## Languages and Compilation

Based on the Jean-Christophe Filliâtre's Courses given at École Polytechnique & École Normale Supérieure

# Lecture 12 - optimizing compiler (3/3)

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we took as example a fragment of C language

```
int fact(int x) {
    if (x <= 1) return 1;
    return x * fact(x-1);
}</pre>
```

#### phase 1 : instruction selection

- replace C arithmetic operations with MIPS operations
- explicit memory access with constant offset over signed 16 bits

```
int fact(int x) {
   if (Mle x 1) return 1;
   return Mmul x fact((Maddi -1) x);
}
```

#### phase 2 : RTL (Register Transfer Language)

- from code as abstract syntax tree to control-flow graph
- pseudo-registers for function parameters and intermediate computations

%2 fact(%1)	L7: %2 <- 1> L1
entry : L10	$I.6: \ \%3 < -\ \%1 \qquad> I.5$
exit : L1	L5: %6 <- %1> L4
locals:	L4: %5 <- addi -1 %6> L3
L10: %7 <- %1> L9	L3: %4 <- call fact(%5)> L2
L9: %8 <- 1> L8	L2: %2 <- mul %3 %4> L1
L8: ble %7 %8> L7, L6	

#### phase 3 : ERTL (Explicit Register Transfer Language)

- explicit calling conventions and instructions for handling stack frame

fact(1)	L23: \$ra <- %9> L22
entry : L18	L22: \$s0 <- %10> L21
locals: %10,%11,%9	L21: \$s1 <- %11> L20
L18: alloc_frame> L17	L20: delete_frame> L19
L17: %9 <- \$ra> L16	L19: return
L16: %10 <- \$s0> L15	L6: %3 <- %1> L5
L15: %11 <- \$s1> L14	L5: %6 <- %1> L4
L14: %1 <- \$a0> L10	L4: %5 <- addi -1 %6> L3
L10: %7 <- %1> L9	L3: goto L13
L9: %8 <- 1> L8	L13: \$a0 <- %5> L12
L8: ble %7 %8> L7, L6	L12: call fact(1)> L11
L7: %2 <- 1> L1	L11: %4 <- \$v0> L2
L1: goto L24	L2: %2 <- mul %3 %4> L1
L24: \$v0 <- %2> L23	

## Today Goal 1

#### phase 4 : LTL (Location Transfer Language)

replacing pseudo-registers with physical registers preferably and stack locations otherwise

fact1()	L22: goto L21
entry : L18	L21: goto L20
L18: \$sp <- addi -8 \$sp> L17	L20: \$sp <- addi 8 \$sp> L19
L17: stack(0) <- \$ra> L16	L19: return
L16: goto L15	L6: stack(4) <- \$a0> L5
L15: goto L14	L5: goto L4
L14: goto L10	L4: \$a0 <- addi -1 \$a0> L3
L10: goto L9	L3: goto L13
L9: \$a1 <- 1> L8	L13: goto L12
L8: ble \$a0 \$a1> L7, L6	L12: call fact1> L11
L7: \$v0 <- 1> L1	L11: goto L2
L1: goto L24	L2: \$v1 <- stack(4)> L25
L24: goto L23	L25: \$v0 <- mul \$v1 \$v0> L1
L23: \$ra <- stack(0)> L22	

## Today Goal 2

**phase 5 (Linearization):** the code after LTL is still a control-flow graph and we have to produce linear assembly code

```
fact 1:
        addi $sp, $sp, -8
        sw $ra, 0($sp)
       li $a1, 1
       ble $a0, $a1, L27
       sw $a0, 4($sp)
       addi $a0, $a0, -1
       jal fact__1
       lw $v1, 4($sp)
       mul $v0, $v1, $v0
L21:
       lw $ra, 0($sp)
        addi $sp, $sp, 8
            $ra
       jr
L27:
       li.
           $v0, 1
        b
            I.21
```

#### register allocation

register allocation is complex, and decomposed into several steps

- 1. we perform a liveness analysis
  - it tells when the value contained in a pseudo-register is needed for the remaining of the computation
- 2. we build an interference graph
  - it tells what are the pseudo-registers that cannot be mapped to the same location
- 3. we allocate registers using a graph coloring
  - it maps pseudo-registers to physical registers or stack locations

#### 4.1: liveness analysis

in the following, a *variable* stands for a pseudo-register or a physical register

#### Definition (live variable)

Given a program point, a variable is said to be **live** if the value it contains is likely to be used in the remaining of the computation.

we say "is likely" since "is used" is not decidable; so we seek for a sound over-approximation

#### Exemple





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live variables can be deduced from **definitions** and **uses** of variables by the various instructions

#### Definition

For an instruction at label / in the control-flow graph, we write

- def(1) for the set of variables defined by this instruction,
- *use*(*I*) for the set of variables used by this instruction.

example : for the instruction  $I \equiv r_1 \leftarrow \text{add } r_2 r_3$  we have

$$def(l) = \{r_1\}$$
 et  $use(l) = \{r_2, r_3\}$ 

#### computing live variables

to compute live variables, it is handy to map them to labels in the control-flow graph (instead of edges)

but then we have to distinguish between variables **live at entry** and variables **live at exit** of a given instruction

#### Definition

For an instruction at label / in the control-flow graph, we write

- *in*(*I*) for the set of live variables on the set of incoming edges to *I*,
- *out(1)* for the set of live variables on the set of outcoming edges from *I*.

the equations defining in(l) and out(l) are the following

$$\begin{cases} in(l) = use(l) \cup (out(l) \setminus def(l)) \\ out(l) = \bigcup_{s \in succ(l)} in(s) \end{cases}$$

these are mutually recursive functions and we seek for the smallest solution

we are in the case of a monotonous function over a finite domain and thus we can use Tarski's theorem (see lecture 4)

#### fixpoint computation



$$in(l) = use(l) \cup (out(l) \setminus def(l))$$
$$out(l) = \bigcup_{s \in succ(l)} in(s)$$

	use	def	in	out	in	out	in	out
1		а				а	 С	a,c
2	а	b	а		а	b,c	 a,c	b,c
3	b,c	с	b,c		b,c	b	 b,c	b,c
4	b	а	b		b	а	 b,c	a,c
5	а		а	а	а	a,c	 a,c	a,c
6	с		с		с		 с	

we get the fixpoint with 7 iterations

## fixpoint computation

assuming the control-flow graph has N nodes and N variables, a brute force computation has complexity  $O(N^3)$  in the worst case

we can improve efficiency in several ways

- traversing the graph in "reverse order" and computing *out* before *in* (on the previous example, we converge in 3 iterations instead of 7)
- merging nodes with a unique predecessor and a unique successor (basic blocks)
- using a more subtle algorithm that only recomputes the *in* and *out* that may have changed; this is **Kildall's algorithm**

## Kildall's algorithm

idea: if in(1) changes, then we only need to redo the computation for the predecessors of I

$$\begin{cases} out(l) = \bigcup_{s \in succ(l)} in(s) \\ in(l) = use(l) \cup (out(l) \setminus def(l)) \end{cases}$$

here is the algorithm:

```
let WS be a set containing all nodes
while WS is not empty
  remove a node 1 from WS
  old_in <- in(1)
  out(1) <- ...
  in(1) <- ...
  if in(1) is different from old_in(1) then
      add all predecessors of 1 in WS</pre>
```

### computing def and use

computing the sets def(I) (definitions) and use(I) (uses) is straightforward for most instructions

examples

let	def_use = function	(*def*)	(*use*)
- 1	Econst (r,_,_)	-> [r],	[]
I.	<pre>Eassign_global (r,_,_)</pre>	-> [],	[r]
I.	<pre>Emunop (rd,_,rs,_)</pre>	-> [rd],	[rs]
1	Egoto _	-> [],	[]

## computing def and use

this is more subtle for function calls

**calls**: all *caller-saved* registers can be erased by the call and the min(4, n) first registers of parameters may be used

| Ecall (\_,n,\_) ->
 caller\_saved, prefix n parameters

system calls: only \$a0 and \$v0 are relevant

```
| Esyscall 1 ->
    [v0], [a0; v0]
```

return: \$v0, \$ra and all callee-saved registers may be used

```
| Ereturn ->
[], result :: ra :: callee_saved
```

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#### example

#### this was the ERTL code for fact

1

Ē	act(1)		Ι	.23: \$ra <- %9 -	>	L22
	entry : L18		Ι	.22: \$s0 <- %10 -	>	L21
	locals: %10,%11,%9	Ð	Ι	.21: \$s1 <- %11 -	>	L20
	L18: alloc_frame	> L17	Ι	.20: delete_frame -	>	L19
	L17: %9 <- \$ra	> L16	Ι	.19: return		
	L16: %10 <- \$s0	> L15	Ι	L6: %3 <- %1 ···	>	L5
	L15: %11 <- \$s1	> L14	Ι	.5: %6 <- %1 ···	>	L4
	L14: %1 <- \$a0	> L10	I	.4: %5 <- addi -1 %6 -	>	L3
	L10: %7 <- %1	> L9	I	.3: goto L13		
	L9: %8 <- 1	> L8	I	.13: \$a0 <- %5 -	>	L12
	L8: ble %7 %8>	> L7, L6	I	.12: call fact(1) -	>	L11
	L7: %2 <- 1	> L1	I	.11: %4 <- \$v0 -	>	L2
	L1: goto L24		I	.2: %2 <- mul %3 %4 -	>	L1
	L24: \$v0 <- %2	> L23				

#### liveness for fact

#### liveness analysis gives us:

L19: alloc_frame	> L18	in=\$a0,\$ra,\$s0,\$s1	out=\$a0,\$ra,\$s0,\$s1
L18: %10 <- \$ra	> L17	in=\$a0,\$ra,\$s0,\$s1	out=\$a0,\$s0,\$s1
L17: %11 <- \$s0	> L16	in=\$a0,\$s0,\$s1,%10	out=\$a0,\$s1,%10,%11
L16: %12 <- \$s1	> L15	in=\$a0,\$s1,%10,%11	out=\$a0,%10,%11,%12
L15: %1 <- \$a0	> L11	in=\$a0,%10,%11,%12	out=%1,%10,%11,%12
L11: %8 <- %1	> L10	in=%1,%10,%11,%12	out=%1,%10,%11,%12,%8
L10: %9 <- 1	> L9	in=%1,%10,%11,%12,%8	out=%1,%10,%11,%12,%8,%9
L9: ble %8 %9	> L8, L7	in=%1,%10,%11,%12,%8,%9	out=%1,%10,%11,%12
L8: %2 <- 1	> L1	in=%10,%11,%12	out=%10,%11,%12,%2
L1: goto L25		in=%10,%11,%12,%2	out=%10,%11,%12,%2
L25: \$v0 <- %2	> L24	in=%10,%11,%12,%2	out=\$v0,%10,%11,%12
L24: \$ra <- %10	> L23	in=\$v0,%10,%11,%12	out=\$ra,\$v0,%11,%12
L23: \$s0 <- %11	> L22	in=\$ra,\$v0,%11,%12	out=\$ra,\$s0,\$v0,%12
L22: \$s1 <- %12	> L21	in=\$ra,\$s0,\$v0,%12	out=\$ra,\$s0,\$s1,\$v0
L21: delete_frame	> L20	in=\$ra,\$s0,\$s1,\$v0	out=\$ra,\$s0,\$s1,\$v0
L20: return		in=\$ra,\$s0,\$s1,\$v0	out=
L7: %3 <- %1	> L6	in=%1,%10,%11,%12	out=%1,%10,%11,%12,%3
L6: %6 <- %1	> L5	in=%1,%10,%11,%12,%3	out=%10,%11,%12,%3,%6
L5: %7 <- 1	> L4	in=%10,%11,%12,%3,%6	out=%10,%11,%12,%3,%6,%7
L4: %5 <- sub %6 %	⟨7>L3	in=%10,%11,%12,%3,%6,%7	out=%10,%11,%12,%3,%5
L3: goto L14		in=%10,%11,%12,%3,%5	out=%10,%11,%12,%3,%5
L14: \$a0 <- %5 -	> L13	in=%10,%11,%12,%3,%5	out=\$a0,%10,%11,%12,%3
L13: call fact -	> L12	in=\$a0,%10,%11,%12,%3	out=\$v0,%10,%11,%12,%3
L12: %4 <- \$v0	> L2	in=\$v0,%10,%11,%12,%3	out=%10,%11,%12,%3,%4
L2: %2 <- mul %3 %	(4>L1	in=%10,%11,%12,%3,%4	out=%10,%11,%12,%2

#### 4.2: interference

we now build an **interference graph** that represents the constraints over pseudo-registers

Definition (interference)

We say that two variables  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  interfere if they cannot be implemented by the same location (physical register or memory slot).

since interference is not decidable, we look for sufficient conditions

## interference

let's consider an instruction

$$v \leftarrow e$$

that **defines** a variable v; then any other variable w live **out** of this instruction may interfere with v (mapping v to the register of w would make w not "live")

however, in the particular case of move

$$v \leftarrow w$$

we wish instead not to declare that v and w interfere, since mapping v and w to the same location will eliminate this instruction

## interference graph

#### so we adopt the following definition

#### Definition (interference graph)

The **interference graph** of a function is an undirected graph whose vertices are the variables and whose edges are of two kinds: interference or preference.

For each instruction I that defines a variable v and whose out live variables, other than v, are  $w_1, \ldots, w_n$ , we proceed as follows:

- if I is not a  $v \leftarrow w$  move, we add the n interference edges  $v w_i$
- if *I* is a *v* ← *w* move, we add the interference edges *v* − *w<sub>i</sub>* for the *w<sub>i</sub>* other than *w* and we add a preference edge *v* − *w*.

(if an edge v - w is both a preference and interference, we only keep the interference edge)

#### example : factorial

interference graph for fact

dashed=preference edges



## 4.3: graph coloring

we can see register allocation as a graph coloring problem:

- the colors are the physical registers
- two vertices linked by some interference edge **cannot** receive the same color
- two vertices linked by some preference edge **should** receive the same color as much as possible

**note**: the graph contains vertices that are physical registers, *i.e.*, that are already colored

Gregory Chaitin, Register allocation and spilling via graph coloring, 1982

### example of the factorial

if we remove vertices that are already colored, we get the following coloring problem to solve

	possible colors
%1	$a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, ra, s_0, s_1, t_0, t_1, v_0$
%10	<i>s</i> <sub>0</sub>
%11	<i>s</i> <sub>1</sub>
%2	$a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, ra, s_0, s_1, t_0, t_1, v_0$
%3	<i>s</i> <sub>0</sub> , <i>s</i> <sub>1</sub>
%4	$a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, ra, s_0, s_1, t_0, t_1, v_0$
%5	$a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, ra, s_0, s_1, t_0, t_1, v_0$
%6	$a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, ra, s_0, s_1, t_0, t_1, v_0$
%7	$a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, ra, s_0, s_1, t_0, t_1, v_0$
%8	$a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, ra, s_0, s_1, t_0, t_1, v_0$
%9	



on this example, we can see immediately that the coloring is impossible

- no color available for %9 (the pseudo-register that will store \$ra)
- \$s0 and \$s1 are the only possible colors for %10 and %11, but then there are no colors left for %3

if a vertex can't be colored, it will be **allocated on the stack**; it is called a *spilled* pseudo-register

## another difficulty

even if the graph can be colored, figuring it out would be too costly (the problem is NP-complete)

so we are going to use heuristiques, to color the graph, looking for

- a linear (of quasi-linear) complexity
- good use of preference edges

one of the best algorithms is due to George and Appel (*Iterated Register Coalescing*, 1996)

it uses the following ideas

let K be the number of colors (*i.e.* the number of physical registers)

a first idea, due to Kempe (1879!), is the following:

if a vertex has a degree < K, then we can remove it from the graph, color the remaining graph, and then assign it a color (because it has less interference edges than available colors); this is called **simplification** 

removing a vertex decreases the degree of other vertices and thus can trigger other simplifications

removed vertices are put on a temporary stack of visited nodes

when there are only vertices with degree  $\geq K$ , we pick up one vertex as **potential spill**; it is removed from the graph and put on the temporary stack, and the simplification process restarts

we preferably choose a vertex

- that is seldom used (memory access is costly)
- has a strong degree (to favor new simplifications)

when the graph is empty, we start the coloring process, called selection

we pop vertices from the stack, and for each

- if it has a small degree, we are guaranteed to find a color
- if it has a high degree (a potential spill), then
  - either it can be colored because its neighbors use less than K colors (optimistic coloring)
  - or it cannot be colored and it is spilled to memory (actual spill)

last, we must make good use of preference edges

using a technique called **coalescing** that merges two vertices of the graph; since it may increase the degree (of the resulting vertex), we add a conservative criterion (George's criterion) not to damage K-colorability: coalescing x and y is safe if for every neighbor t of y, either

- t already interferes with x, or
- *t* has less than *k* neighbors, where *k* is the number of available registers.

In simpler terms, if y's neighbors can be colored even after x and y are merged, then the coalescing is safe.

note: this phase is used after simplification but triggers a new simplification if we have a coalescing

## what about *spilled* pseudo-registers?

what do we do with spilled pseudo-registers?

they are mapped to stack slots, in the lower part of the stack frame under the parameters



several pseudo-registers may use the same slot, if they do not interfere  $\Rightarrow$  how to minimize *m* ?

coloring, again this is yet another graph coloring problem, but this time with an infinite number of colors (stack slots)

algorithm :

- merge all preference edges (coalescence), since move between two spilled registers is really costly
- 2. then use the simplification algorithm again

#### example of fact

we get the following register allocation

%1 -> \$a0 %10 -> \$s0 %11 -> \$s1 %2 -> \$v0 %3 -> stack 4 %4 -> \$v0 %5 -> \$a0 %6 -> \$a0 %7 -> \$a0 %8 -> \$a1 %9 -> stack 0

#### example

#### which we would give the following code

fact(1)	L23: \$ra <- stack(0)> L22
entry : L18	L22: \$s0 <- \$s0> L21
locals: %10,%11,%9	L21: \$s1 <- \$s1> L20
L18: alloc_frame> L17	L20: delete_frame> L19
L17: stack(0) <- \$ra> L16	L19: return
L16: \$s0 <- \$s0> L15	L6: stack(4) <- \$a0> L5
L15: \$s1 <- \$s1> L14	L5: \$a0 <- \$a0> L4
L14: \$a0 <- \$a0> L10	L4: \$a0 <- addi -1 \$a0> L3
L10: \$a0 <- \$a0> L9	L3: goto L13
L9: \$a1 <- 1> L8	L13: \$a0 <- \$a0> L12
L8: ble \$a0 \$a1> L7, L6	L12: call fact> L11
L7: \$v0 <- 1> L1	L11: \$v0 <- \$v0> L2
L1: goto L24	L2: \$v0 <- mul stack(4) \$v0
L24: \$v0 <- \$v0> L23	> L1



as we notice, many instructions

 $v \leftarrow v$ 

can now be eliminated; this was the purpose of preference edges

conversely, we have now instructions such as

 $v0 \leftarrow mul stack(0) v0$ 

which don't have direct correspondence in MIPS; what to do?

both cases will be taken care of during the translation to LTL (see appendix of these slides)

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example

so we get the following LTL code for fact

```
fact__1()
                                 L22: goto L21
 entry : L18
                                 L21: goto L20
 L18: $sp <- addi -8 $sp --> L17 L20: $sp <- addi 8 $sp --> L19
 L17: stack(0) <- $ra --> L16 L19: return
 L16: goto L15
                                 L6: stack(4) <- $a0 --> L5
 L15: goto L14
                                 L5: goto L4
 L14: goto L10
                                 L4: $a0 <- addi -1 $a0 --> L3
 L10: goto L9
                                 L3: goto L13
 L9: $a1 <- 1 --> L8 L13: goto L12
 L8: ble $a0 $a1 --> L7, L6 L12: call fact__1
                                                      --> L11
 L7: $v0 <- 1
                       --> L1 L11: goto L2
                                 L2: $v1 <- stack(4) --> L25
 L1: goto L24
 L24: goto L23
                                 L25: $v0 <- mul $v1 $v0 --> L1
 L23: $ra <- stack(0) --> L22
```

#### phase 5: linearization

one last step is needed: the code is still a **control-flow graph** and we have to produce **linear assembly code** 

to be precise, LTL branching instructions contain:

- a label for a positive test
- another label for a negative test

while assembler branching instructions:

- contain a single label for a positive test
- move to the next instruction for a negative test

the linearization consists in traversing the control-flow graph and outputting assembly code, while keeping track of visited labels

for a branching instruction, we try to produce idiomatic assembly code when the negative part of the code is not yet visited

in the worst case, we use some unconditional jump (j)

#### linearization

#### MIPS code is produced sequentially using a function

val emit: Label.t -> Mips.instruction -> unit

we use two tables

```
one to store visited labels
```

let visited = Hashtbl.create 17

and one to store labels that are targets of jumps (we don't know yet when the instruction is visited and emitted)

```
let labels = Hashtbl.create 17
let need_label 1 = Hashtbl.add labels 1 ()
```

the linearization is implemented by two mutually recursive functions

• a function lin outputs code from a given label, if not yet visited, and emits a jump to that label otherwise

val lin: instr Label.map -> Label.t -> unit

• a function instr outputs code for a given label and a given instruction, unconditionally

val instr: instr Label.map -> Label.t -> instr -> unit

the function lin is a mere graph traversal

if the instruction is not yet visited, we mark it as visited and we call function instr

```
let rec lin g l =
    if not (Hashtbl.mem visited l) then begin
    Hashtbl.add visited l ();
    instr g l (Label.M.find l g)
```

otherwise we mark the label as a target in the assembly code and we output some unconditional jump to that label

```
end else begin
  need_label l;
  emit (Label.fresh ()) (B l)
end
```

the function  ${\tt instr}$  outputs MIPS code and calls  ${\tt lin}$  recursively on the next label

```
and instr g l = function
| Econst (r, n, l1) ->
    emit l (Li (r, n)); lin g l1
| Eaccess_global (r, x, l1) ->
    emit l (Lw (r, Alab x)); lin g l1
| ...
```

## branching

the interesting case is that of a branching instruction (let's consider Emubranch; it's the same for Embbranch)

we first consider the case where the code corresponding to a negative test has not yet been produced

```
Emubranch (br, r, lt, lf)
when not (Hashtbl.mem visited lf) ->
need_label lt;
emit l (ubranch br r lt);
lin g lf;
lin g lt
```

(where ubranch is the function that produces MIPS instruction for the branching)

otherwise, it may be the case that the code corresponding to a positive test has not yet been produced and then we can **switch the condition**:

```
Emubranch (br, r, lt, lf)
when not (Hashtbl.mem visited lt) ->
instr g l (Emubranch (inv_ubranch br, r, lf, lt))
```

#### where

finally, in the case where both branches has already been visited, we have no other choice than emitting some unconditional jump

```
Emubranch (br, r, lt, lf) ->
    need_label lt; need_label lf;
    emit l (ubranch br r lt);
    emit l (B lf)
```

note: we can try to estimate which case will be true more often

the code contains many goto (while loops of the RTL phase, calling conventions in the ERTL phase, removal of move instructions in the LTL phase)

we now eliminate unnecessary goto when possible

```
| Egoto 11 ->
    if Hashtbl.mem visited 11 then begin
        need_label 11;
        emit 1 (B 11)
    end else begin
        emit 1 Nop; (* will be erased *)
        lin g 11
    end
```

## assembling all pieces

the main program with all the compilation phases

```
let f = open_in file in
let buf = Lexing.from_channel f in
let p = Parser.file Lexer.token buf in
close_in f;
let p = Typing.program p in
let p = Is.program p in
let p = Rtl.program p in
let p = Ertl.program p in
let p = Ltl.program p in
let code = Lin.program p in
let c = open_out (Filename.chop_suffix file ".c" ^ ".s") in
let fmt = formatter_of_out_channel c in
Mips.print_program fmt code;
close_out c
```

#### factorial

$fact_1:$				
	addi	\$sp,	\$sp,	-8
	SW	\$ra,	0(\$sj	p)
	li	\$a1,	1	
	ble	\$a0,	\$a1,	L27
	SW	\$a0,	4(\$s]	p)
	addi	\$a0,	\$a0,	-1
	jal	fact.	1	
	lw	\$v1,	4(\$s]	p)
	mul	\$v0,	\$v1,	\$v0
L21:				
	lw	\$ra,	0(\$s]	p)
	addi	\$sp,	\$sp,	8
	jr	\$ra		
L27:				
	li	\$v0,	1	
	b	L21		

#### we could do better manually

li \$v0, 1 ble \$a0, \$v0, L1 addi \$sp, \$sp, -8 sw \$ra, 4(\$sp)
ble \$a0, \$v0, L1 addi \$sp, \$sp, -8 sw \$ra, 4(\$sp)
addi \$sp, \$sp, -8 sw \$ra, 4(\$sp)
<mark>sw</mark> \$ra, 4(\$sp)
<mark>sw</mark> \$a0, 0(\$sp)
addi \$a0, \$a0, -1
jal fact_2
lw \$v1, 0(\$sp)
mul \$v0, \$v1, \$v0
<b>lw</b> \$ra, 4(\$sp)
addi \$sp, \$sp, 8
L1:
jr \$ra

but it is always easier to optimize one program

#### take away

#### programming languages

#### understanding programming languages is essential for

#### • coding

- have a precise execution model in mind
- choose the right abstractions
- doing research in (applied/fundamental) Computer Science
  - design new languages
  - design tools (i.e. static analysis)

#### programming languages

in particular, we explained

- what is the stack
- various passing modes
- what is an object
- static and dynamic typing

#### compilation

#### compilation involves

- numerous techniques
- several passes, mostly orthogonal

most of these techniques can be reused in contexts other than code generation, such as

- computational linguistics
- computer-assisted proofs
- databases

#### compilation also means...

many other things we didn't have time to explore

module systems common sub-expression program transformations abstract interpretation alias analysis loop unrolling interprocedural analysis memory caches logic programming just-in-time compilation instruction scheduling etc.

#### ...but in the end

#### there are no good programming languages, only good programmers

## appendix

## the LTL language

we still have a control-flow graph most LTL instructions LTL are the same as in ERTL, but operands are now physical registers or stack slots

```
type instr =
    | Econst of register * int * label
    | Eaccess_global of register * ident * label
    | ...
```

additionally Eget\_stack\_param and Eset\_stack\_param disappear, being now replaced by general instructions manipulating the stack using \$sp

```
| Eget_stack of register * int * label
| Eset_stack of register * int * label
```

we translate each ERTL instruction using a function that takes as arguments the graph coloring and the size of the stack frame (which is now known for each function)

# let instr colors frame\_size = function | ...

let's consider the case of an instruction that loads the constant  ${\tt n}$  in the variable  ${\tt r}$  :

let instr colors frame\_size = function
 | Ertltree.Econst (r, n, 1) -> ?

we have two possible cases:

• either r is physical register h or a pseudo-register mapped to a physical register h; then translation is straightforward

Econst (h, n, 1)

 or r is a spilled pseudo-register, and translation is not trivial: we need to load n in a physical register, then use the latter to write to memory problem : which physical register shall we use? we go for a simple solution: two registers are used as temporary registers from transfers to/from memory, and are not used anywhere else (we choose (we choose v1 and fp here)

in practice, we can't always waste two registers like this; we have to patch the interference graph and rerun the register allocation to free a register for the transfer (fortunately, it quickly converges (2 or 3 steps) in practice)

with two temporary registers

let tmp1, tmp2 = "\$v1", "\$fp"

to write into the variable r we define a function write, that takes as arguments graph coloring c and the label for where to go after the write; the function then computes the physical register and the continuation label

```
let write c r l = match lookup c r with
    | Reg hr -> hr, l
    | Spilled n -> tmp1, generate (Eset_stack (tmp1, n, l))
```

we can now translate from ERTL to LTL:

```
let instr c frame_size = function
    | Ertltree.Econst (r, n, l) ->
        let hwr, l = write c r l in
        Econst (hwr, n, l)
    | Ertltree.Eaccess_global (r, x, l) ->
        let hwr, l = write c r l in
        Eaccess_global (hwr, x, l)
    | ...
```

conversely, we define a function read1 to read the content of a variable (using a handler f in case of a physical register):

i.e. we use it as follows:

```
let instr c frame_size = function
| ...
| Ertltree.Eassign_global (r, x, 1) ->
      read1 c r (fun hwr -> Eassign_global (hwr, x, 1))
```

we proceed in a similar way when we need to read the content of two variables (binary operations) and use it as follows:

```
| Ertltree.Embinop (r1, op, r2, r3, l) ->
    read2 c r2 r3 (fun hw2 hw3 ->
    let hw1, l = write c r1 l in
    Embinop (hw1, op, hw2, hw3, l))
```

the Mmove instruction requires a special treatment:

```
| Ertltree.Emunop (r1, Mmove, r2, 1) ->
   begin match lookup c r1, lookup c r2 with
      | w1, w2 when w1 = w2 ->
         Egoto 1
      | Reg hr1, Reg hr2 ->
          Emunop (hr1, Mmove, hr2, 1)
      Reg hr1, Spilled ofs2 ->
         Eget_stack (hr1, ofs2, 1)
      | Spilled ofs1, Reg hr2 ->
         Eset_stack (hr2, ofs1, 1)
      | Spilled ofs1, Spilled ofs2 ->
         Eget_stack (tmp1, ofs2, generate (
         Eset_stack (tmp1, ofs1, 1)))
```

end

#### stack parameters

and now that we know the size of the stack frame, we can translate Eget\_stack\_param in terms of access of it w.r.t. \$sp

```
| Ertltree.Eget_stack_param (r, n, l) ->
    let hwr, l = write c r l in
    Eget_stack (hwr, frame_size + n, l)
```

(but the Eset\_stack\_param does not change)

| Ertltree.Eset\_stack\_param (r, n, 1) ->
 read1 c r (fun hwr -> Eset\_stack (hwr, n, 1))

and we can translate Ealloc\_frame and Edelete\_frame in terms of \$sp

```
| Ertltree.Ealloc_frame 1
| Ertltree.Edelete_frame 1 when frame_size = 0 ->
    Egoto 1
| Ertltree.Ealloc_frame 1 ->
    Emunop (Register.sp, Maddi (-frame_size), Register.sp, 1)
| Ertltree.Edelete_frame 1 ->
    Emunop (Register.sp, Maddi frame_size, Register.sp, 1)
```

```
let deffun f =
  let ln = Liveness.analyze f.Ertltree.fun_body in
  let ig = Interference.make ln in
  let c, nlocals = Coloring.find ig in
  let n_stack_params =
    max 0 (f.Ertltree.fun_formals-List.length Register.parameters)
  in
  let frame_size = word_size * (nlocals + n_stack_params) in
  graph := Label.M.empty;
  Label.M.iter (fun l i ->
    let i = instr c frame size i in
    graph := Label.M.add l i !graph)
    f.Ertltree.fun_body;
  { fun_name = f.Ertltree.fun_name;
    fun_entry = f.Ertltree.fun_entry;
    fun_body = !graph; }
```