Introduction to Compiler construction

http://cs143.stanford.edu

Why Study Compilers?

- Build a large, ambitious software system.
- See theory come to life.
- Learn how to build programming languages.
- Learn how programming languages work.
- Learn tradeoffs in language design.

A Short History of Compilers

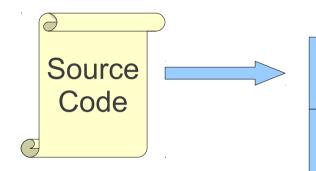
- First, there was nothing.
- Then, there was machine code.
- Then, there were assembly languages.
- Programming expensive; 50% of costs for machines went into programming.

How does a compiler work?

From Description to Implementation

- Lexical analysis (Scanning): Identify logical pieces of the description.
- Syntax analysis (Parsing): Identify how those pieces relate to each other.
- **Semantic analysis:** Identify the meaning of the overall structure.
- IR Generation: Design one possible structure.
- IR Optimization: Simplify the intended structure.
- **Generation:** Fabricate the structure.
- **Optimization:** Improve the resulting structure.

The Structure of a Modern Compiler



Lexical Analysis

Syntax Analysis

Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

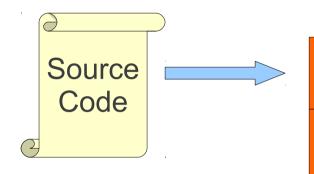
IR Optimization

Code Generation

Optimization



The Structure of a Modern Compiler



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IR Generation

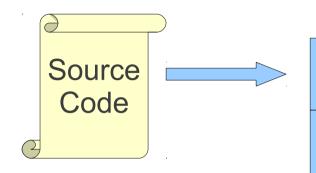
IR Optimization

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The Structure of a Modern Compiler



Lexical Analysis

Syntax Analysis

Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

IR Optimization

Code Generation

Optimization



```
while (y < z) {
    int x = a + b;
    y += x;
}</pre>
```

Syntax Analysis

Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

IR Optimization

Code Generation

```
while (y < z) {
    int x = a + b;
    y += x;
T While
T LeftParen
T Identifier y
T Less
T Identifier z
T RightParen
T OpenBrace
T Int
T Identifier x
T Assign
T Identifier a
T Plus
T Identifier b
T Semicolon
T Identifier y
T PlusAssign
T Identifier x
T Semicolon
T CloseBrace
```

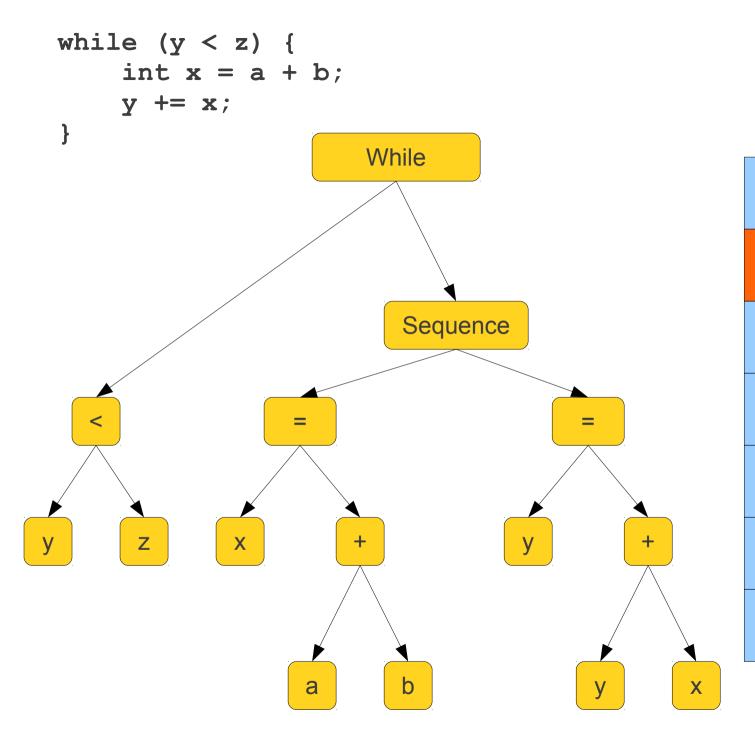
Syntax Analysis

Semantic Analysis

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IR Optimization

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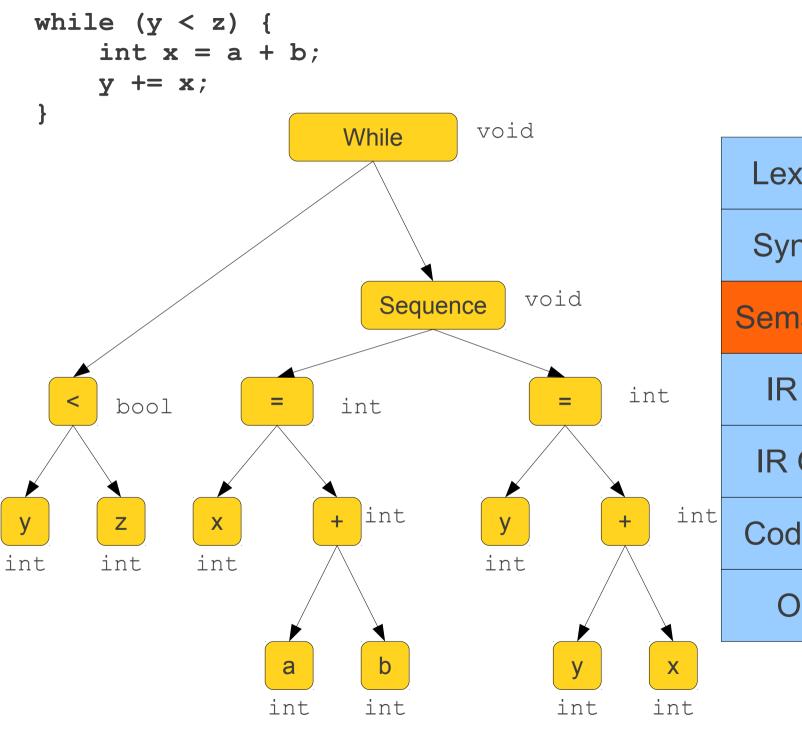
Syntax Analysis

Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

IR Optimization

Code Generation



Syntax Analysis

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Code Generation

```
while (y < z) {
    int x = a + b;
    y += x;
}</pre>
```

Loop:
$$x = a + b$$

$$y = x + y$$

$$t1 = y < z$$

$$if _t1 goto Loop$$

Syntax Analysis

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```
while (y < z) {
    int x = a + b;
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$$x = a + b$$
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$$-t1 = y < z$$
if _t1 goto Loop

Syntax Analysis

Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

IR Optimization

Code Generation

```
while (y < z) {
    int x = a + b;
    y += x;
}</pre>
```

```
add $1, $2, $3
Loop: add $4, $1, $4
slt $6, $1, $5
beq $6, loop
```

Syntax Analysis

Semantic Analysis

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Code Generation

```
while (y < z) {
    int x = a + b;
    y += x;
}</pre>
```

```
add $1, $2, $3
Loop: add $4, $1, $4
slt $6, $1, $5
beq $6, loop
```

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```
while (y < z) {
    int x = a + b;
    y += x;
}</pre>
```

```
add $1, $2, $3
Loop: add $4, $1, $4
blt $1, $5, loop
```

Syntax Analysis

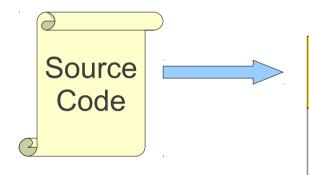
Semantic Analysis

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Code Generation

Where We Are



Lexical Analysis

Syntax Analysis

Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

IR Optimization

Code Generation

Optimization



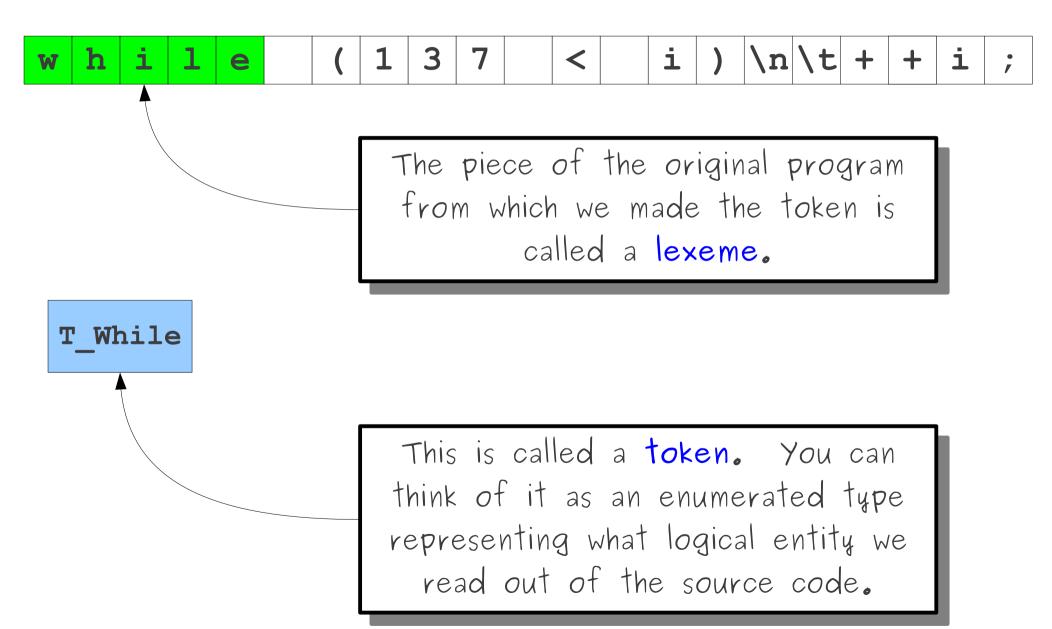
```
w h i l e ( 1 3 7 < i ) \n\t + i ;
```

w h i l e (1 3 7 < i) \n\t + i;

w h i l e (1 3 7 < i) \n\t + + i ;

```
w h i l e ( 1 3 7 < i ) \n\t + i ;
```

T_While

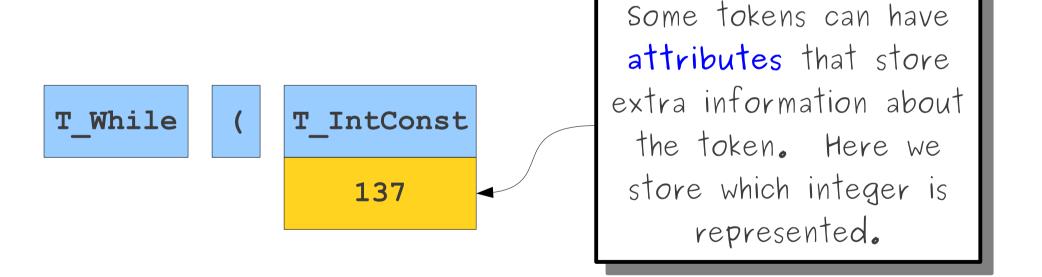




T_While

Sometimes we will discard a lexeme rather than storing it for later use. Here, we ignore whitespace, since it has no bearing on the meaning of the program.





Goals of Lexical Analysis

- Convert from physical description of a program into sequence of of tokens.
 - Each token represents one logical piece of the source file – a keyword, the name of a variable, etc.
- Each token is associated with a lexeme.
 - The actual text of the token: "137," "int," etc.
- Each token may have optional attributes.
 - Extra information derived from the text perhaps a numeric value.
- The token sequence will be used in the parser to recover the program structure.

Choosing Tokens

What Tokens are Useful Here?

```
for (int k = 0; k < myArray[5]; ++k) {
    cout << k << endl;
}</pre>
```

What Tokens are Useful Here?

```
for (int k = 0; k < myArray[5]; ++k) {
    cout << k << endl;</pre>
          for
          int
          <<
          Identifier
          IntegerConstant
```

Choosing Good Tokens

- Very much dependent on the language.
- Typically:
 - Give keywords their own tokens.
 - Give different punctuation symbols their own tokens.
 - Group lexemes representing identifiers, numeric constants, strings, etc. into their own groups.
 - Discard irrelevant information (whitespace, comments)

Associating Lexemes with Tokens

Lexemes and Tokens

- Tokens give a way to categorize lexemes by what information they provide.
- Some tokens might be associated with only a single lexeme:
 - Tokens for keywords like **if** and **while** probably only match those lexemes exactly.
- Some tokens might be associated with lots of different lexemes:
 - All variable names, all possible numbers, all possible strings, etc.

Sets of Lexemes

- Idea: Associate a set of lexemes with each token.
- We might associate the "number" token with the set { 0, 1, 2, ..., 10, 11, 12, }
- We might associate the "string" token with the set { "", "a", "b", "c", ... }
- We might associate the token for the keyword while with the set { while }.

How do we describe which (potentially infinite) set of lexemes is associated with each token type?

Formal Languages

- A formal language is a set of strings.
- Many infinite languages have finite descriptions:
 - Define the language using an automaton.
 - Define the language using a grammar.
 - Define the language using a regular expression.
- We can use these compact descriptions of the language to define sets of strings.

Regular Expressions

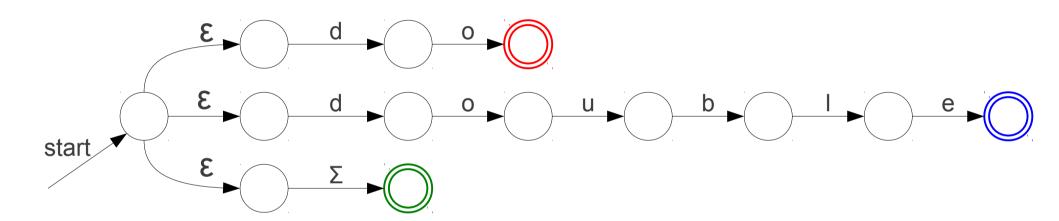
- Regular expressions are a family of descriptions that can be used to capture certain languages (the *regular languages*).
- Often provide a compact and humanreadable description of the language.
- Used as the basis for numerous software systems.

Matching Regular Expressions

Implementing Regular Expressions

- Regular expressions can be implemented using finite automata.
- There are two main kinds of finite automata:
 - NFAs (nondeterministic finite automata), which we'll see in a second, and
 - **DFA**s (**deterministic** finite automata), which we'll see later.
- Automata are best explained by example...

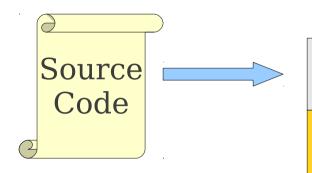
A Minor Simplification



Annotate each accepting state with which automaton it came from.

Syntax Analysis

Where We Are



Lexical Analysis

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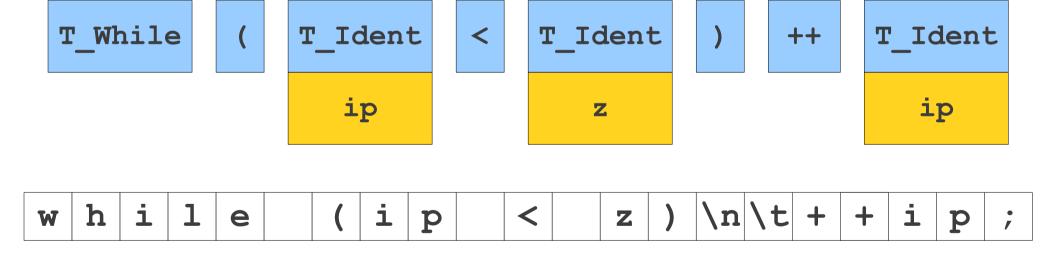
Optimization



Machine Code

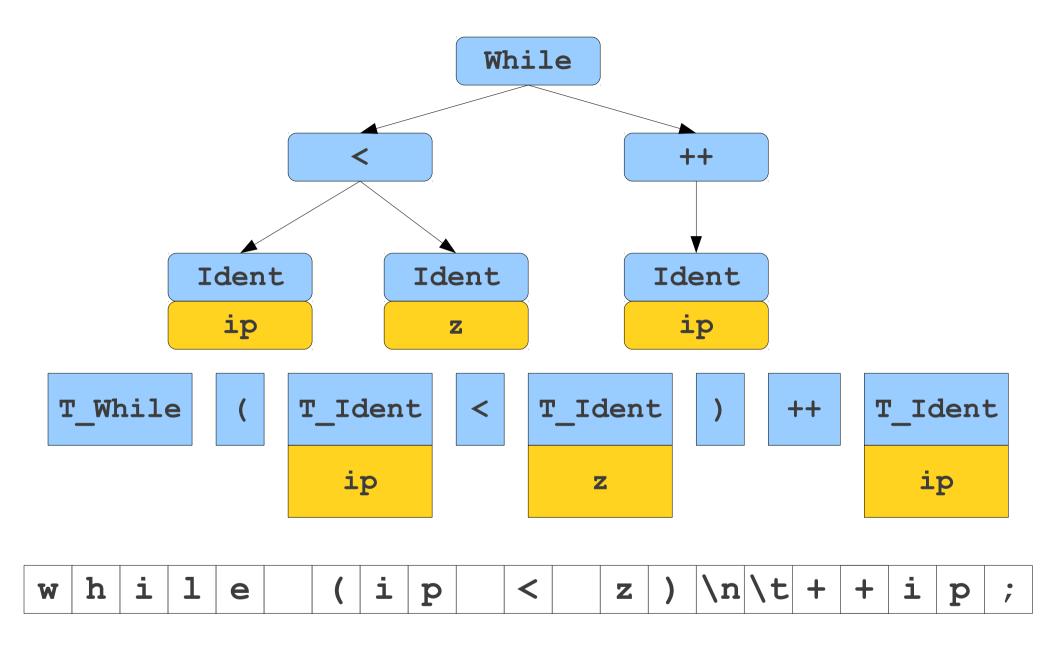
w h i l e	W	h	i	1	е		(i	p		<		Z)	\n	\t	+	+	i	p	•
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	--	---	---	---	--	---	--	---	---	----	----	---	---	---	---	---

while (ip < z)
++ip;</pre>

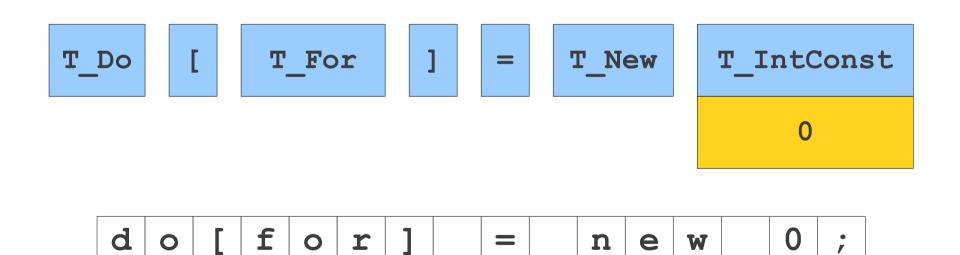


while (ip < z)

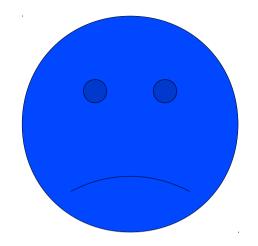
++ip;



do[for] = new 0;



do[for] = new 0;



T_Do [T_For] = T_New T_IntConst 0

do[for] = new 0;

What is Syntax Analysis?

- After lexical analysis (scanning), we have a series of tokens.
- In **syntax analysis** (or **parsing**), we want to interpret what those tokens mean.
- Goal: Recover the *structure* described by that series of tokens.
- Goal: Report *errors* if those tokens do not properly encode a structure.

The Limits of Regular Languages

- When scanning, we used regular expressions to define each token.
- Unfortunately, regular expressions are (usually) too weak to define programming languages.
 - Cannot define a regular expression matching all expressions with properly balanced parentheses.
 - Cannot define a regular expression matching all functions with properly nested block structure.
- We need a more powerful formalism.

Context-Free Grammars

- A context-free grammar (or CFG) is a formalism for defining languages.
- Can define the **context-free languages**, a strict superset of the the regular languages.
- CFGs are best explained by example...

Arithmetic Expressions

- Suppose we want to describe all legal arithmetic expressions using addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.
- Here is one possible CFG:

```
\mathbf{E}
\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathtt{int}
                                                        \Rightarrow E Op E
\mathbf{E} \to \mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E}
                                                        \Rightarrow E Op (E)
\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E})
                                                        \Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{+}
                                                        \Rightarrow E * (E Op E)
Op → -
                                                        \Rightarrow int * (E Op E)
\mathbf{Op} \to \mathbf{*}
                                                        \Rightarrow int * (int Op E)
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{/}
                                                        ⇒ int * (int Op int)
                                                        \Rightarrow int * (int + int)
```

Context-Free Grammars

- Formally, a context-free grammar is a collection of four objects:
 - A set of **nonterminal symbols** (or **variables**),
 - A set of terminal symbols,
 - A set of production rules saying how each nonterminal can be converted by a string of terminals and nonterminals, and
 - A **start symbol** that begins the derivation.

```
E \rightarrow int
E \rightarrow E Op E
E \rightarrow (E)
Op \rightarrow +
Op \rightarrow -
Op \rightarrow *
```

Derivations

```
\mathbf{E}
\Rightarrow E Op E
\Rightarrow E Op (E)
\Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)
\Rightarrow E * (E Op E)
\Rightarrow int * (E Op E)
\Rightarrow int * (int Op E)
⇒ int * (int Op int)
⇒ int * (int + int)
```

- This sequence of steps is called a **derivation**.
- A string $\alpha A \omega$ yields string $\alpha \gamma \omega$ iff $A \rightarrow \gamma$ is a production.
- If α yields β , we write $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$.
- We say that α derives β iff there is a sequence of strings where

$$\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha_1 \Rightarrow \alpha_2 \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \beta$$

• If α derives β , we write $\alpha \Rightarrow *\beta$.

Parse Trees

- A **parse tree** is a tree encoding the steps in a derivation.
- Internal nodes represent nonterminal symbols used in the production.
- Inorder walk of the leaves contains the generated string.
- Encodes what productions are used, not the order in which those productions are applied.

The Goal of Parsing

- Goal of syntax analysis: Recover the **structure** described by a series of tokens.
- If language is described as a CFG, goal is to recover a parse tree for the the input string.
 - Usually we do some simplifications on the tree; more on that later.

Abstract Syntax Trees (ASTs)

- A parse tree is a concrete syntax tree; it shows exactly how the text was derived.
- A more useful structure is an **abstract syntax tree**, which retains only the essential structure of the input.

Top-Down Parsing

Different Types of Parsing

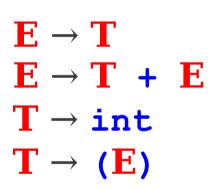
Top-Down Parsing (Today)

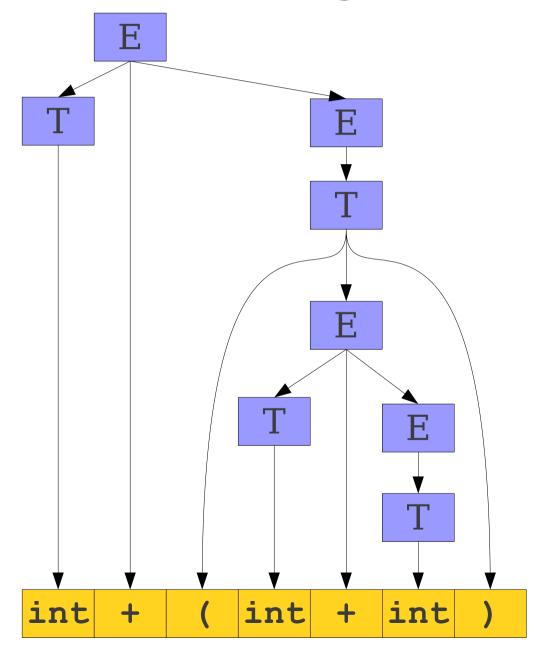
• Beginning with the start symbol, try to guess the productions to apply to end up at the user's program.

Bottom-Up Parsing

 Beginning with the user's program, try to apply productions in reverse to convert the program back into the start symbol.

Top-Down Parsing





Predictive Parsing

Exploiting Lookahead

- Given just the start symbol, how do you know which productions to use to get to the input program?
- Idea: Use lookahead tokens.
- When trying to decide which production to use, look at some number of tokens of the input to help make the decision.

A Simple Predictive Parser: LL(1)

- Top-down, predictive parsing:
 - L: Left-to-right scan of the tokens
 - L: Leftmost derivation.
 - (1): One token of lookahead
- Construct a leftmost derivation for the sequence of tokens.
- When expanding a nonterminal, we predict the production to use by looking at the next token of the input. **The decision is forced.**

LL(1) Parse Tables

```
\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}
\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E})
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow +
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow *
```

LL(1) Parse Tables

$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$$
 $\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E})$
 $\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow +$
 $\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \star$

	int	()	+	*
Е	int	(E Op E)			
Ор				+	*

LL(1) Parsing

```
(int + (int * int))
```

```
(1) E \rightarrow int
(2) E \rightarrow (E Op E)
(3) Op \rightarrow +
(4) Op \rightarrow *
```

(4) Op → *****

E\$ (int + (int * int))\$

(1)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$$

(2)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E})$$

(3)
$$\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{+}$$

	int	()	+	*
Е	1	2			
Ор				3	4

The \$ symbol is the end-of-input marker and is used by the parser to detect when we have reached the end of the input. It is not a part of the grammar.

(1)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$$

(2)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E})$$

(3)
$$\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{+}$$

	int	()	+	*
Е	1	2			
Ор				3	4

The first symbol of our guess is a nonterminal. We then look at our parsing table to see what production to use.

This is called a predict step.

E\$ (int + (int * int))\$

- (1) $\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$
- (2) $\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E})$
- **(3) Op** → **+**
- (4) Op → *

	int	()	+	*
Ε	1	2			
Ор				3	4

E\$	(int + (int * int))\$
(E Op E)\$	(int + (int * int))\$

```
(1) \mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}
```

(2)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E})$$

(3)
$$\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{+}$$

	int	()	+	*
Е	1	2			
Ор				3	4

E\$	(int +	(int *	int))\$
(E Op E)\$	(int +	(int *	int))\$

```
(1) \mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}
```

(2)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E})$$

(3)
$$\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{+}$$

	int	()	+	*
Е	1	2			
Ор				3	4

The first symbol of our guess is now a terminal symbol. We thus match it against the first symbol of the string to parse.

This is called a match step.

(1)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$$

(2)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E})$$

(4)
$$Op \rightarrow *$$

	int	()	+	*
Ш	1	2			
Ор				3	4

E\$	(int + (int * int))\$
(E Op E)\$	(int + (int * int))\$
E Op E)\$	int + (int * int))\$

(1)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$$

(2)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E})$$

(3)
$$\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{+}$$

	int	()	+	*
Ε	1	2			
Ор				3	4

E \$	(int + (int * int))\$
(E Op E)\$	(int + (int * int))\$
E Op E)\$	int + (int * int))\$

(1)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$$

(2)
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E})$$

$$(3) \mathbf{Op} \to \mathbf{+}$$

	int	()	+	*
Ε	1	2			
Ор				3	4

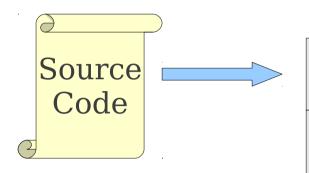
E\$	(int + (int * int))\$
(E Op E)\$	(int + (int * int))\$
E Op E)\$	int + (int * int))\$
int Op E)\$	int + (int * int))\$

LL(1) is Fast

- Both table-driven LL(1) and recursivedescent-powered LL(1) are fast.
- Can parse in O(n |G|) time, where n is the length of the string and |G| is the size of the grammar.

Semantic Analysis

Where We Are



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IR Generation

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Machine Code

Where We Are

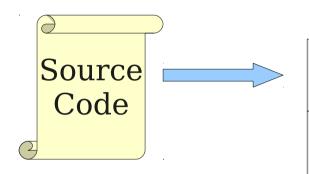
- Program is *lexically* well-formed:
 - Identifiers have valid names.
 - Strings are properly terminated.
 - No stray characters.
- Program is *syntactically* well-formed:
 - Class declarations have the correct structure.
 - Expressions are syntactically valid.
- Does this mean that the program is legal?

Semantic Analysis

- Ensure that the program has a well-defined meaning.
- Verify properties of the program that aren't caught during the earlier phases:
 - Variables are declared before they're used.
 - Expressions have the right types.
 - Classes don't inherit from nonexistent base classes
 - ...
- Once we finish semantic analysis, we know that the user's input program is legal.

Three-Address Code IR

Where We Are



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An Important Detail

- When generating IR at this level, you do not need to worry about optimizing it.
- It's okay to generate IR that has lots of unnecessary assignments, redundant computations, etc.
- We'll see how to optimize IR code later.
 - It's tricky, but extremely cool!

Temporary Variables

- The "three" in "three-address code" refers to the number of operands in any instruction.
- Evaluating an expression with more than three subexpressions requires the introduction of temporary variables.
- This is actually a lot easier than you might think; we'll see how to do it later on.

Sample TAC Code

```
int a;
int b;
a = 5 + 2 * b;
```

Simple TAC Instructions

Variable assignment allows assignments of the form

```
var = constant;
var<sub>1</sub> = var<sub>2</sub>;
var<sub>1</sub> = var<sub>2</sub> op var<sub>3</sub>;
var<sub>1</sub> = constant op var<sub>2</sub>;
var<sub>1</sub> = var<sub>2</sub> op constant;
var = constant<sub>1</sub> op constant<sub>2</sub>;
```

- Permitted operators are +, -, *, /, %.
- How would you compile y = -x;?

```
int x;
int y;
int z;
if (x < y)
   z = x;
else
   z = y;
z = z * z;
```

```
int x;
int y;
int z;

if (x < y)
   z = x;
else
   z = y;</pre>
```

```
__t0 = x < y;
IfZ __t0 Goto __L0;
z = x;
Goto __L1;
__L0:
z = y;
__L1:
z = z * z;
```

```
int x;
int y;
int z;

if (x < y)
    z = x;
else
    z = y;</pre>
```

```
__t0 = x < y;
IfZ __t0 Goto __L0;
z = x;
Goto __L1;
__L0:
z = y;
__L1:
z = z * z;
```

```
int x;
int y;
int z;

if (x < y)
   z = x;
else
   z = y;</pre>
```

```
__t0 = x < y;
IfZ __t0 Goto __L0;
z = x;
Goto __L1;
__L0:
z = y;
__L1:
z = z * z;
```

Labels

- TAC allows for **named labels** indicating particular points in the code that can be jumped to.
- There are two control flow instructions:
 - Goto label;
 - IfZ value Goto label;
- Note that Ifz is always paired with Goto.

```
int x;
int y;

while (x < y) {
    x = x * 2;
}

y = x;</pre>
```

```
int x;
int y;

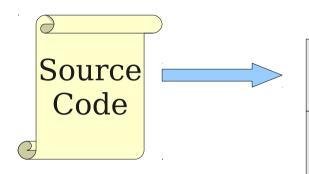
while (x < y) {
    x = x * 2;
}

y = x;</pre>
```

```
_L0:
_t0 = x < y;
IfZ _t0 Goto _L1;
x = x * 2;
Goto _L0;
_L1:
_y = x;
```

IR Optimization

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IR Optimization

- **Goal**: Improve the IR generated by the previous step to take better advantage of resources.
- One of the most important and complex parts of any modern compiler.
- A very active area of research.
- There is a whole class (CS243) dedicated to this material.

Sources of Optimization

- In order to optimize our IR, we need to understand why it can be improved in the first place.
- Reason one: IR generation introduces redundancy.
 - A naïve translation of high-level language features into IR often introduces subcomputations.
 - Those subcomputations can often be sped up, shared, or eliminated.
- **Reason two:** Programmers are lazy.
 - Code executed inside of a loop can often be factored out of the loop.
 - Language features with side effects often used for purposes other than those side effects.

A Note on Terminology

- The term "optimization" implies looking for an "optimal" piece of code for a program.
- This is, in general, undecidable.
 - e.g. create a program that can be simplified iff some other program halts.
- Our goal will be IR *improvement* rather than IR *optimization*.

The Challenge of Optimization

A good optimizer

- Should never change the observable behavior of a program.
- Should produce IR that is as efficient as possible.
- Should not take too long to process inputs.

• Unfortunately:

- Even good optimizers sometimes introduce bugs into code.
- Optimizers often miss "easy" optimizations due to limitations of their algorithms.
- Almost all interesting optimizations are **NP**-hard or undecidable.

What are we Optimizing?

- Optimizers can try to improve code usage with respect to many observable properties.
- What are some quantities we might want to optimize?

What are we Optimizing?

- Optimizers can try to improve code usage with respect to many observable properties.
- What are some quantities we might want to optimize?
- **Runtime** (make the program as fast as possible at the expense of time and power)
- **Memory usage** (generate the smallest possible executable at the expense of time and power)
- **Power consumption** (choose simple instructions at the expense of speed and memory usage)
- Plus a lot more (minimize function calls, reduce use of floating-point hardware, etc.)

Overview of IR Optimization

Formalisms and Terminology

- Control-flow graphs.
- Basic blocks.

Local optimizations

Speeding up small pieces of a function.

Global optimizations

Speeding up functions as a whole.

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.
- The optimizations we will consider in this class are all semantics-preserving.

```
main:
    BeginFunc 40;
    tmp0 = LCall ReadInteger;
    a = tmp0;
    tmp1 = LCall 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:
    PushParam a;
    LCall PrintInt;
    PopParams 4;
    EndFunc;
```

```
main:
    BeginFunc 40;
    tmp0 = LCall ReadInteger;
    a = tmp0;
    tmp1 = LCall 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:
    PushParam a;
    LCall _PrintInt;
    PopParams 4;
    EndFunc;
```

```
main:
                                    tmp0 = LCall ReadInteger;
   BeginFunc 40;
                                   a = tmp0;
    tmp0 = LCall ReadInteger;
                                    tmp1 = LCall ReadInteger;
   a = tmp0;
                                   b = tmp1;
    tmp1 = LCall ReadInteger;
   b = tmp1;
L0:
   tmp2 = 0;
                                   tmp2 = 0 ;
    tmp3 = b == tmp2;
                                    tmp3 = b == tmp2;
    tmp4 = 0;
                                   tmp4 = 0 ;
                                   tmp5 = tmp3 == tmp4;
    tmp5 = tmp3 == tmp4;
                                   IfZ tmp5 Goto L1;
   IfZ tmp5 Goto L1;
   c = a;
   a = b;
    tmp6 = c % a;
                                c = a ;
   b = tmp6;
                                a = b;
                                                  PushParam a ;
   Goto L0;
                                 tmp6 = c % a ;
                                                  LCall PrintInt;
L1:
                                b = tmp6;
                                                  PopParams 4 ;
   PushParam a;
                                Goto LO;
   LCall PrintInt;
   PopParams 4;
```

EndFunc;

start

```
main:
                                    tmp0 = LCall ReadInteger;
   BeginFunc 40;
                                   a = tmp0;
    tmp0 = LCall ReadInteger;
                                    tmp1 = LCall ReadInteger;
   a = tmp0;
                                   b = tmp1 ;
    tmp1 = LCall ReadInteger;
   b = tmp1;
L0:
   tmp2 = 0;
                                    tmp2 = 0 ;
                                    tmp3 = b == tmp2;
    tmp3 = b == tmp2;
    tmp4 = 0;
                                   tmp4 = 0 ;
                                    tmp5 = tmp3 == tmp4;
    tmp5 = tmp3 == tmp4;
                                   IfZ tmp5 Goto L1;
   IfZ tmp5 Goto L1;
   c = a;
   a = b;
    tmp6 = c % a;
                                c = a ;
   b = tmp6;
                                a = b;
                                                  PushParam a ;
   Goto L0;
                                 tmp6 = c % a ;
                                                  LCall PrintInt;
L1:
                                                  PopParams 4 ;
                                b = tmp6;
   PushParam a;
                                Goto L0;
   LCall PrintInt;
   PopParams 4;
   EndFunc;
                                                         end
```

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.

Local Optimizations

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

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

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

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

```
tmp0 = 4 ;
PushParam tmp0;
tmp1 = LCall Alloc;
PopParams 4;
tmp2 = Object;
*(tmp1) = tmp2;
x = tmp1;
tmp3 = 4 ;
a = tmp3;
tmp4 = a + b ;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = a + b ;
tmp6 = *(x) ;
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
PushParam tmp5;
PushParam x ;
ACall tmp7;
PopParams 8;
```

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

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

```
tmp0 = 4 ;
PushParam tmp0;
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tmp0 = 4 ;
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tmp1 = LCall Alloc;
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tmp2 = Object;
*(tmp1) = tmp2;
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tmp3 = 4 ;
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tmp6 = *(x);
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
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PopParams 4;
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*(tmp1) = tmp2;
x = tmp1;
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tmp2 = Object;
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x = tmp1;
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c = tmp4;
tmp5 = c;
tmp6 = *(x) ;
tmp7 = *(tmp6);
PushParam tmp5;
PushParam x ;
ACall tmp7;
PopParams 8;
```

• If we have two variable assignments

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{a} \text{ op b}$$

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{a} \text{ op b}$$

and the values of $\mathbf{v_1}$, \mathbf{a} , and \mathbf{b} have not changed between the assignments, rewrite the code as

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{a} \text{ op } \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{v}_1$$

- 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;
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```

```
tmp0 = 4 ;
PushParam tmp0;
tmp1 = LCall Alloc;
PopParams 4;
tmp2 = Object;
*(tmp1) = tmp2;
x = tmp1;
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c = tmp4;
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PopParams 8 ;
```

Copy Propagation

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c = tmp4;
tmp5 = tmp4;
tmp6 = tmp2;
tmp7 = *(tmp2);
PushParam tmp4;
PushParam tmp1;
ACall tmp7;
PopParams 8 ;
```

Copy Propagation

If we have a variable assignment

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{v}_2$$

then as long as $\mathbf{v_1}$ and $\mathbf{v_2}$ are not reassigned, we can rewrite expressions of the form

$$a = ... v_1 ...$$

as

$$a = ... v_2 ...$$

provided that such a rewrite is legal.

• This will help immensely later on, as you'll see.

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

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

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tmp0 = 4 ;
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a = 4;
c = a + b;
x.fn(a + b);
```

```
tmp0 = 4 ;
PushParam tmp0;
tmp1 = LCall Alloc;
PopParams 4;
tmp2 = Object;
*(tmp1) = tmp2;
a = 4;
tmp4 = tmp0 + b;
c = tmp4;
tmp5 = tmp4;
tmp6 = tmp2;
tmp7 = *(tmp2);
PushParam tmp4;
PushParam tmp1;
ACall tmp7;
PopParams 8 ;
```

```
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PushParam tmp4;
PushParam tmp1;
ACall tmp7;
PopParams 8;
```

- 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.

- 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;
```

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

Common Subexpression Elimination

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

Common Subexpression Elimination

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

```
b = a * a;

c = b;

d = b + c;

e = b + b;
```

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

Copy Propagation

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

Copy Propagation

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

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

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

Common Subexpression Elimination (Again)

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

Common Subexpression Elimination (Again)

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

Other Types of Local Optimization

Arithmetic Simplification

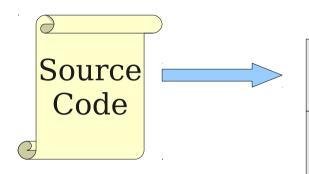
- Replace "hard" operations with easier ones.
- e.g. rewrite x = 4 * a; as x = a << 2;

Constant Folding

- Evaluate expressions at compile-time if they have a constant value.
- e.g. rewrite x = 4 * 5; as x = 20;.

Register Allocation

Where We Are



Lexical Analysis

Syntax Analysis

Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

IR Optimization

Code Generation

Optimization



Machine Code

Code Generation at a Glance

- At this point, we have optimized IR code that needs to be converted into the target language (e.g. assembly, machine code).
- Goal of this stage:
 - Choose the appropriate machine instructions for each IR instruction.
 - Divvy up finite machine resources (registers, caches, etc.)
 - Implement low-level details of the runtime environment.
- Machine-specific optimizations are often done here, though some are treated as part of a final optimization phase.

Registers

- Most machines have a set of registers, dedicated memory locations that
 - can be accessed quickly,
 - can have computations performed on them, and
 - exist in small quantity.
- 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

- In TAC, there are an unlimited number of variables.
- On a physical machine there are a small number of registers:
 - x86 has four general-purpose registers and a number of specialized registers.
 - MIPS has twenty-four general-purpose registers and eight special-purpose registers.
- Register allocation is the process of assigning variables to registers and managing data transfer in and out of registers.

Challenges in Register Allocation

Registers are scarce.

- Often substantially more IR variables than registers.
- Need to find a way to reuse registers whenever possible.

Registers are complicated.

- x86: Each register made of several smaller registers; can't use a register and its constituent registers at the same time.
- x86: Certain instructions must store their results in specific registers; can't store values there if you want to use those instructions.
- MIPS: Some registers reserved for the assembler or operating system.
- Most architectures: Some registers must be preserved across function calls.

Building a Better Allocator

- **Goal**: Try to hold as many variables in registers as possible.
 - Reduces memory reads/writes.
 - Reduces total memory usage.
- We will need to address these questions:
 - Which registers do we put variables in?
 - What do we do when we run out of registers?

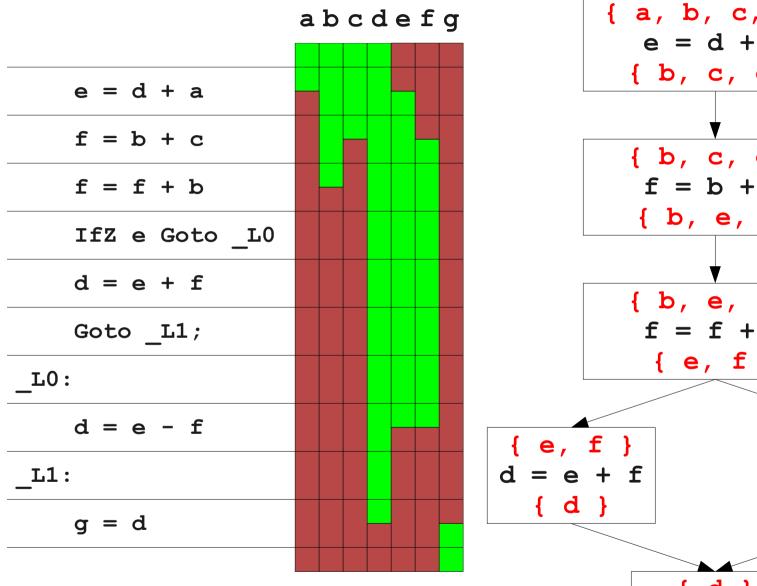
Live Ranges and Live Intervals

- Recall: A variable is live at a particular program point if its value may be read later before it is written.
 - Can find this using global liveness analysis.
- The **live range** for a variable is the set of program points at which that variable is live.
- The **live interval** for a variable is the smallest subrange of the IR code containing all a variable's live ranges.
 - A property of the IR code, not the CFG.
 - Less precise than live ranges, but simpler to work with.

Live Ranges and Live Intervals

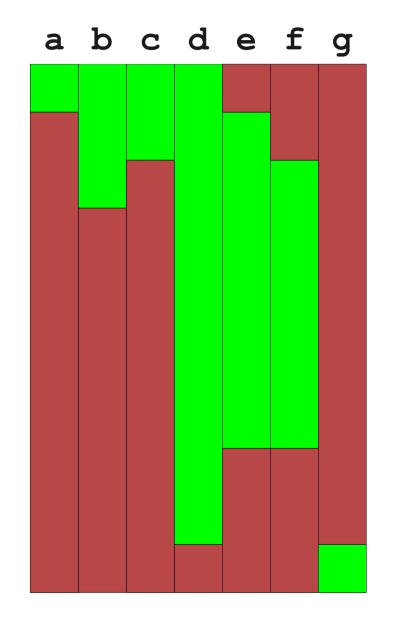
```
e = d + a
    f = b + c
    f = f + b
    IfZ e Goto _L0
    d = e + f
    Goto L1;
LO:
   d = e - f
L1:
    g = d
```

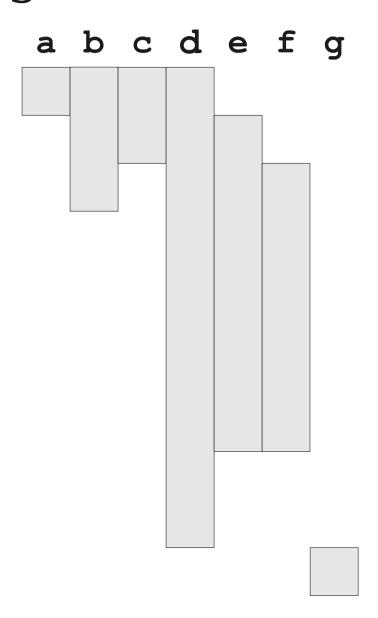
Live Ranges and Live Intervals

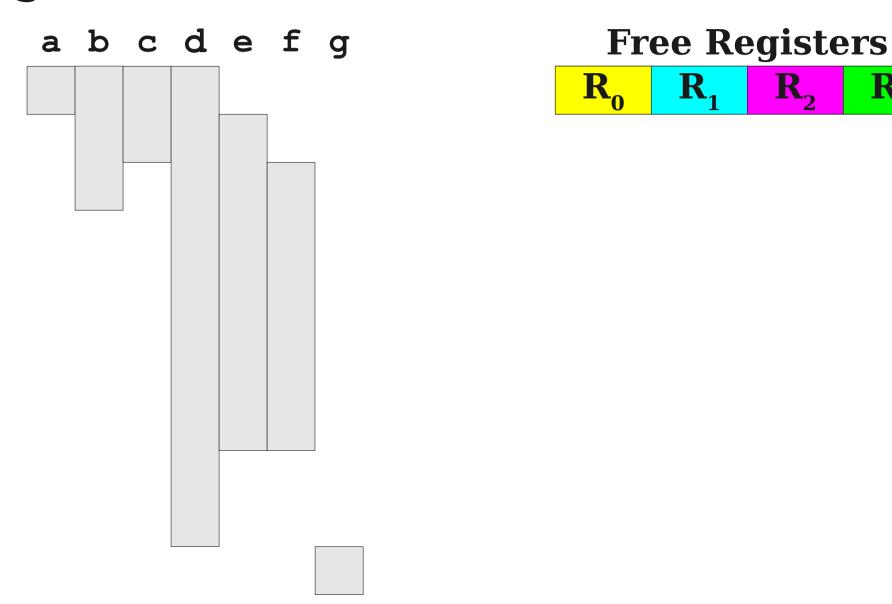


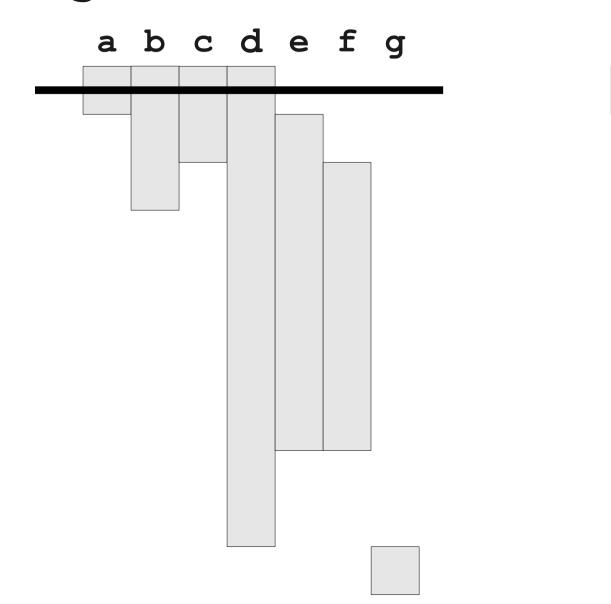
```
{ a, b, c, d }
  e = d + a
 { b, c, e }
 { b, c, e }
  f = b + c
  { b, e, f}
 { b, e, f }
  f = f + b
   { e, f }
              { d }
```

- Given the live intervals for all the variables in the program, we can allocate registers using a simple greedy algorithm.
- Idea: Track which registers are free at each point.
- When a live interval begins, give that variable a free register.
- When a live interval ends, the register is once again free.
- We can't always fit everything into a register; we'll see what do to in a minute.

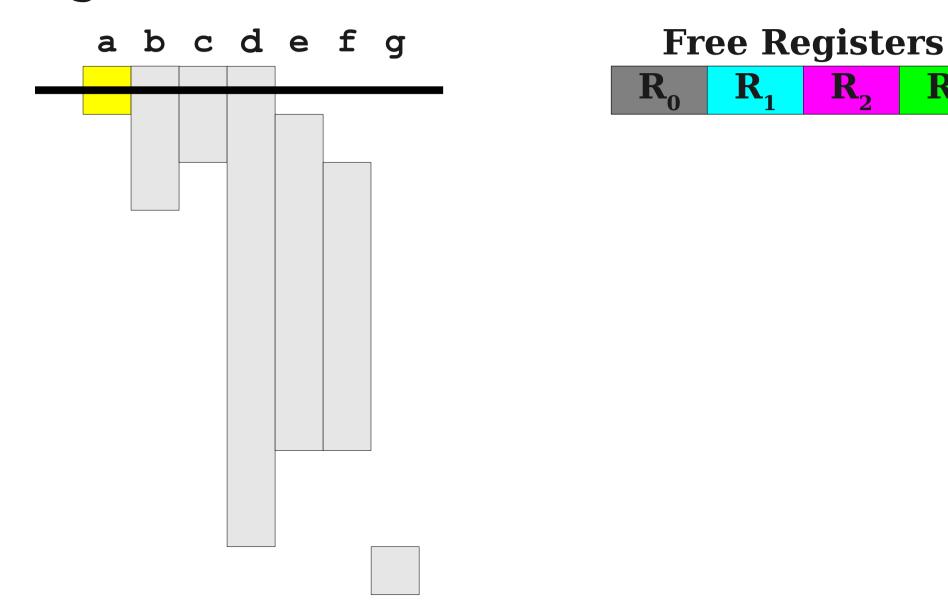


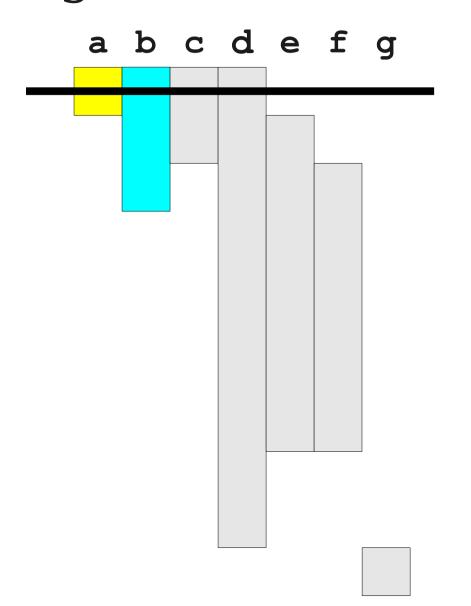


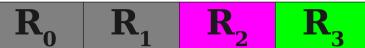


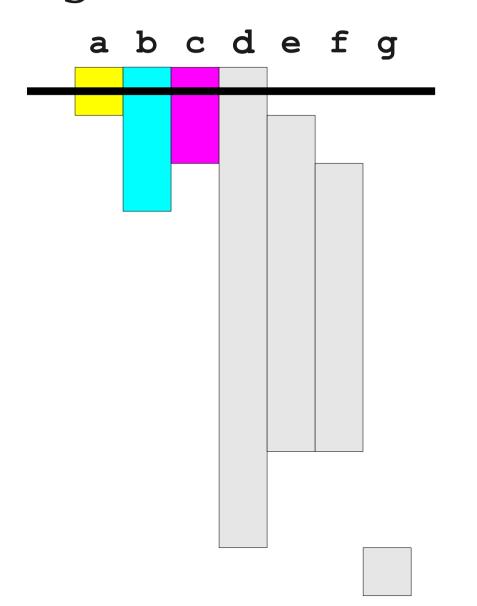




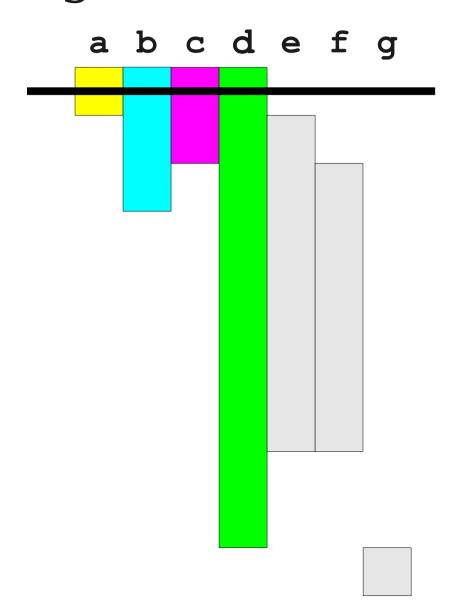




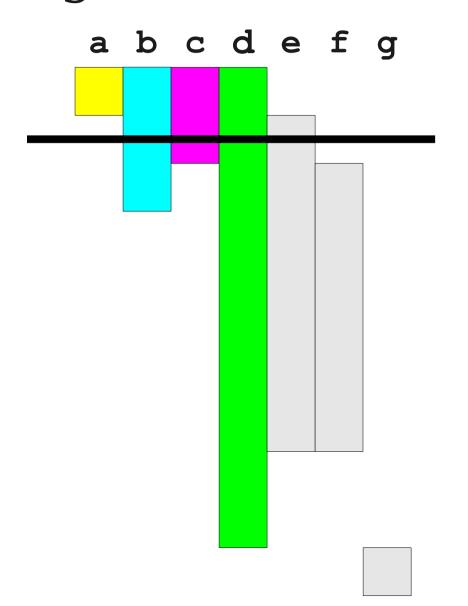




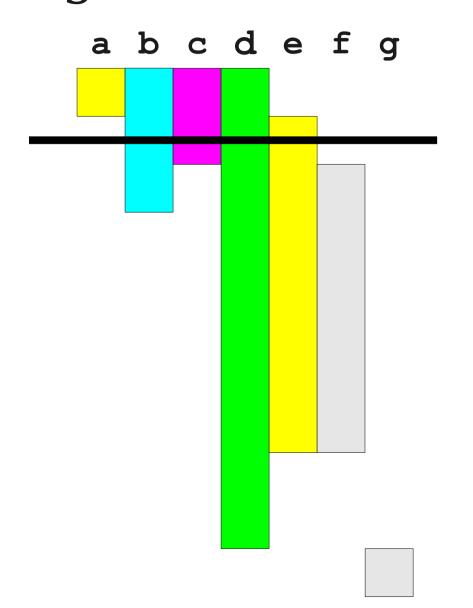




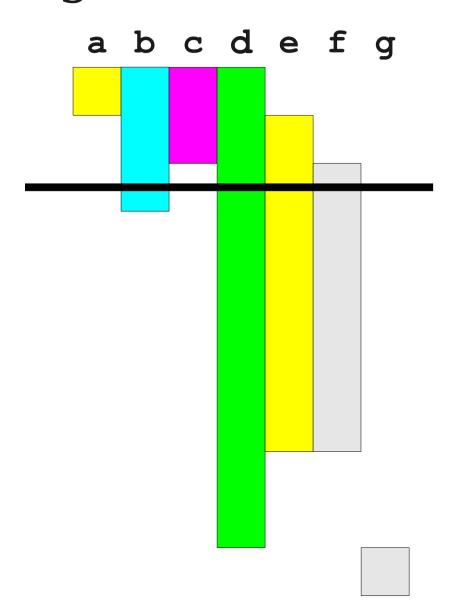
\mathbf{R}_{0}	R ₄	\mathbf{R}_{2}	\mathbf{R}_{2}
0		 2	 2



R	\mathbf{R}_{1}	R ₂	R ₂
U			

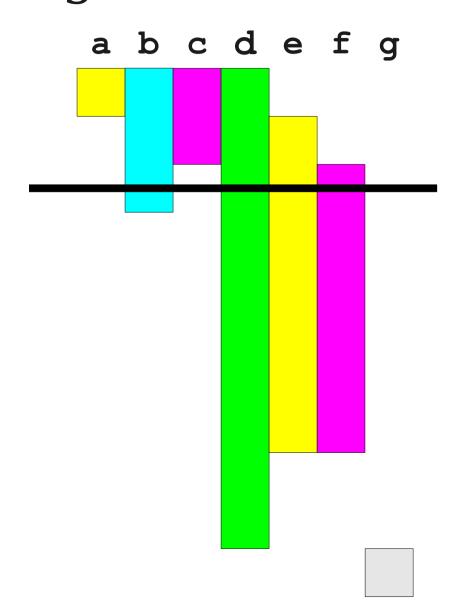


\mathbf{R}_{0}	\mathbf{R}_{1}	\mathbf{R}_{2}	\mathbf{R}_{2}
0		2	2

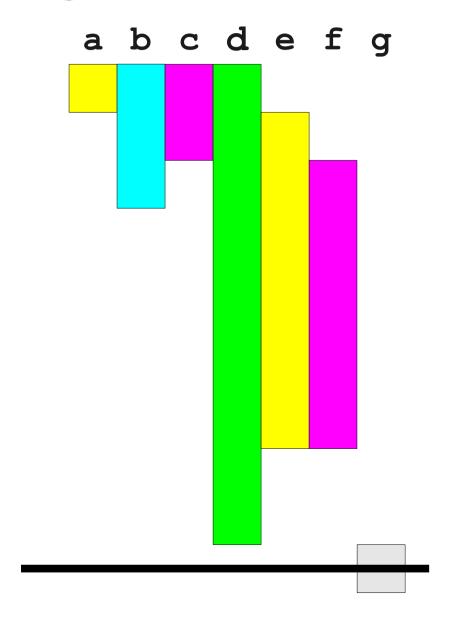


Free Registers

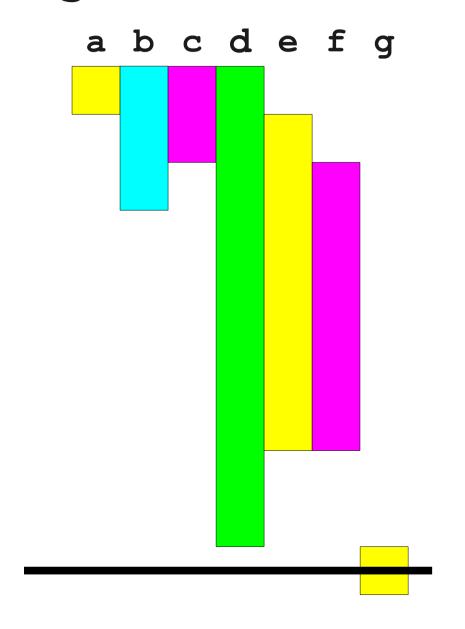
 $\mathbf{R_0} \quad \mathbf{R_1} \quad \mathbf{R_2} \quad \mathbf{R_2}$



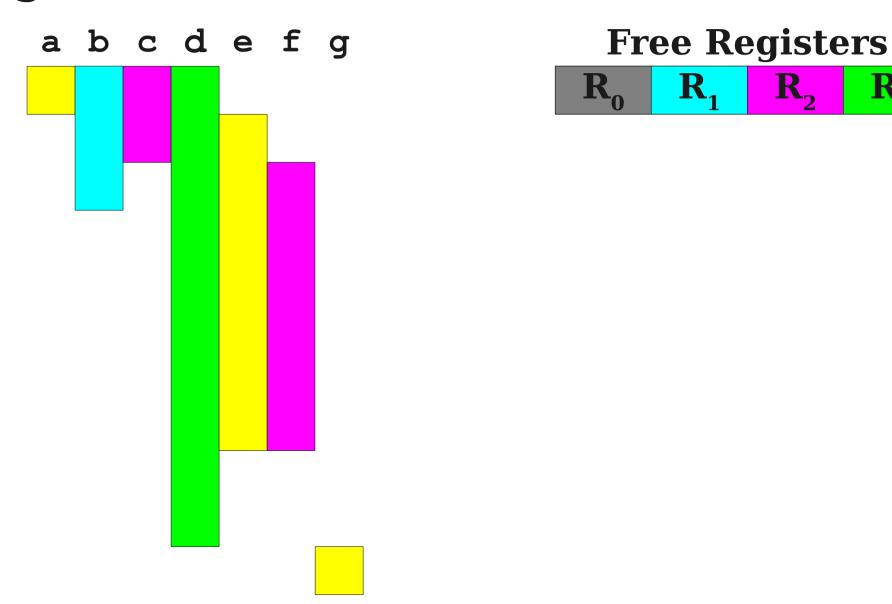
$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{o}}$	R,	\mathbf{R}_{2}	\mathbf{R}_{2}
0	1	 2	 2



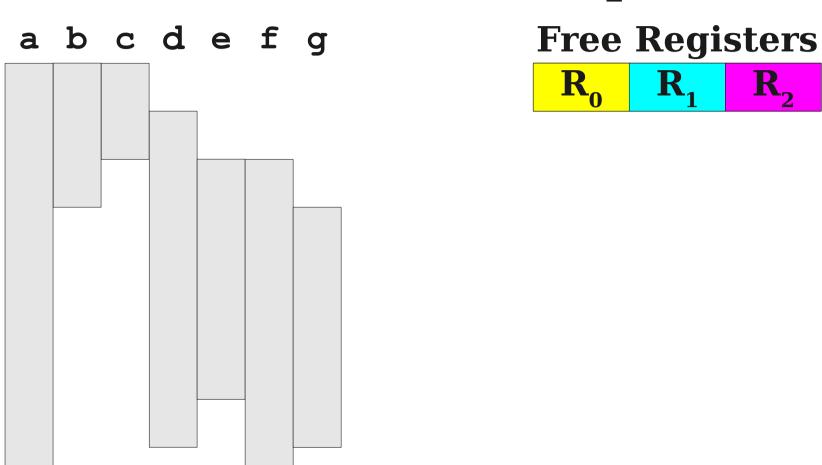






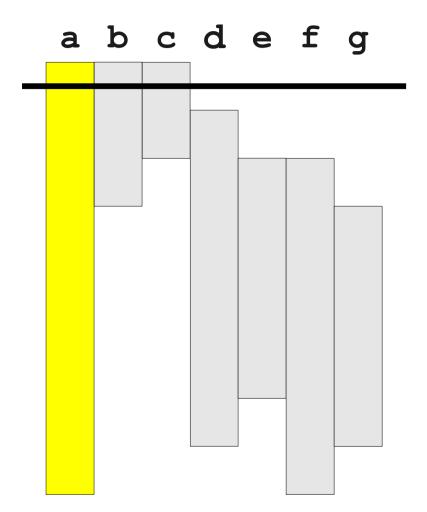


a b c d e f g

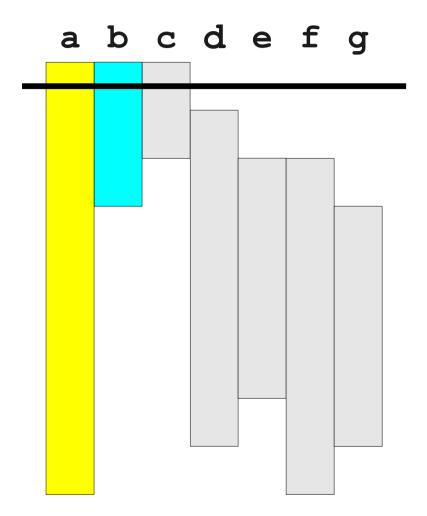


a b c d e f g

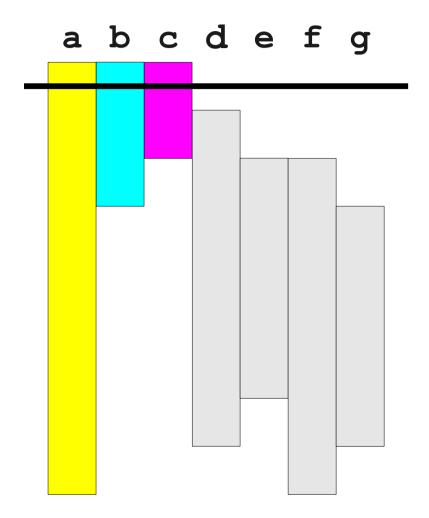




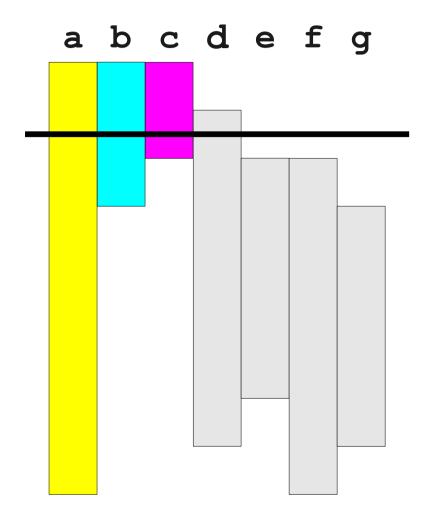


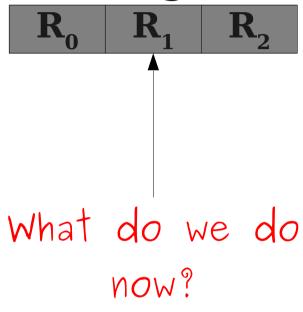






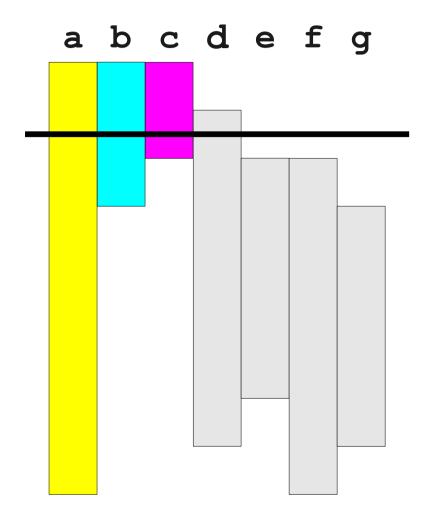
\mathbf{R}_{0}	\mathbf{R}_{1}	R
U	1	

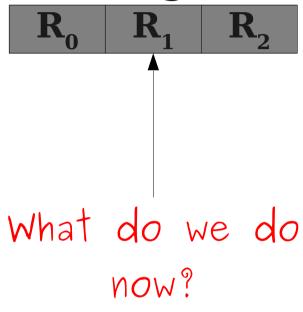


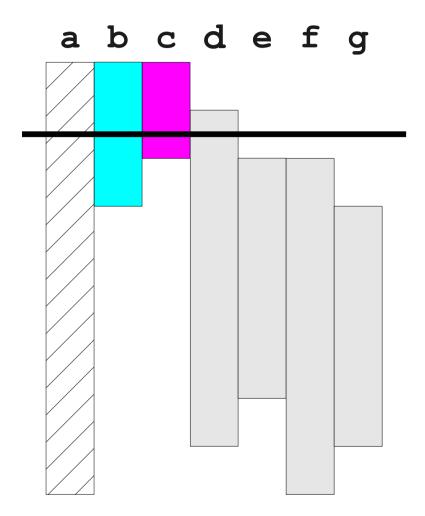


Register Spilling

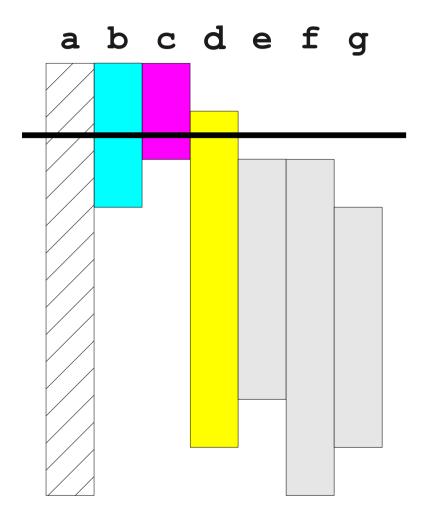
- If a register cannot be found for a variable *v*, we may need to **spill** a variable.
- When a variable is spilled, it is stored in memory rather than a register.
- When we need a register for the spilled variable:
 - Evict some existing register to memory.
 - Load the variable into the register.
 - When done, write the register back to memory and reload the register with its original value.
- Spilling is slow, but sometimes necessary.



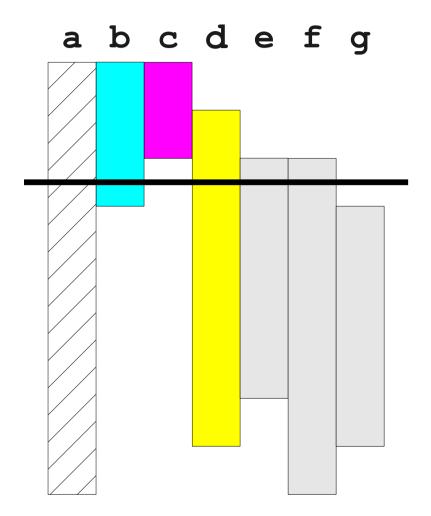




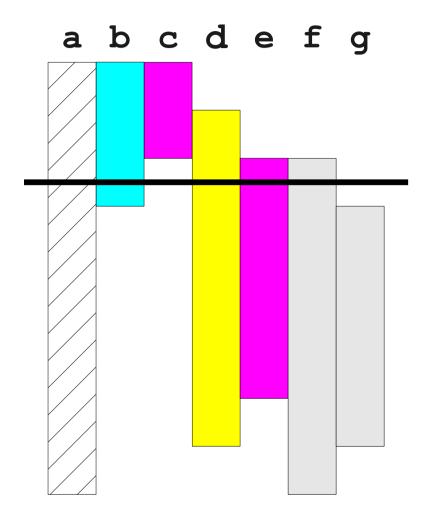




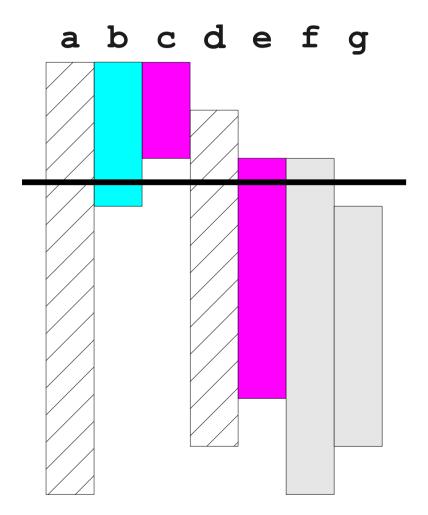
R	\mathbf{R}_{1}	\mathbf{R}_{2}
U	1	4



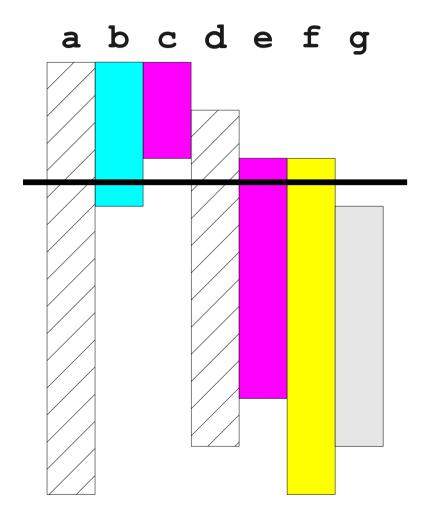




\mathbf{R}_{0}	\mathbf{R}_{1}	R
U	1	<u> </u>

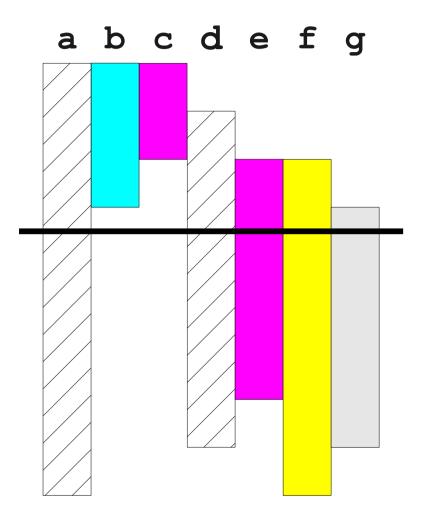






\mathbf{R}_{0}	\mathbf{R}_{1}	\mathbf{R}_{2}
U	1	4

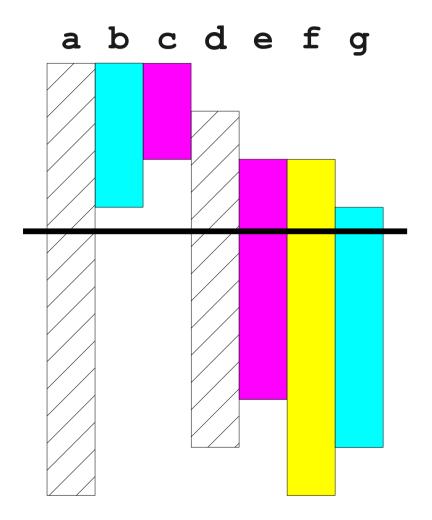
Another Example



Free Registers

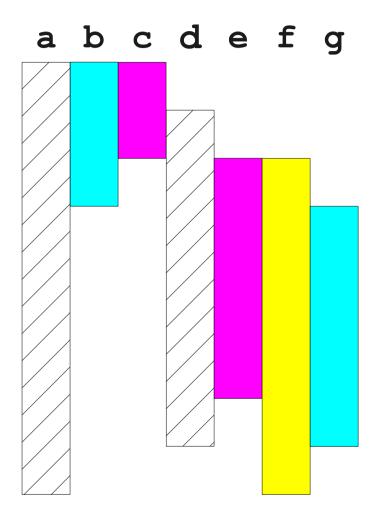


Another Example



Free Registers

Another Example

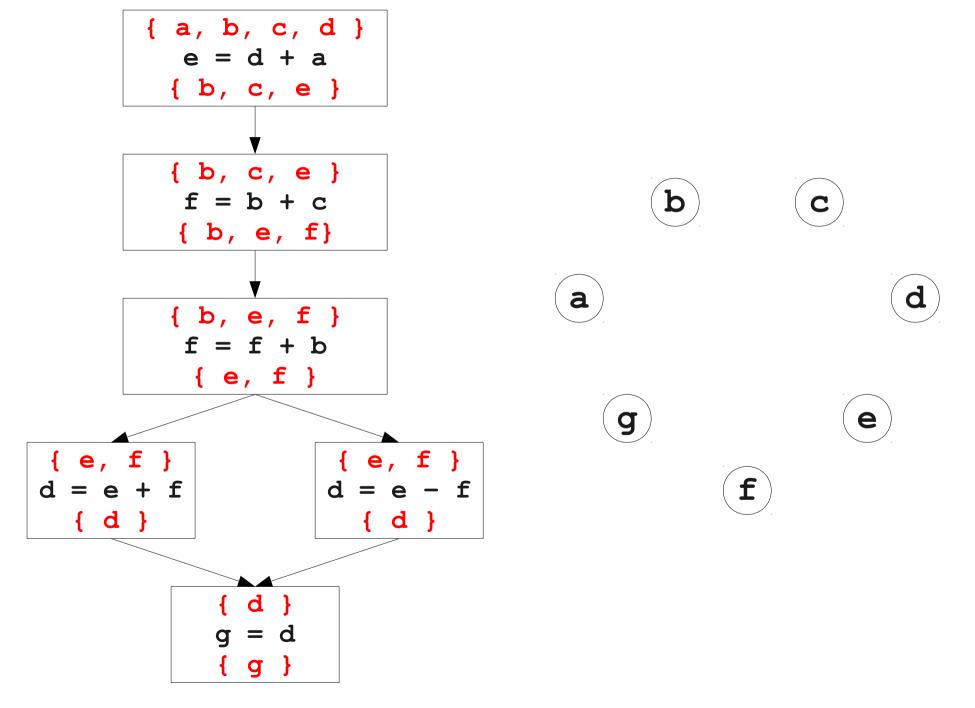


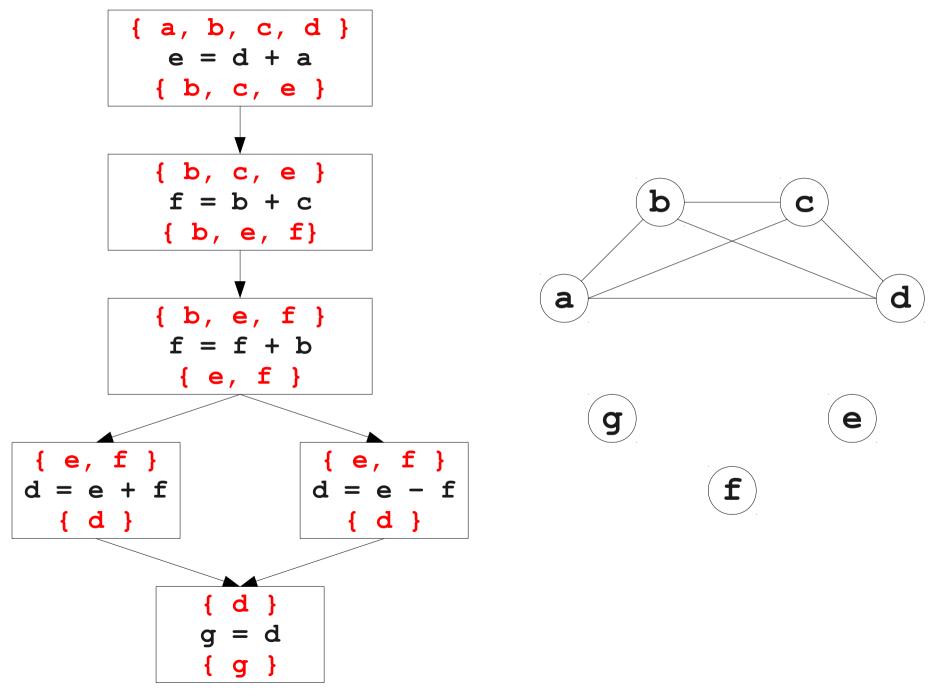
Free Registers

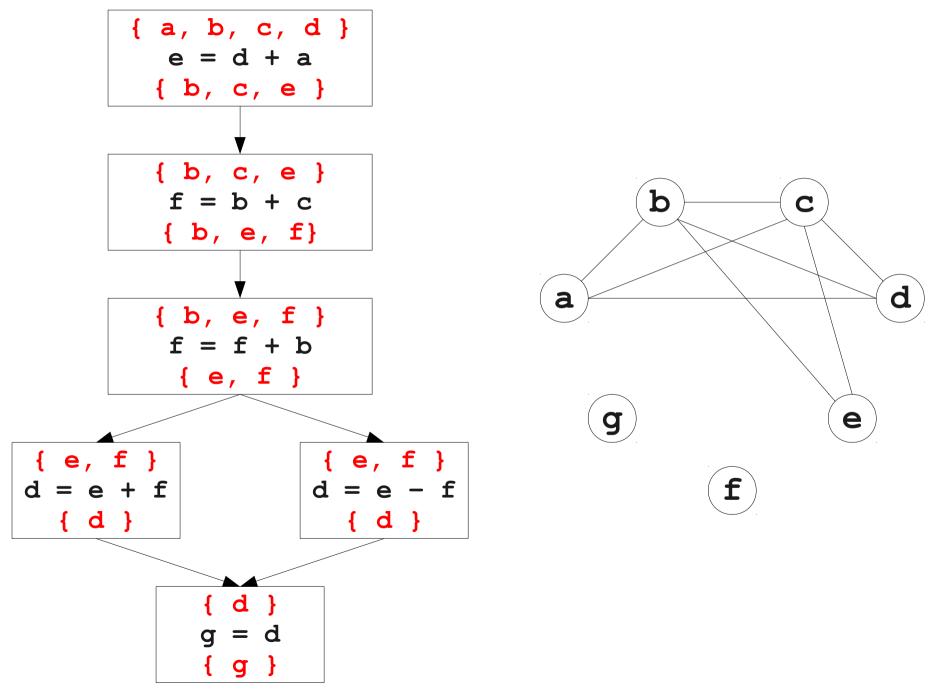
Б	-	D
$\mathbf{R_0}$	\mathbf{R}_{1}	\mathbf{R}_2

Linear Scan Register Allocation

- This algorithm is called **linear scan register allocation** and is a comparatively new algorithm.
- Advantages:
 - Very efficient (after computing live intervals, runs in linear time)
 - Produces good code in many instances.
 - Allocation step works in one pass; can generate code during iteration.
 - Often used in JIT compilers like Java HotSpot.
- Disadvantages:
 - Imprecise due to use of live intervals rather than live ranges.
 - Other techniques known to be superior in many cases.

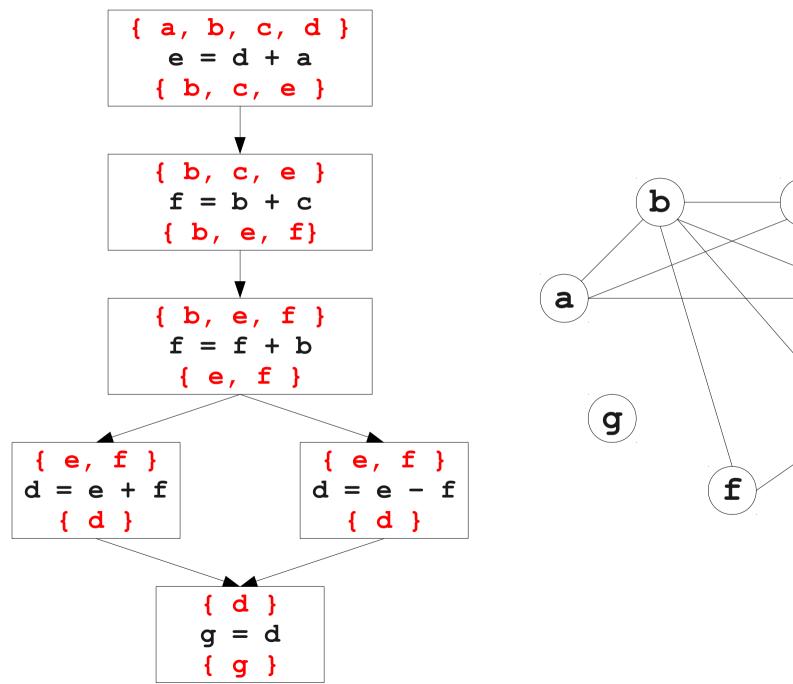






d

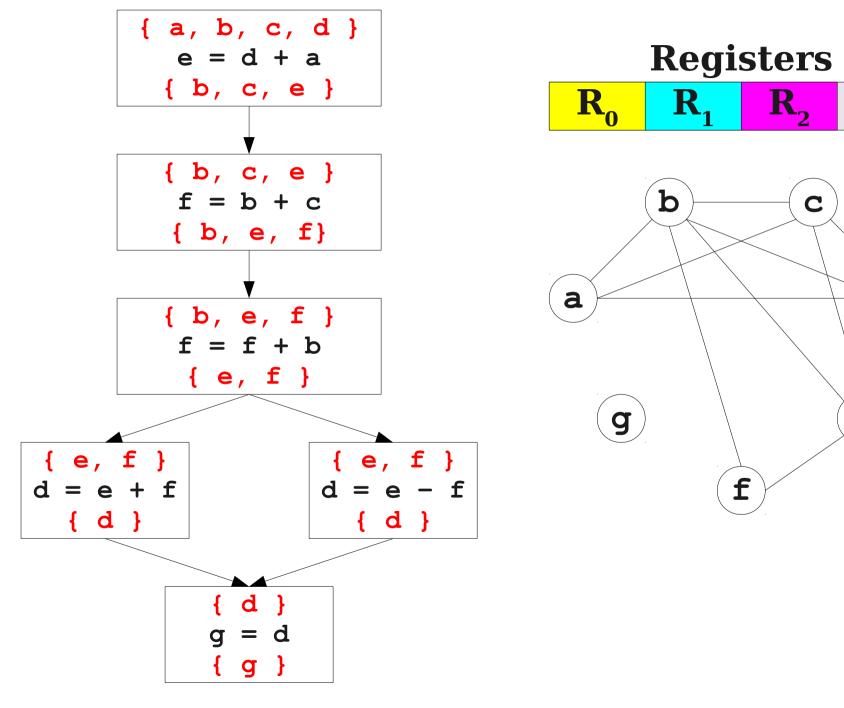
e

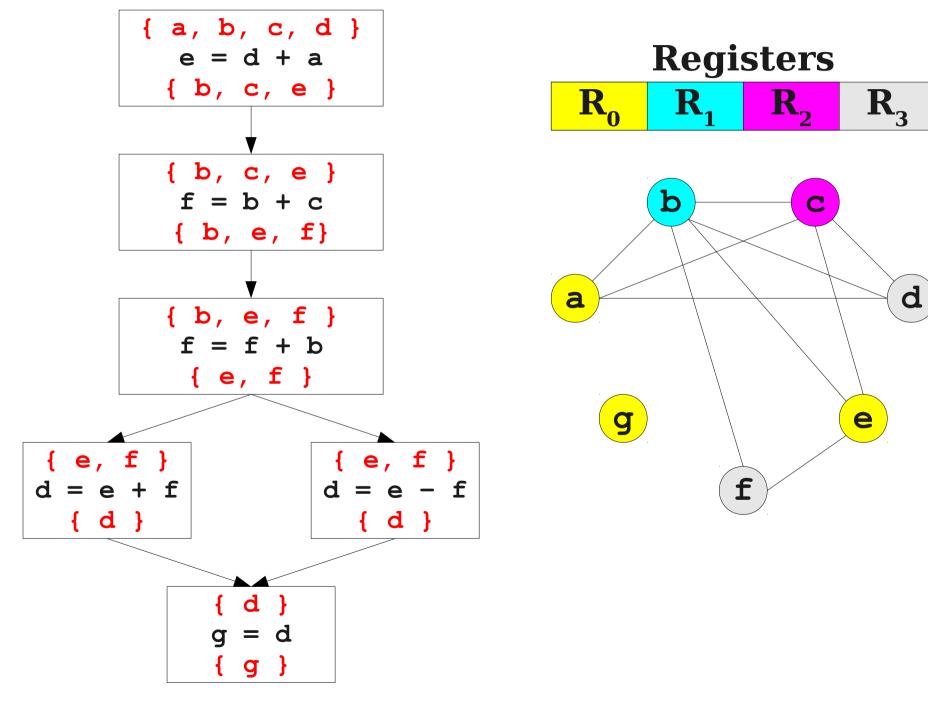


 \mathbf{R}_{3}

d

e





The Register Interference Graph

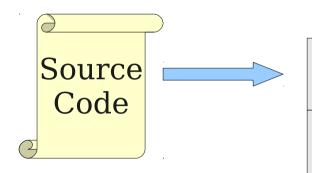
- The register interference graph (RIG) of a control-flow graph is an undirected graph where
 - Each node is a variable.
 - There is an edge between two variables that are live at the same program point.
- Perform register allocation by assigning each variable a different register from all of its neighbors.
- There's just one catch...

The One Catch

- This problem is equivalent to graphcoloring, which is NP-hard if there are at least three registers.
- No good polynomial-time algorithms (or even good approximations!) are known for this problem.
- We have to be content with a heuristic that is good enough for RIGs that arise in practice.

Code Optimization

Where We Are



Lexical Analysis

Syntax Analysis

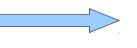
Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

IR Optimization

Code Generation

Optimization



Machine Code

Final Code Optimization

- **Goal**: Optimize generated code by exploiting machine-dependent properties not visible at the IR level.
- Critical step in most compilers, but often very messy:
 - Techniques developed for one machine may be completely useless on another.
 - Techniques developed for one language may be completely useless with another.

Optimizations for Pipelining

```
add $t2, $t0, $t1 # $t2 = $t0 + $t1
add $t5, $t3, $t4 # $t5 = $t3 + $t4
add $t8, $t6, $t7 # $t8 = $t6 + $t7
```

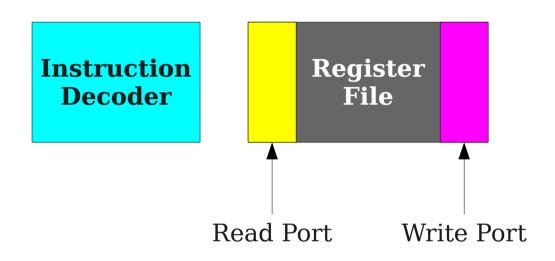
Instruction Decoder

```
add $t2, $t0, $t1  # $t2 = $t0 + $t1
add $t5, $t3, $t4  # $t5 = $t3 + $t4
add $t8, $t6, $t7  # $t8 = $t6 + $t7
```

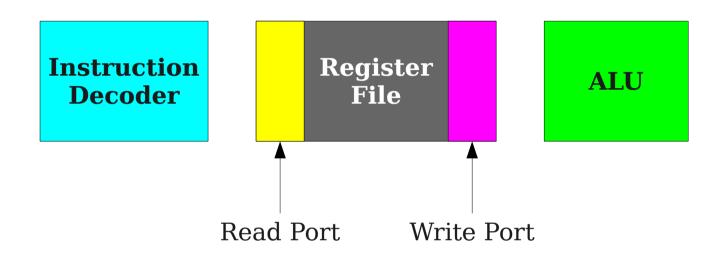
Instruction Decoder

Register File

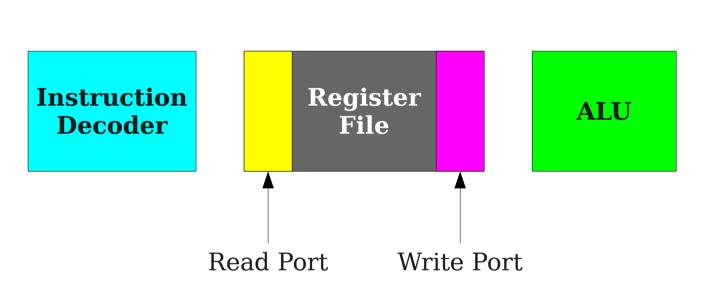
```
add $t2, $t0, $t1 # $t2 = $t0 + $t1
add $t5, $t3, $t4 # $t5 = $t3 + $t4
add $t8, $t6, $t7 # $t8 = $t6 + $t7
```



```
add $t2, $t0, $t1 # $t2 = $t0 + $t1
add $t5, $t3, $t4 # $t5 = $t3 + $t4
add $t8, $t6, $t7 # $t8 = $t6 + $t7
```

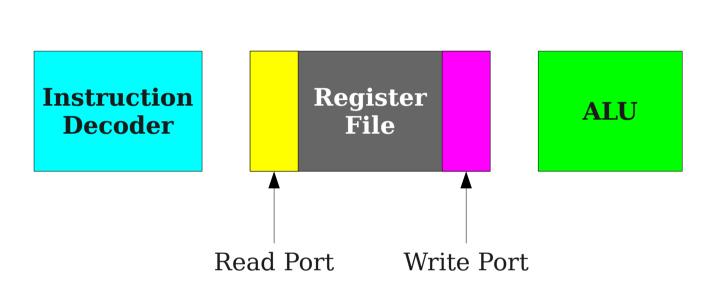


```
add $t2, $t0, $t1 # $t2 = $t0 + $t1
add $t5, $t3, $t4 # $t5 = $t3 + $t4
add $t8, $t6, $t7 # $t8 = $t6 + $t7
```



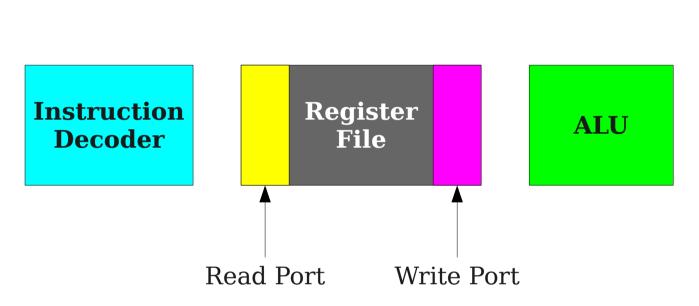
add	\$t2,	\$t0,	\$t1	# \$t2 = \$t0 + \$t1
add	\$t5,	\$t3,	\$t4	# \$t5 = \$t3 + \$t4
add	\$t8,	\$t6,	\$t7	# \$t8 = \$t6 + \$t7

1/1/	ALC	TZAA

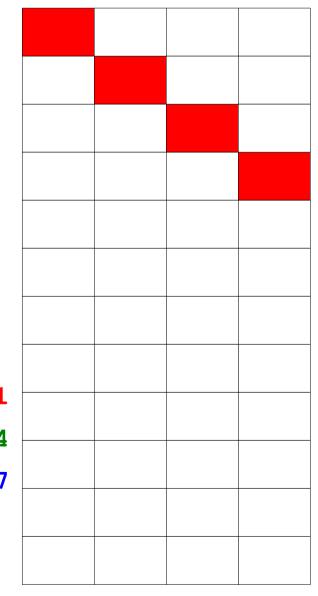


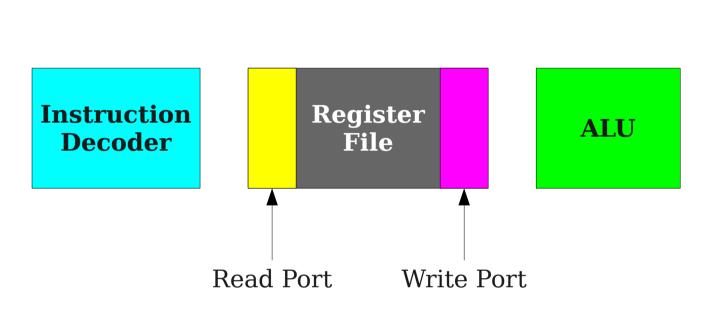
add	\$t2,	\$t0,	\$t1	#	\$t2	=	\$t0	+	\$t1
add	\$t5,	\$t3,	\$t4	#	\$t5	=	\$t3	+	\$t4
add	\$t8,	\$t6,	\$t7	#	\$t8	=	\$t6	+	\$t7

11	1/1/	1711

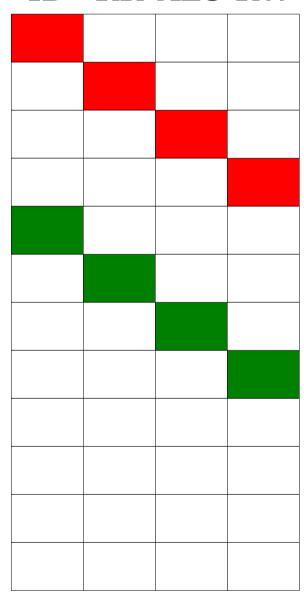


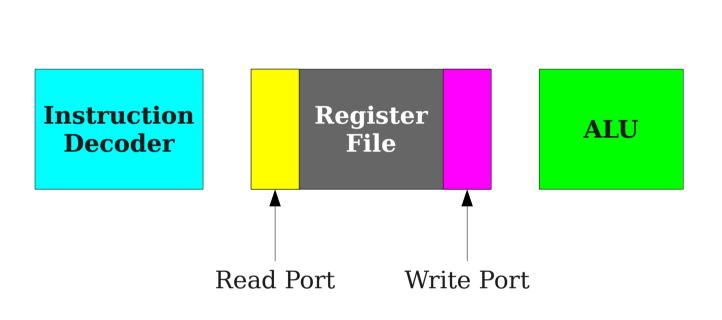




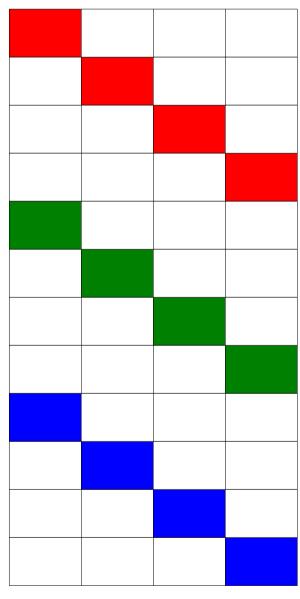


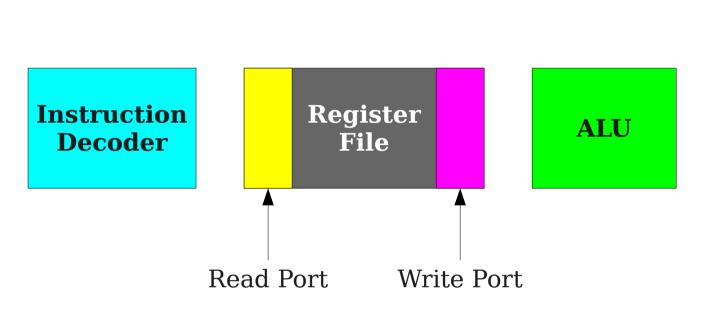




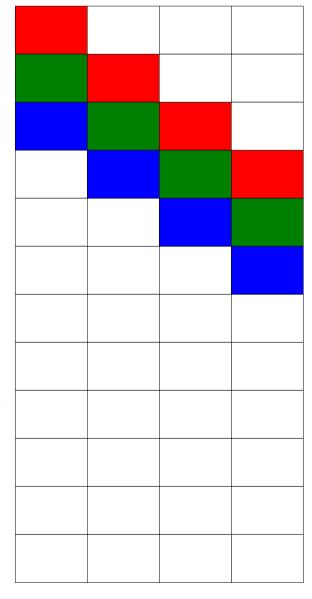


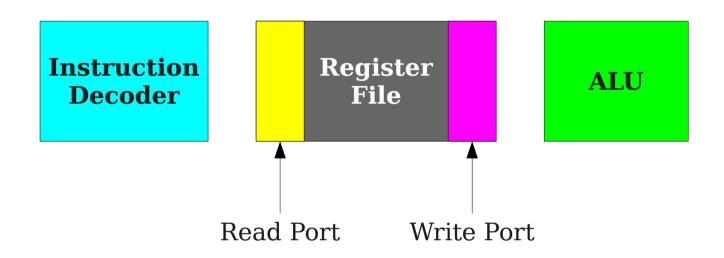


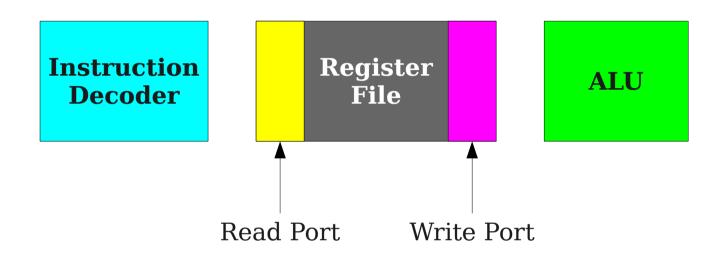




add	\$t2,	\$t0,	\$t1	#	\$t2	=	\$t0	+	\$t1
	•	\$t3,	•						
add	\$t8,	\$t6,	\$t7	#	\$t8	=	\$t6	+	\$t7

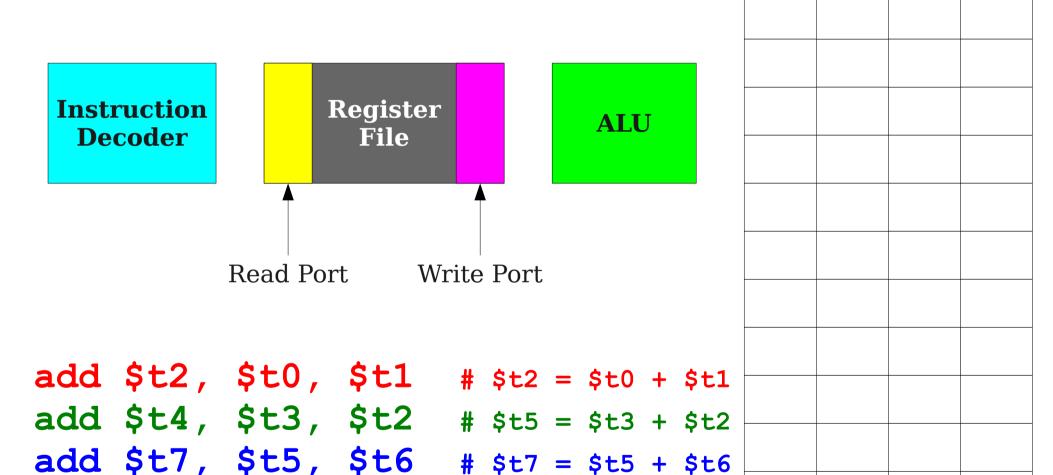






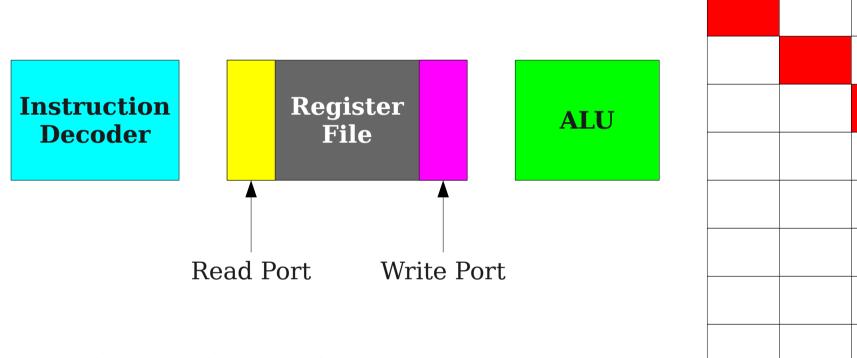
```
add $t2, $t0, $t1  # $t2 = $t0 + $t1
add $t4, $t3, $t2  # $t5 = $t3 + $t2
add $t7, $t5, $t6  # $t7 = $t5 + $t6
add $t0, $t0, $t7  # $t0 = $t0 + $t7
```

ID RR ALU RW



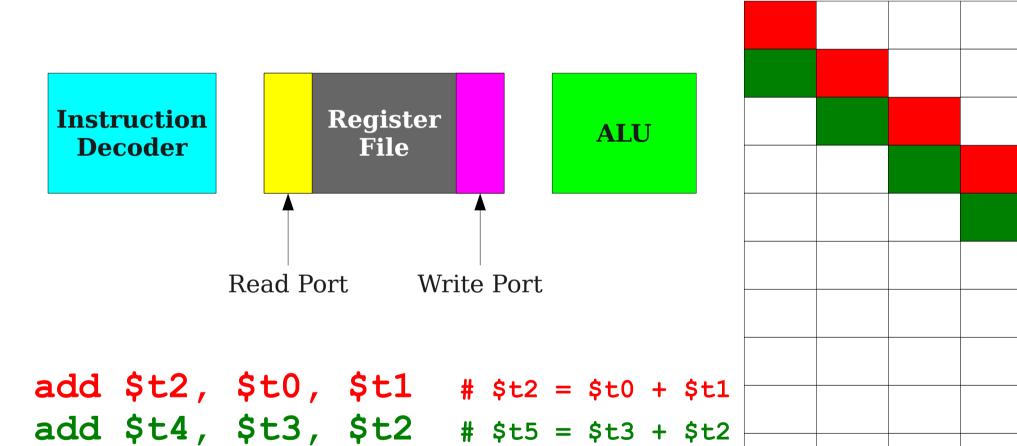
add \$t0, \$t0, \$t7 # \$t0 = \$t0 + \$t7

RR ALU RW



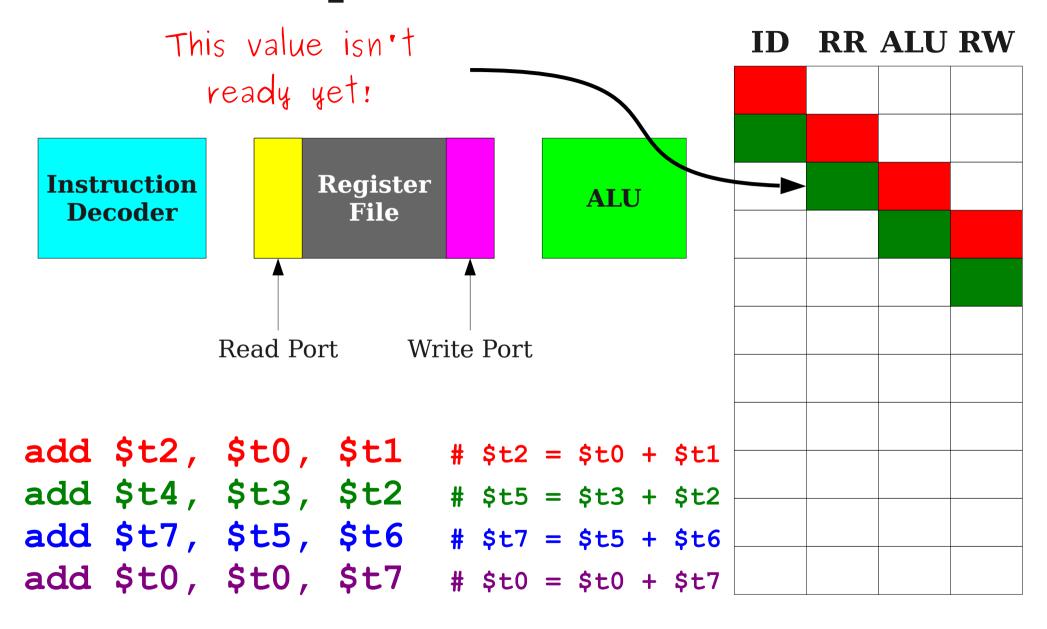
Deco	oder		File		ALU			
		Read Por	t Wri	ite Port				
	•	\$t0, \$t3,	•		= \$t0 = \$t3			
add \$	st7,	\$t5, \$t0,	\$t6	# \$t7	= \$t5 = \$t0	+ \$t6	5	

RR ALU RW

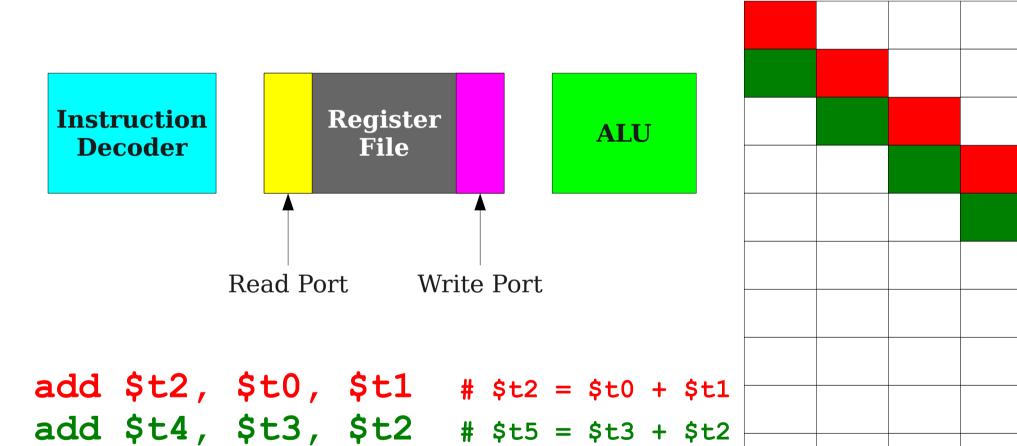


add \$t7, \$t5, \$t6 # \$t7 = \$t5 + \$t6

add \$t0, \$t0, \$t7 # \$t0 = \$t0 + \$t7

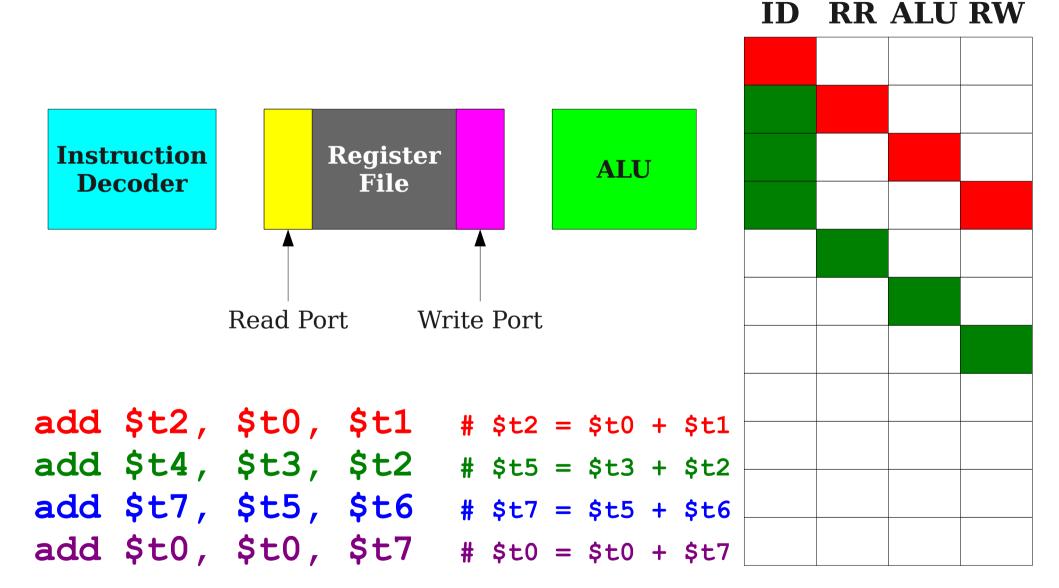


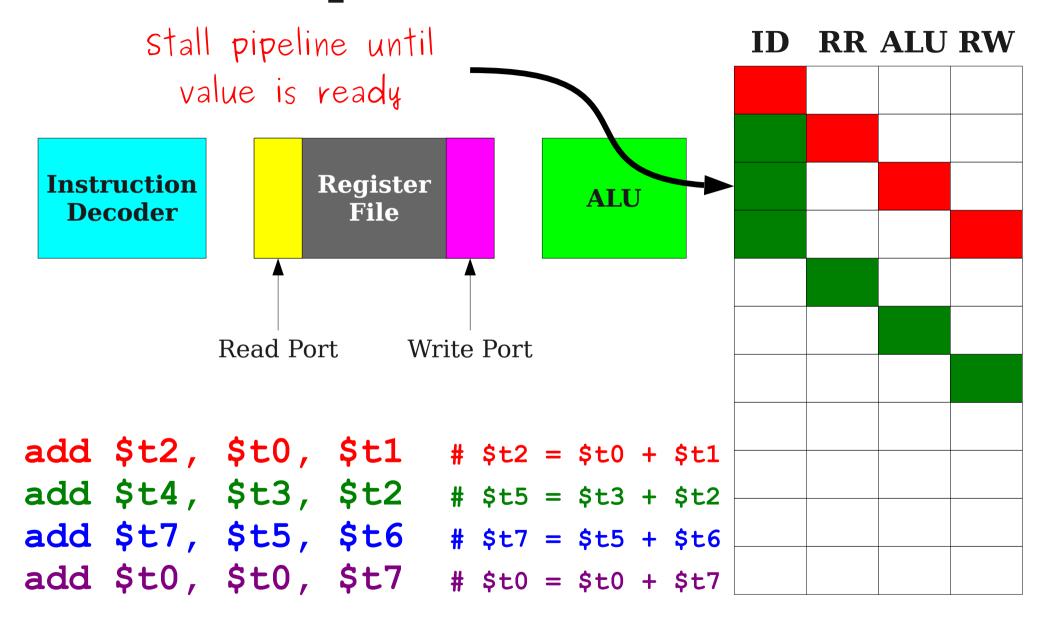
RR ALU RW

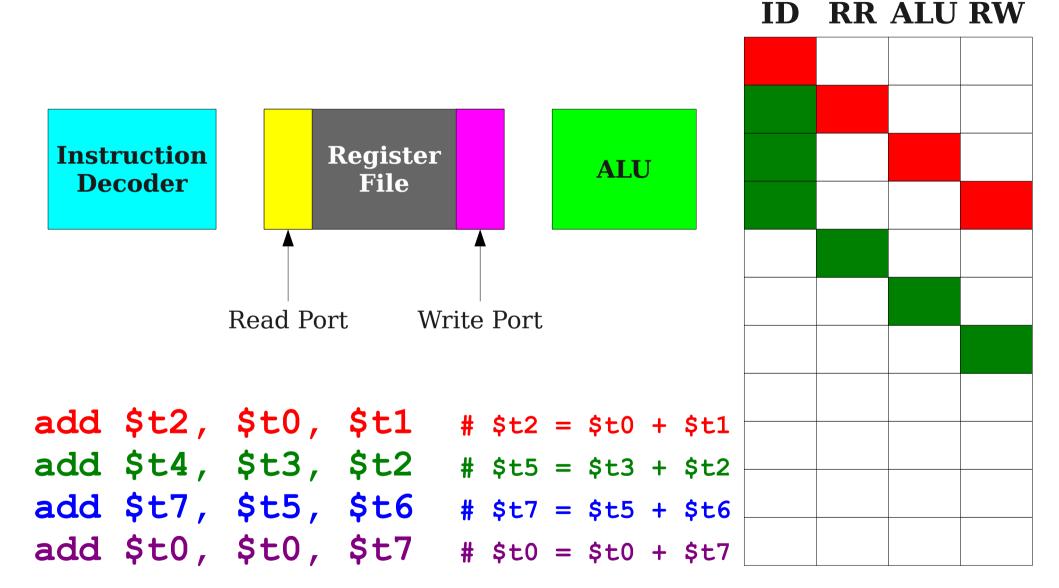


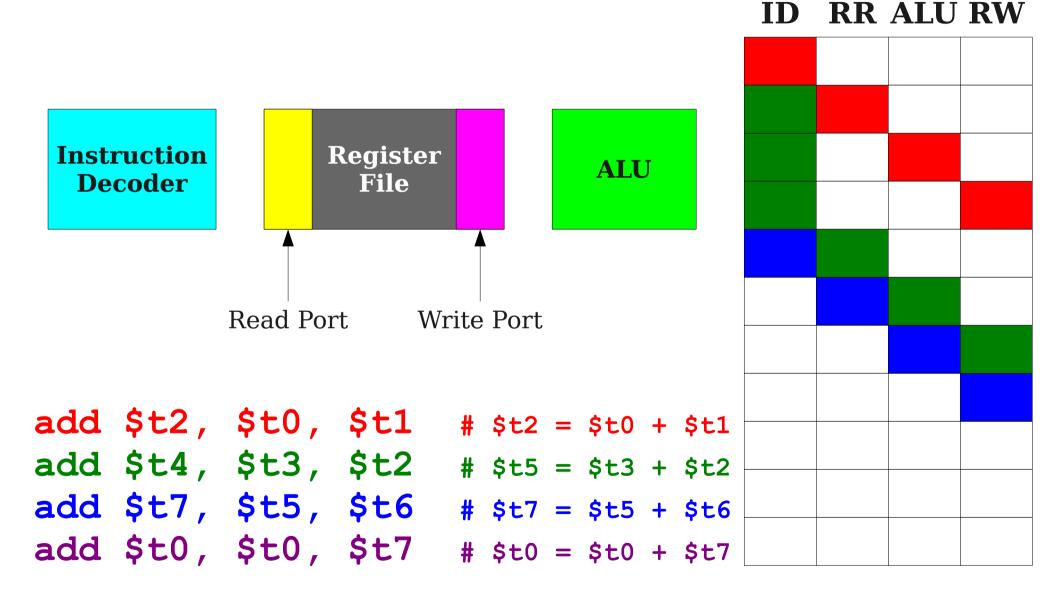
add \$t7, \$t5, \$t6 # \$t7 = \$t5 + \$t6

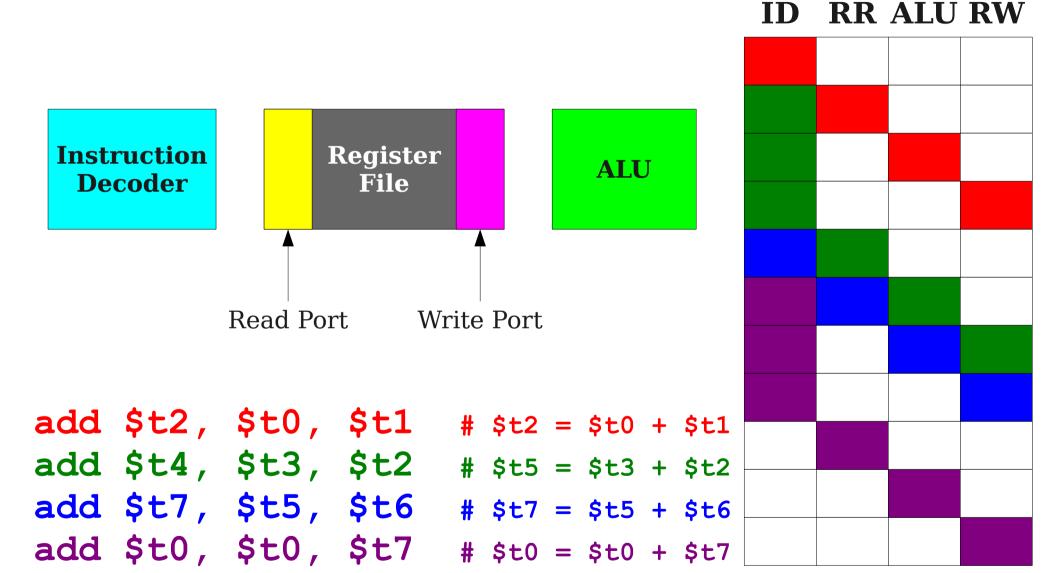
add \$t0, \$t0, \$t7 # \$t0 = \$t0 + \$t7



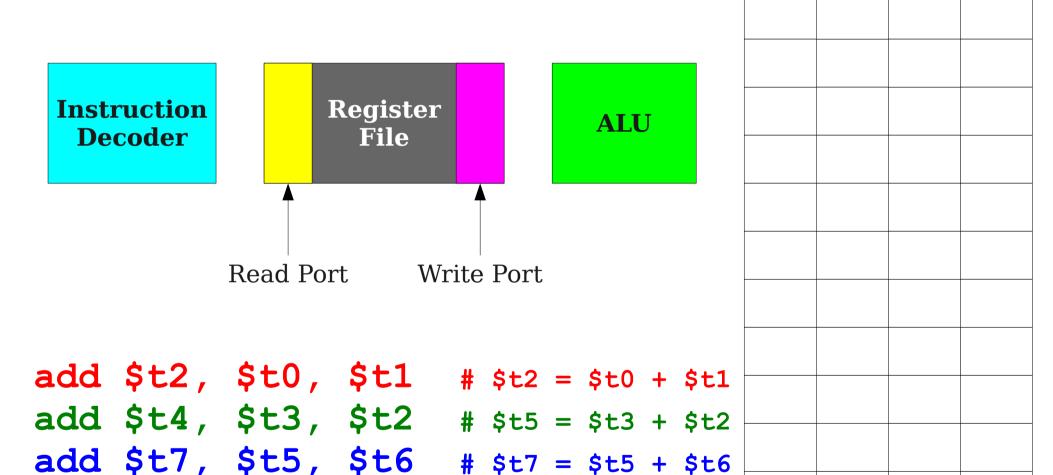






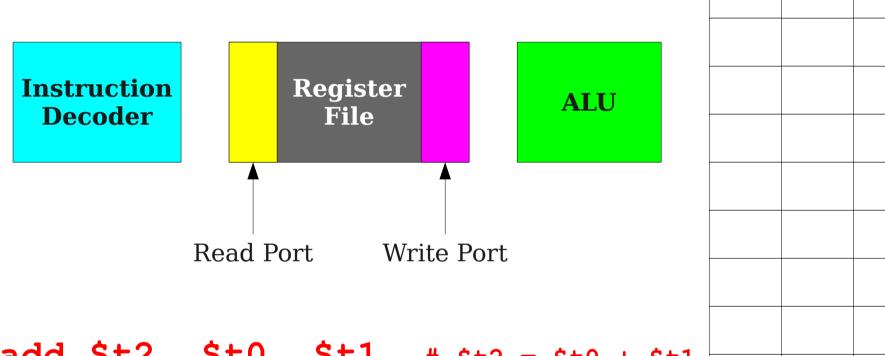


ID RR ALU RW

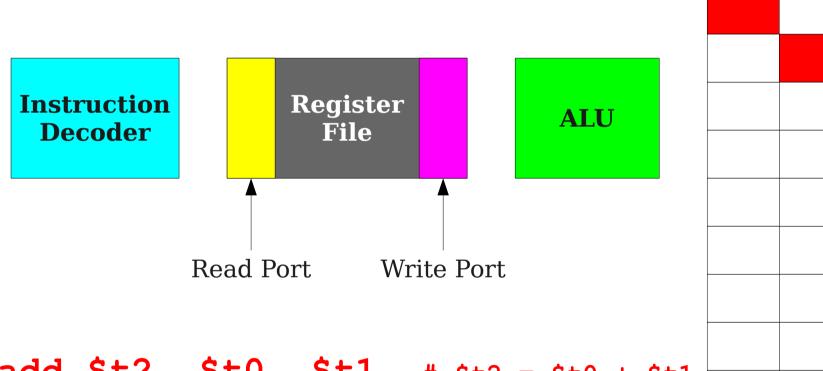


add \$t0, \$t0, \$t7 # \$t0 = \$t0 + \$t7

ID RR ALU RW



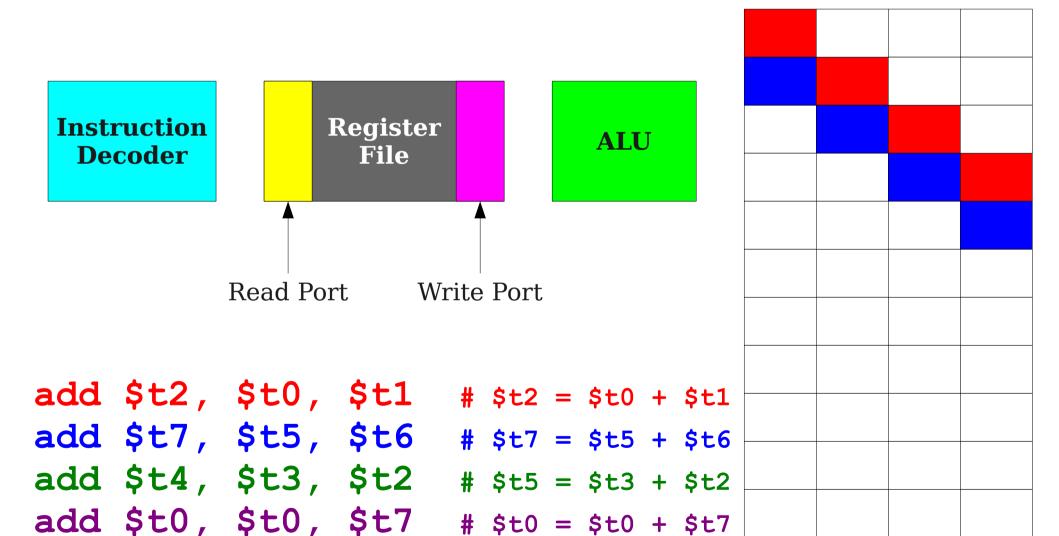
add	ŞτZ,	ŞEU,	ŞCΙ	#	\$t2	=	\$t0	+	\$t1
add	\$t7,	\$t5,	\$t6	#	\$t7	=	\$t5	+	\$t6
add	\$t4,	\$t3,	\$t2	#	\$t5	=	\$t3	+	\$t2
add	\$t0,	\$t0,	\$t7	#	\$t0	=	\$t0	+	\$t7

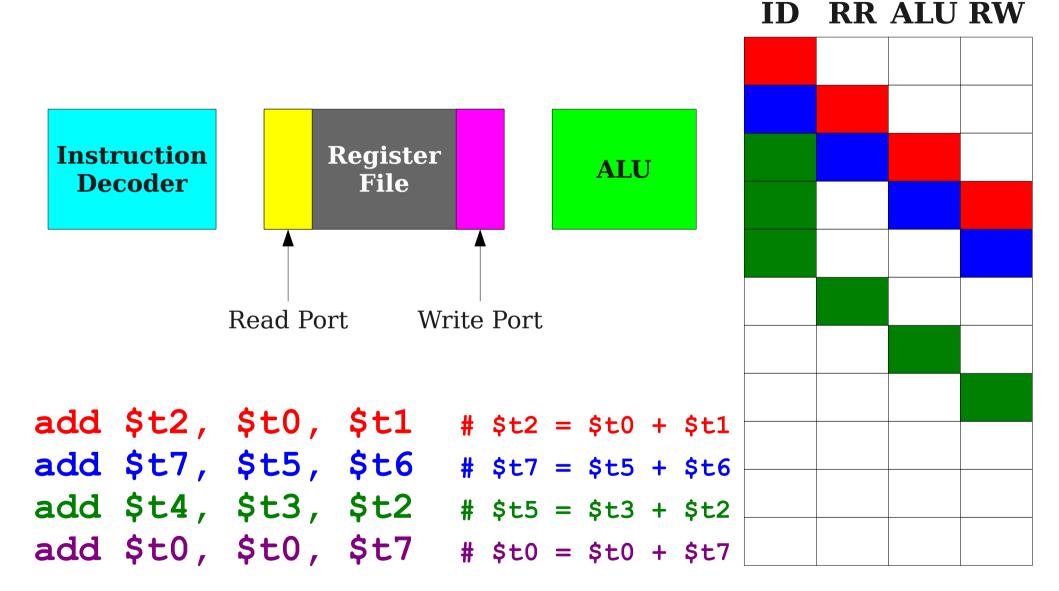


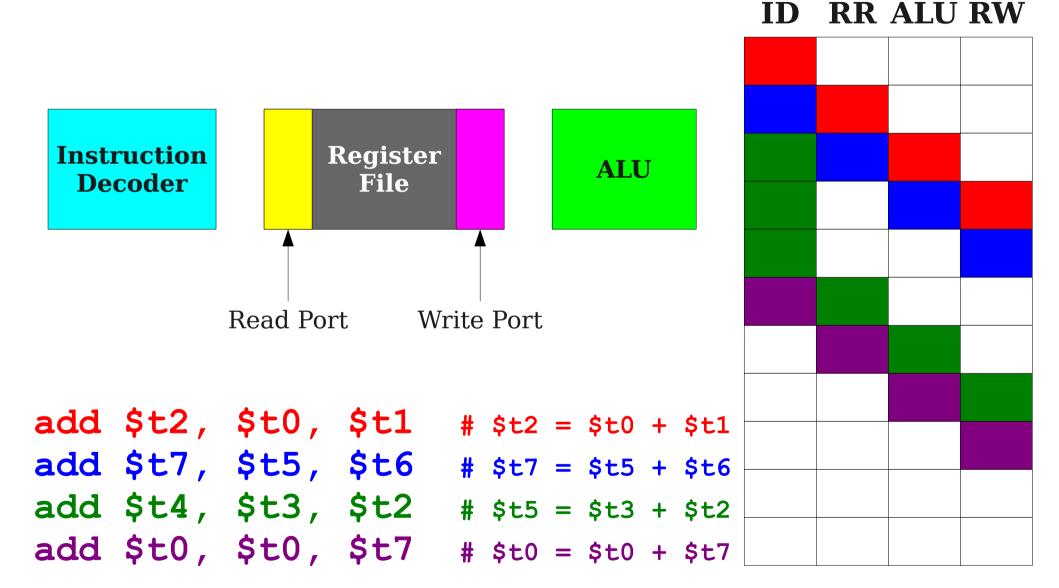
RR ALU RW

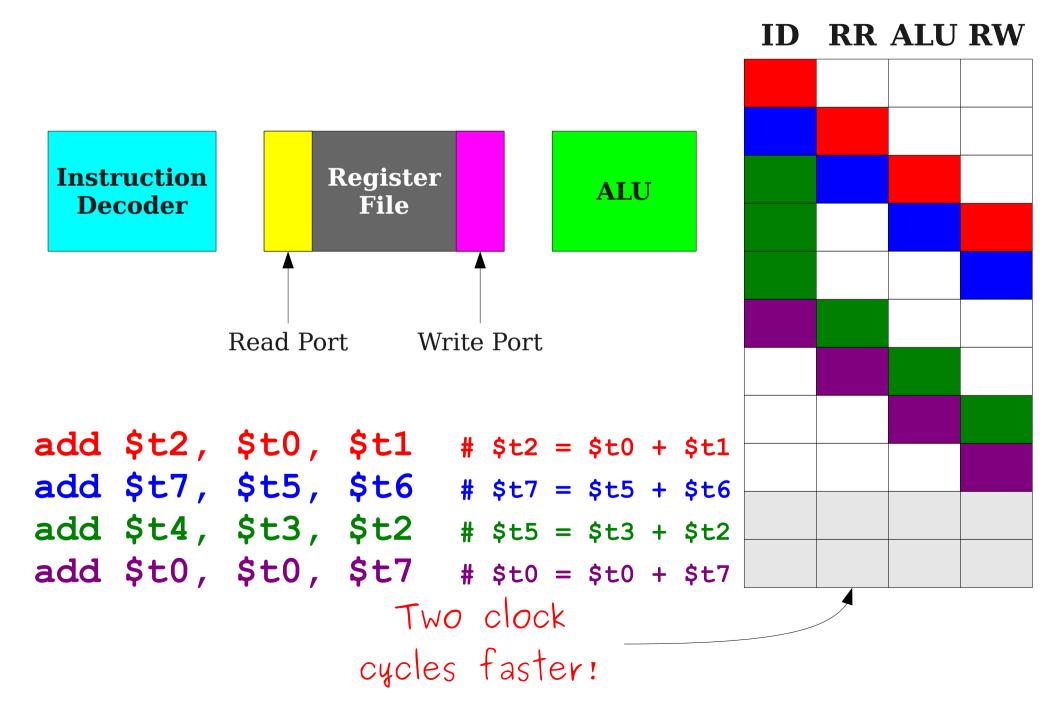
YLZ,	γLU,	ACT	# ST2 = ST0 + ST1
\$t7,	\$t5,	\$t6	# \$t7 = \$t5 + \$t6
\$t4,	\$t3,	\$t2	# \$t5 = \$t3 + \$t2
\$t0,	\$t0,	\$t7	# \$t0 = \$t0 + \$t7
	\$t7, \$t4,	\$t7, \$t5, \$t4, \$t3,	\$t7, \$t5, \$t6 \$t4, \$t3, \$t2 \$t0, \$t0, \$t7

RR ALU RW









Instruction Scheduling

- Because of processor pipelining, the order in which instructions are executed can impact performance.
- **Instruction scheduling** is the reordering or insertion of machine instructions to increase performance.
- All good optimizing compilers have some sort of instruction scheduling support.

Data Dependencies

- A data dependency in machine code is a set of instructions whose behavior depends on one another.
- Intuitively, a set of instructions that cannot be reordered around each other.
- Three types of data dependencies:

Read-after-Write Write-after-Read Write-after-Write (RAW) (WAR)

$$\dots = x \qquad x = \dots$$

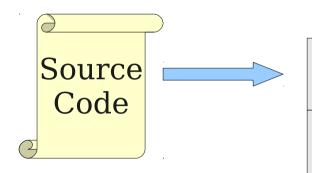
(WAW)

$$x = ...$$
 $... = x$ $x = ...$ $x = ...$ $x = ...$

Summary

- **Instruction scheduling** optimizations try to take advantage of the processor pipeline.
- Locality optimizations try to take advantage of cache behavior.
- Parallelism optimizations try to take advantage of multicore machines.
- There are *many more* optimizations out there!

Where We Are



Lexical Analysis

Syntax Analysis

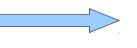
Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

IR Optimization

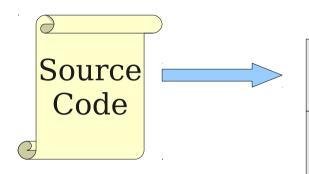
Code Generation

Optimization



Machine Code

Where We Are



Lexical Analysis

Syntax Analysis

Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

IR Optimization

Code Generation

Optimization



Machine Code