IR optimization

- Every phase of the compiler uses some new abstraction:
  - Scanning uses regular expressions
  - Parsing uses CFGs
  - Semantic analysis uses proof systems and symbol tables
  - IR generation uses ASTs
- In optimization, we need a formalism that captures the structure of a program in a way amenable to optimization

## 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;
```

## 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;
```





## Basic blocks

- A basic block is a sequence of IR instructions where
  - There is exactly one spot where control enters the sequence, which must be at the start of the sequence
  - There is exactly one spot where control leaves the sequence, which must be at the end of the sequence
- Informally, a sequence of instructions that always execute as a group

## **Control-Flow Graphs**

- A control-flow graph (CFG) is a graph of the basic blocks in a function
- The term CFG is overloaded from here on out, we'll mean "control-flow graph" and not "context free grammar"
- Each edge from one basic block to another indicates that control can flow from the end of the first block to the start of the second block
- There is a dedicated node for the start and end of a function

## Types of optimizations

- An optimization is local if it works on just a single basic block
- An optimization is global if it works on an entire control-flow graph
- An optimization is interprocedural if it works across the control-flow graphs of multiple functions
  - We won't talk about this in this course

#### Basic blocks exercise

<pre>int main() {</pre>	START:
<pre>int x;</pre>	t0 = 137;
<pre>int y;</pre>	$\overline{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{t}0;$
<pre>int z;</pre>	IfZ x Goto L0;
	t1 = y;
y = 137;	z = t1;
if (x == 0)	Goto END:
z = y;	<b>LO</b> :
else	t2 = y;
$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y};$	$\overline{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{t}2;$
}	END:

#### Divide the code into basic blocks

#### Control-flow graph exercise

int main() {
 int x;
 int y;
 int z;
 y = 137;
 if (x == 0)
 z = y;
 else
 x = y;
}

START:

\_t0 = 137; y = \_t0; IfZ x Goto \_L0; t1 = y; z = \_t1; Goto END: \_t2 = y; x = t2;

END:

#### Draw the control-flow graph

## Control-flow graph exercise

















## **Global optimizations**



## **Global optimizations**



## **Global optimizations**



#### **Optimization path**














If we have two variable assignments
 v1 = a op b

... v2 = a op b

 and the values of v1, a, and b have not changed between the assignments, rewrite the code as v1 = a op b

... v2 = v1

- Eliminates useless recalculation
- Paves the way for later optimizations

If we have two variable assignments
 v1 = a op b [or: v1 = a]

... v2 = a 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 op b [or: v1 = a]

v2 = v1

- Eliminates useless recalculation
- Paves the way for later optimizations

```
Object x;
int a;
int b;
int c;
x = new Object;
a = 4;
```

c = a + b;

x.fn(a + b);

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*(tmp1) = tmp2;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = 4;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = a + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = a + b;
tmp6 = *(x);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push x;
Call tmp7;
```

```
Object x;
int a;
int b;
int c;
x = new Object;
a = 4;
```

c = a + b;

x.fn(a + b);

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*(tmp1) = tmp2;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = 4;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = a + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = tmp4;
tmp6 = *(x);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push x;
Call tmp7;
```

```
Object x;
int a;
int b;
int c;
x = new Object
```

```
x = new Object;
a = 4;
c = a + b;
x.fn(a + b);
```

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*(tmp1) = tmp2;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = 4;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = a + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = tmp4;
tmp6 = *(x);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push x;
Call tmp7;
```

```
Object x;
int a;
int b;
int c;
x = new Object;
```

c = a + b;

x.fn(a + b);

a = 4;

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*(tmp1) = tmp2;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = a + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = tmp4;
tmp6 = *(x);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push x;
Call tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c; x = new Obj

x = new Object; a = 4; c = a + b; x.fn(a + b);

tmp0 = 4;Push tmp0; tmp1 = Call Alloc; tmp2 = ObjectC; \*(tmp1) = tmp2;x = tmp1;tmp3 = tmp0;a = tmp3;tmp4 = a + b;c = tmp4;tmp5 = tmp4;tmp6 = \*(x);tmp7 = \*(tmp6);Push tmp5; Push x; Call tmp7;

```
Object x;
int a;
int b;
int c;
x = new Object;
```

c = a + b;

x.fn(a + b);

a = 4;

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*(tmp1) = tmp2;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = a + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = *(x);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push x;
Call tmp7;
```

- 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 = ... v1 ...

#### as

provided that such a rewrite is legal

Object x; int a; int b; int c; x = new Ob

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*(tmp1) = tmp2;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = a + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = *(x);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push x;
Call tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c; x = new Ob

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*(tmp1) = tmp2;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = a + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = *(x);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push x;
Call tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c; x = new Ob

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = a + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = *(x);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push x;
Call tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c; x = new Ob

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = a + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = *(tmp1);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push tmp1;
Call _tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c;

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = a + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = *(tmp1);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push tmp1;
Call _tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c;

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = tmp3 + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = *(tmp1);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push tmp1;
Call _tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c;

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = tmp3 + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = *(tmp1);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push tmp5;
Push tmp1;
Call tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c;

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = tmp3 + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = *(tmp1);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push c;
Push tmp1;
Call _tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c;

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = tmp3 + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = *(tmp1);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push c;
Push tmp1;
Call _tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c; x = new Object; a = 4; c = a + b; x.fn(a + b);

Is this transformation OK?

What do we need to know?

tmp0 = 4;Push tmp0; tmp1 = Call Alloc; tmp2 = ObjectC;\*( tmp1) = ObjectC; x = tmp1;tmp3 = tmp0;a = tmp3;tmp4 = tmp3 + b;c = tmp4;tmp5 = c;tmp6 = ObjectC;tmp7 = \*(tmp6);Push c; Push tmp1; Call tmp7;

Object x; int a; int b; int c; x = new Ob

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = tmp3 + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = ObjectC;
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
Push c;
Push tmp1;
Call _tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c;

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = tmp3 + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = ObjectC;
tmp7 = *(ObjectC);
Push c;
Push tmp1;
Call _tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c; x = new Ob

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = tmp3 + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = ObjectC;
tmp7 = *(ObjectC);
Push c;
Push tmp1;
Call _tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c; x = new Ob

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp0;
tmp4 = tmp0 + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = ObjectC;
tmp7 = *(ObjectC);
Push c;
Push tmp1;
Call _tmp7;
```

- 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

Object x; int a; int b; int c;

```
tmp0 = 4;
Push tmp0;
tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
*( tmp1) = ObjectC;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp0;
tmp4 = tmp0 + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = ObjectC;
tmp7 = *(ObjectC);
Push c;
Push tmp1;
Call tmp7;
```

Object x; int a; int b; int c;

```
tmp0
      = 4;
Push tmp07
 tmp1 = Call Alloc;
tmp2 = ObjectC;
* tmp1) = ObjectC;
\mathbf{x} = \text{tmp1};
tmp3 = tmp0;
a = tmp0;
tmp4 = tmp0 + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = ObjectC;
 tmp7 = *(ObjectC);
Push c;
Push tmp1;
Call tmp7;
```



Object x; int a; int b; int c; x = new Object; a = 4; c = a + b; x.fn(a + b); \_tmp0 = 4; Push \_tmp0; \_tmp1 = Call \_Alloc;

\*(\_tmp1) = ObjectC;

tmp4 = tmp0 + b;c = tmp4;

\_tmp7 = \*(ObjectC);
Push c;
Push \_tmp1;
Call \_tmp7;

# Applying local optimizations

- The different optimizations we've seen so far all take care of just a small piece of the optimization
- Common subexpression elimination eliminates unnecessary statements
- Copy propagation helps identify dead code
- Dead code elimination removes statements that are no longer needed
- To get maximum effect, we may have to apply these optimizations numerous times

b = a \* a; c = a \* a; d = b + c; e = b + b;

b = a \* a; c = a \* a; d = b + c; e = b + b;

#### Which optimization should we apply here?

b = a \* a; c = b; d = b + c; e = b + b;

Which optimization should we apply here?

Common sub-expression elimination

b = a \* a; c = b; d = b + c; e = b + b;

#### Which optimization should we apply here?

b = a \* a; c = b; d = b + b; e = b + b;

#### Which optimization should we apply here?

**Copy propagation** 

b = a \* a; c = b; d = b + b; e = b + b;

#### Which optimization should we apply here?

b = a \* a; c = b; d = b + b; e = d;

#### Which optimization should we apply here?

Common sub-expression elimination (again)
# Other types of local optimizations

- Arithmetic Simplification
  - Replace "hard" operations with easier ones
  - e.g. rewrite x = 4 \* a; as x = a << 2;</p>
- Constant Folding
  - Evaluate expressions at compile-time if they have a constant value.

-e.g. rewrite x = 4 \* 5; as x = 20;

## Optimizations and analyses

- Most optimizations are only possible given some analysis of the program's behavior
- In order to implement an optimization, we will talk about the corresponding program analyses

### Available expressions

- Both common subexpression elimination and copy propagation depend on an analysis of the available expressions in a program
- An expression is called available if some variable in the program holds the value of that expression
- In common subexpression elimination, we replace an available expression by the variable holding its value
- In copy propagation, we replace the use of a variable by the available expression it holds

## Finding available expressions

- Initially, no expressions are available
- Whenever we execute a statement
  a = b op c:
  - Any expression holding a is invalidated
  - The expression **a** = **b** op **c** becomes available
- Idea: Iterate across the basic block, beginning with the empty set of expressions and updating available expressions at each variable

Available expressions example
{ }
a = b + 2;
$\{ a = b + 2 \}$
b = x;
$\{ b = x \}$
d = a + b;
$\{ b = x, d = a + b \}$
e = a + b;
$\{ b = x, d = a + b, e = a + b \}$
d = x;
$\{ b = x, d = x, e = a + b \}$
f = a + b;
$\{ b = x, d = x, e = a + b, f = a + b \}$

#### **Common sub-expression elimination { }** a = b + 2; $\{ a = b + 2 \}$ $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{x};$ $\{ b = x \}$ d = a + b; $\{ b = x, d = a + b \}$ e = d; $\{ b = x, d = a + b, e = a + b \}$ d = b; $\{ b = x, d = x, e = a + b \}$ f = e; $\{ b = x, d = x, e = a + b, f = a + b \}$

#### Common sub-expression elimination **{ }** a = b + 2; $\{ a = b + 2 \}$ $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{x};$ $\{ b = x \}$ d = a + b; $\{ b = x, d = a + b \}$ e = a + b; $\{ b = x, d = a + b, e = a + b \}$ d = x; $\{ b = x, d = x, e = a + b \}$ f = a + b; $\{ b = x, d = x, e = a + b, f = a + b \}$