École Polytechnique

CSC_52064 – Compilation

Jean-Christophe Filliâtre

optimizing compiler (2/2)

Jean-Christophe Filliâtre

CSC_52064 - Compilation

reminder

code production is split into several phases:

		Ttree
1.	instruction selection	ĮIs
2.	RTL (<i>Register Transfer Language</i>)	Istree Rtl
3.	ERTL (<i>Explicit Register Transfer Language</i>)	* Rtltree
4.	LTL (Location Transfer Language)	Ertl
	4.1 liveness analysis4.2 interference graph4.3 register allocation	Ertltree Ltl
5.	linearization (assembly)	Ltltree ↓Lin
		X86_64

reminder

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

phase 1: instruction selection

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

phase 2: RTL (Register Transfer Language)

#2 fact(#1)	L7: mov #1 #5> L6
entry : L10	L6: add \$-1 #5> L5
exit : L1	L5: #3 <- call fact(#5)> L4
locals:	L4: mov #1 #4> L3
L10: mov #1 #6> L9	L3: mov #3 #2> L2
L9 : jle \$1 #6> L8, L7	L2: imul #4 #2> L1
L8 : mov \$1 #2> L1	

reminder

phase 3: ERTL (Explicit Register Transfer Language)

fact(1)	L20: mov #8 %r12> L19
entry : L17	L19: delete_frame> L18
locals: #7,#8	L18: return
L17: alloc_frame> L16	L7 : mov #1 #5> L6
L16: mov %rbx #7> L15	L6 : add \$-1 #5> L5
L15: mov %r12 #8> L14	L5 : goto> L13
L14: mov %rdi #1> L10	L13: mov #5 %rdi> L12
L10: mov #1 #6> L9	L12: call fact(1)> L11
L9 : jle \$1 #6> L8, L7	L11: mov %rax #3> L4
L8 : mov \$1 #2> L1	L4 : mov #1 #4> L3
L1 : goto> L22	L3 : mov #3 #2> L2
L22: mov #2 %rax> L21	L2 : imul #4 #2> L1
L21: mov #7 %rbx> L20	

phase 4: LTL

phase 4: LTL (Location Transfer Language)

we have already done the **liveness analysis** *i.e.* we have determined for each variable (pseudo-register or physical register) at which moments its value is likely to be used in the remaining of the computation

liveness analysis

L17: alloc_frame> L16	in = %r12,%rbx,%rdi	out = %r12,%rbx,%rdi
L16: mov %rbx #7> L15	in = %r12,%rbx,%rdi	out = #7,%r12,%rdi
L15: mov %r12 #8> L14	in = #7,%r12,%rdi	out = #7,#8,%rdi
L14: mov %rdi #1> L10	in = #7,#8,%rdi	out = #1,#7,#8
L10: mov #1 #6> L9	in = #1,#7,#8	out = #1,#6,#7,#8
L9 : jle \$1 #6 -> L8, L7	in = #1,#6,#7,#8	out = #1,#7,#8
L8 : mov \$1 #2> L1	in = #7,#8	out = #2,#7,#8
L1 : goto> L22	in = #2,#7,#8	out = #2,#7,#8
L22: mov #2 %rax> L21	in = #2,#7,#8	out = #7,#8,%rax
L21: mov #7 %rbx> L20	in = #7,#8,%rax	out = #8,%rax,%rbx
L20: mov #8 %r12> L19	in = #8,%rax,%rbx	out = %r12,%rax,%rbx
L19: delete_frame> L18	in = %r12,%rax,%rbx	out = %r12,%rax,%rbx
L18: return	in = %r12,%rax,%rbx	out =
L7 : mov #1 #5> L6	in = #1,#7,#8	out = #1,#5,#7,#8
L6 : add \$-1 #5> L5	in = #1,#5,#7,#8	out = #1,#5,#7,#8
L5 : goto> L13	in = #1,#5,#7,#8	out = #1,#5,#7,#8
L13: mov #5 %rdi> L12	in = #1,#5,#7,#8	out = #1,#7,#8,%rdi
L12: call fact(1)> L11	in = #1,#7,#8,%rdi	out = #1,#7,#8,%rax
L11: mov %rax #3> L4	in = #1,#7,#8,%rax	out = #1,#3,#7,#8
L4 : mov #1 #4> L3	in = #1,#3,#7,#8	out = #3,#4,#7,#8
L3 : mov #3 #2> L2		
LJ . MOV #J #Z> LZ	in = #3,#4,#7,#8	out = #2,#4,#7,#8

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

let us consider an instruction that **defines** a variable v: then any other variable w live **out** of this instruction may interfere with v

however, in the particular case of

mov w v

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

- if the instruction is not mov w v, we add the n interference edges $v w_i$
- if this is an instruction mov w v, we add the interference edges v w_i for the w_i 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)

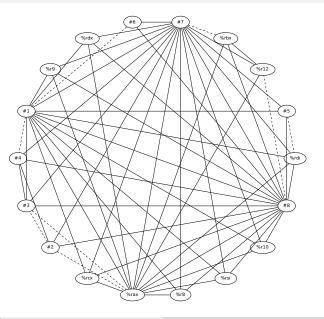
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example: factorial

here is what we get with function fact

10 physical registers + 8 pseudo-registers

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{dashed} = \mathsf{preference} \\ \mathsf{edges} \end{array}$



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

factorial example

let us have a look at the available colors						
	#6 #7					
		%rdx				
		(%r9)				
	available colors					
		#1 #5				
#1	%r12, %rbx					
#2	all of them					
#3	all of them	I INXXX X XXXXIII				
#4	all of them					
#5	all of them					
#6	all of them					
#7	%rbx					
#8	%r12					
		#2				
		%rcx				
		%rax %r8				

on this example, we immediately see that the graph coloring has no solution

- only two colors for #1, #7, and #8
- the three of them interfere

if a vertex cannot be colored, it will be allocated on the stack; it is called a **spilled register** (en français, un registre **vidé en mémoire**)

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 heuristics to color the graph, looking for

- a linear (or quasi-linear) complexity
- a 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; 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 stack

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 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

for this, we use a technique called $\ensuremath{\textbf{coalescing}}$ that merges two vertices of the graph

since it may increase the degree (of the resulting vertex), we add a conservative criterion not to damage K-colorability

Definition (George's criterion)

A pseudo-register vertex v_2 can be merged with a vertex v_1 , if any neighbor of v_1 that is a physical register or has degree $\geq K$ is also a neighbor of v_2 .

Similarly, a physical vertex v_2 can be merged with a vertex v_1 , if any neighbor of v_1 that is a pseudo-register or has degree $\geq K$ is also a neighbor of v_2 .

the vertex v_1 is removed and the graph is updated

George-Appel algorithm

implemented with five mutually recursive functions

```
simplify(g) =
    ...
coalesce(g) =
    ...
freeze(g) =
    ...
spill(g) =
    ...
select(g, v) =
    ...
```

note: the stack of vertices is thus implicit

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George-Appel 1/5

```
simplify(g) =
    if there exists a vertex v without any preference edge
      with minimal degree < K
    then
      return select(g, v)
    else
      return coalesce(g)</pre>
```

George-Appel 2/5

```
coalesce(g) =
  if there exists a preference edge v1-v2
    satisfying George's criterion
  then
    g <- merge(g, v1, v2)
    c <- simplify(g)
    c[v1] <- c[v2]
    return c
  else
    return freeze(g)</pre>
```

George-Appel 3/5

```
freeze(g) =
  if there exists a vertex v with minimal degree < K
  then
    g <- remove preference edges from v
    return simplify(g)
  else
    return spill(g)</pre>
```

George-Appel 4/5

```
spill(g) =
  if g is empty
  then
    return the empty coloring
  else
    choose a vertex v with minimal spill cost
    return select(g, v)
```

the spill cost function can be for instance

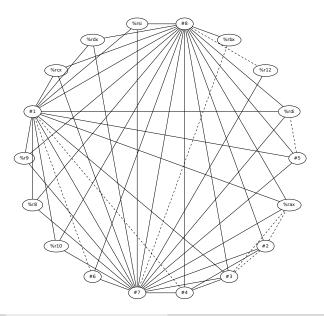
$$cost(v) = \frac{number of uses of v}{degree of v}$$

George-Appel 5/5

```
select(g, v) =
  remove vertex v from g
  c <- simplify(g)
  if there exists a color r for v
  then
      c[v] <- r
  else
      c[v] <- spill
  return c</pre>
```

example

1. simplify(g) \rightarrow coalesce(g) \rightarrow selects #2- - -#3



example

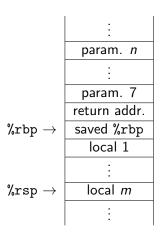
then we pop

8. coalesce #8- - %r12 $\rightarrow c[#8] = %r12$ 7. select #1 $\rightarrow c[#1] = %rbx$ 6. select #7 $\rightarrow c[#7] = spill$ 5. coalesce #5- - %rdi $\rightarrow c[#5] = %rdi$ 4. coalesce #3- - %rax $\rightarrow c[#3] = %rax$ 3. coalesce #6- - #1 $\rightarrow c[#6] = c[#1] = %rbx$ 2. coalesce #4- - #1 $\rightarrow c[#4] = c[#1] = %rbx$ 1. coalesce #2- - #3 $\rightarrow c[#2] = c[#3] = %rax$

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



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

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coloring, again

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

algorithm:

- 1. merge all preference edges, since mov between two spilled registers is really costly
- 2. then use the simplification algorithm

fact example

we get the following register allocation

#1 -> %rbx
#2 -> %rax
#3 -> %rax
#4 -> %rbx
#5 -> %rdi
#6 -> %rbx
#7 -> stack -8
#8 -> %r12

example

which we would give the following code

fact(1)	L20: mov %r12 %r12> L19
entry : L17	L19: delete_frame> L18
	L18: return
L17: alloc_frame> L16	L7 : mov %rbx %rdi> L6
L16: mov %rbx -8(%rbp)>L15	L6 : add \$-1 %rdi> L5
L15: mov %r12 %r12> L14	L5 : goto> L13
L14: mov %rdi %rbx> L10	L13: mov %rdi %rdi> L12
L10: mov %rbx %rbx> L9	L12: call fact(1)> L11
L9 : jle \$1 %rbx> L8, L7	L11: mov %rax %rax> L4
L8 : mov \$1 %rax> L1	L4 : mov %rbx %rbx> L3
L1 : goto> L22	L3 : mov %rax %rax> L2
L22: mov %rax %rax> L21	L2 : imul %rbx %rax> L1
L21: mov -8(%rbp) %rbx>L20	

remark

as we notice, many instructions

mov v v

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

this will be done during the translation to LTL

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

LTL instructions

 $\begin{array}{l} \texttt{call} f \to L \\ \texttt{goto} \to L \\ \texttt{return} \end{array}$

identical to ERTL

load $n(r_1)$ $r_2 \rightarrow L$ store r_1 $n(r_2) \rightarrow L$

mov
$$n \ d \rightarrow L$$

unop $op \ d \rightarrow L$
binop $op \ d_1 \ d_2 \rightarrow L$
ubranch $br \ d \rightarrow L_1, L_2$
bbranch $br \ d_1 \ d_2 \rightarrow L_1, L_2$
push $d \rightarrow L$

identical to ERTL but with physical registers

identical to ERTL but with operands (d = register or stack slot)

pop r

new instruction

LTL instructions

additionally, alloc_frame, delete_frame, and get_param disappear, being now replaced by explicit use of %rsp / %rbp

ERTL to LTL

we translate each ERTL instruction into one or several LTL instructions, using

- the graph coloring
- the stack frame structure (which is now known for each function)
- a variable r can be
 - already a physical register
 - a pseudo-register mapped to a physical register
 - a pseudo-register mapped to a stack slot

in some cases, the translation is easy because the assembly language allows all combinations

example: the ERTL instruction

 $L_1: \text{ mov } n \ r \to L$

is mapped to a single LTL instruction

 L_1 : mov $n \ color(r) \rightarrow L$

color(r) being a physical register (e.g. movq \$42, %rax) or a stack slot (e.g. movq \$42, -8(%rbp))

difficulty

in other cases, however, this is more difficult as not all operand combinations are allowed

memory access is one such example:

```
L_1: load n(r_1) r_2 \rightarrow L
```

raises an issue when r_2 is on the stack, as we can't write

movq n(r1), m(%rbp)

(too many memory references for 'movq')

similarly when r_1 is on the stack

we have to use some intermediate register **problem**: which register to 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 %r10 and %r11)

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)

temporary registers

with two temporary registers, it is now easy to translate ERTL to LTL

example: with ERTL instruction

 $\textit{L}_1 \colon \texttt{load } \textit{n}(\textit{r}_1) \textit{ r}_2 \rightarrow \textit{L}$

	r ₂ physical	<i>r</i> ₂ on
	register	stack
r_1 physical	L_1 : load $n(r_1)$ $r_2 ightarrow L$	L_1 : load $n(r_1)$ %r10 $ ightarrow$ L_2
register		$L_2 \colon \texttt{mov} \ \texttt{\%r10} \ n_2(\texttt{\%rbp}) o L$
r ₁ on stack	$L_1 \colon \texttt{mov} \; n_1(\texttt{\%rbp}) \; \texttt{\%r10} ightarrow L_2$	$L_1 \colon \texttt{mov} \; n_1(\texttt{\%rbp}) \; \texttt{\%r10} ightarrow L_2$
	L_2 : load $n(\%r10)$ $r_2 ightarrow L$	L_2 : load $n(\%r10)$ %r11 $ ightarrow$ L_3
		$L_3 \colon \texttt{mov} \ \texttt{\%rll} \ n_2(\texttt{\%rbp}) o L_2$

(here one temporary register is enough but two are needed for store)

binary operations

we make some special treatment during the translation

• an instruction mov $r_1 \ r_2 \to L$ is translated to goto $\to L$ when r_1 and r_2 have the same color

this is where we get the benefits of a good register allocation

 the x86-64 instruction imul requires its second operand to be a register ⇒ one has to use a temporary if this is not the case

 a binary operation cannot have two memory operands ⇒ use a temporary if needed

stack frame

we can now translate alloc_frame and				:
delete_frame into explicit use of %rsp / %rbp				param. <i>n</i>
	ERTL	LTL		:
	$\texttt{alloc_frame} \to \texttt{L}$	push %rbp		param. 7
		mov %rsp %rbp		return addr.
		add -8 <i>m</i> %rsp	%rbp $ ightarrow$	old %rbp
	$\texttt{delete_frame} \rightarrow \texttt{L}$	mov %rbp %rsp		local 1
		pop %rbp		÷
m %rsp ightarrow				local <i>m</i>
(wl	(which simplifies when $m = 0$)			

translating ERTL to LTL

to translate a function f

- 1. make the liveness analysis
- 2. build the interference graph
- 3. color it
- 4. deduce the value of m
- 5. translate ERTL instructions to LTL

example

for the factorial, we get the following LTL code

fact()	L20: goto	> L19
entry : L17	L19: add \$8 %rsp	> L18
L17: add \$-8 %rsp> L16	L18: return	
L16: mov %rbx -8(%rbp)> L15	L7 : mov %rbx %rdi	> L6
L15: goto> L14	L6 : add \$-1 %rdi	> L5
L14: mov %rdi %rbx> L10	L5 : goto	> L13
L10: goto> L9	L13: goto	> L12
L9 : jle \$1 %rbx> L8, L7	L12: call fact	> L11
L8 : mov \$1 %rax> L1	L11: goto	> L4
L1 : goto> L22	L4 : goto	> L3
L22: goto> L21	L3 : goto	> L2
L21: mov -8(%rbp) %rbx> L20	L2 : imul %rbx %rax	> L1

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 assemble 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 (jmp)

we use two tables

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

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

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
- otherwise we mark the label as a target and we output some unconditional jump to that label

the function ${\tt instr}$ outputs x86-64 code and calls lin recursively on the next label

$$\operatorname{instr}(L_1 : \operatorname{mov} n \ d \to L) =$$
 output $L_1 : \operatorname{movq} n, \ d$
 $\operatorname{call} \operatorname{lin}(L)$
 $\operatorname{instr}(L_1 : \operatorname{load} n(r_1) \ r_2 \to L) =$ output $L_1 : \operatorname{movq} n(r_1), \ r_2$
 $\operatorname{call} \operatorname{lin}(L)$

etc.

the interesting case is that of a branching instruction

we first consider the case where the negative label (L_3) is not yet visited

$$ext{instr}(L_1: ext{branch } cc o L_2, L_3) = egin{array}{c} ext{output } L_1: ext{j}cc \ L_2 \ ext{call } ext{lin}(L_3) \ ext{call } ext{lin}(L_2) \end{array}$$

otherwise, it may be the case that the positive label (L_2) is not yet visited and we can switch the condition

$$ext{instr}(L_1: ext{branch } cc o L_2, L_3) = ext{ output } L_1: ext{j} \overline{cc} \ L_3 \ ext{ call } ext{lin}(L_2) \ ext{ call } ext{lin}(L_3) ext{}$$

where condition \overline{cc} is the opposite of condition cc

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

$$ext{instr}(L_1: ext{branch} \ cc o L_2, L_3) = ext{ output } L_1: ext{jcc } L_2 \ ext{output jmp } L_3 ext{ }$$

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

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

we now eliminate unnecessary gotos when possible

$$instr(L_1 : goto \rightarrow L_2) = output jmp L_2 if L_2 is already visited$$

= output label L_1
call $lin(L_2)$ otherwise

et voilà !

factorial

<pre>fact: L1:</pre>	addq movq cmpq jle movq addq call imulq	%rsp, %rl \$-8, %rsj %rbx, -8 %rdi, %rl \$1, %rbx L8 %rbx, %rd \$-1, %rd	(%rbp) ox di i	##	useless,	too l	bad!
т1.	imulq	%rbx, %ra	ах				
L1:	mourd	-8(%rhn)	%rhv				
		(rbp, %rs					
	popq						
	ret	. 1					
L8:							
	movq	\$1, %rax					
	jmp	L1					
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factorial

we could do better manually

fact:	cmpq	\$1, %rdi	# x <= 1 ?
	jle	L3	
	pushq	%rdi	# saves x on the stack
	decq	%rdi	
	call	fact	<pre># fact(x-1)</pre>
	popq	%rcx	
	imulq	%rcx, %rax	# x * fact(x-1)
	ret		
L3:			
	movq	\$1, %rax	
	ret		

but it is always easier to optimize one program

Jean-Christophe Filliâtre

another example

```
int fib(int n) {
    if (n <= 1) return n;
    return fib(n-2) + fib(n-1);
}</pre>
```

fib: pushq %rbp movq %rsp, %rbp addq \$-16, %rsp movq %rbx, -16(%rbp) movq %r12, -8(%rbp) movq %rdi, %rbx cmpq \$1, %rbx jle L14 movq %rbx, %rdi addg \$-2, %rdi call fib movg %rax, %r12

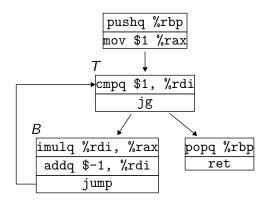
```
addq $-1, %rbx
     movq %rbx, %rdi
     call fib
     addg %rax, %r12
L6:
     movq %r12, %rax
     movg -16(%rbp), %rbx
     movg -8(%rbp), %r12
     movq %rbp, %rsp
     popq %rbp
     ret
L14: movq %rbx, %r12
     jmp L6
```

a third example

```
int loop(int x) {
    int r;
    r = 1;
    while (x > 1) {
        r = r * x;
        x = x - 1;
    }
    return r;
}
```

loop:	pushq %rbp
	<pre>movq \$1, %rax</pre>
Т:	<pre>cmpq \$1, %rdi</pre>
	jg B
	popq %rbp
	ret
B:	<pre>imulq %rdi, %rax</pre>
	addq \$-1, %rdi
	jmp T

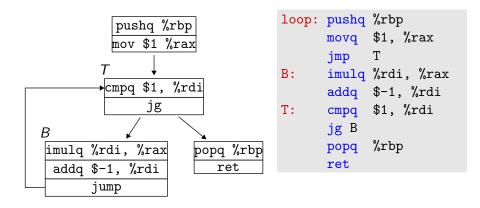
a third example



loop:	pushq	%rbp
	movq	\$1, %rax
Т:	cmpq	\$1, %rdi
	jg B	
	popq	%rbp
	ret	
B:	imulq	%rdi, %rax
	addq	\$-1, %rdi
	jmp T	

a third example, improved

a better linearization, with only one branching per iteration



gcc and clang typically do that (though via loop unrolling instead)

Jean-Christophe Filliâtre



our compiler roughly matches gcc -01

	gcc -01	mini-C
fib(42)	3,43	3,67
factorial 10 ⁹ with a loop	0,86	0,86
10000 times tak(18,12,6)	1,40	1,75

```
int tak(int x, int y, int z) { // Ikuo Takeuchi
  if (y < x)
    return tak(tak(x-1, y, z), tak(y-1, z, x), tak(z-1, x, y));
  return z; }</pre>
```

other compiler architectures

architectures of C compilers

- the architecture we used here is that of **CompCert**
 - optimizations are implemented at the RTL level
- the gcc compiler inserts some SSA language (explained later)

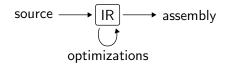
 $\mathsf{frontend} \to \mathsf{SSA} \to \mathsf{RTL} \to \cdots$

and optimizations are implemented at both SSA and RTL levels

• the **clang** compiler is built on LLVM

this is a platform to help building optimizing compilers

 LLVM offers an intermediate language, IR, and tools to optimize and compile this language



example: clang

the C compiler clang is built on LLVM

one can get the IR code with

> clang -O1 -c -emit-llvm fact.c -o fact.bc

and make it readable with

> llvm-dis fact.bc -o fact.ll

IR code for fact

```
define i32 @fact(i32) {
  %2 = icmp slt i32 %0, 2
  br i1 %2, label %10, label %3
: <label>:3:
                                             ; preds = \%1
  br label %4
: <label>:4:
                                            ; preds = %3, %4
  %5 = phi i32 [ %7, %4 ], [ %0, %3 ]
  %6 = phi i32 [ %8, %4 ], [ 1, %3 ]
  \%7 = add nsw i 32 \%5, -1
  %8 = mul nsw i32 \%5, \%6
  %9 = icmp slt i32 %5, 3
  br i1 %9, label %10, label %4
                                            ; preds = \%4, \%1
; <label>:10:
  %11 = phi i32 [ 1, %1 ], [ %8, %4 ]
  ret i32 %11
}
```

IR code for fact

```
define i32 @fact(i32 %x0) {
L1:
  x^2 = icmp slt i^32 x^0, 2
  br i1 %x2, label %L10, label %L3
L3:
  br label %L4
L4:
  %x5 = phi i32 [ %x7, %L4 ], [ %x0, %L3 ]
  %x6 = phi i32 [ %x8, %L4 ], [ 1, %L3 ]
  x7 = add nsw i32 x5, -1
  x8 = mul nsw i32 x5, x6
  %x9 = icmp slt i32 %x5, 3
  br i1 %x9, label %L10, label %L4
L10.
  %x11 = phi i32 [ 1, %L1 ], [ %x8, %L4 ]
  ret i32 %x11
7
```

the IR language is much like our RTL language

- pseudo-registers (%2, %5, %6, etc.)
- a control-flow graph
- high-level calls

but there are also differences

- it is a typed language
- the code is **in SSA form** (*Single Static Assignement*): each variable is only assigned once

of course, the code we compile is likely to assign a variable multiple times

we make use of a Φ **operator** to reconcile several branches of the control-flow graph

for instance,

%x5 = phi i32 [%x7, %L4], [%x0, %L3]

means that %x5 receives the value of %x7 if we come from block %L4 and the value of %x0 if we come from block %L3

SSA form

the benefits of SSA form are that we can now

- attach a property to each variable (e.g. to be equal to 42, to be positive, to be in [34,55], etc.)
- exploit it everywhere this variable is used

the SSA form eases many optimizations

we get assembly code with the LLVM compiler

```
> llc fact.bc -o fact.s
```

this phase includes

- making calling conventions explicit (pprox ERTL)
- register allocation (\approx LTL)
- linearization

this is register allocation that gets rid of Φ operators (a few mov may be necessary)

example

> llc fact.bc -o fact.s

fact:	movl	\$1, %eax
	cmpl	\$2, %edi
	jl	L3
L2:	imull	%edi, %eax
	leal	-1(%rdi), %ecx
	cmpl	\$2, %edi
	movl	%ecx, %edi # <- was phi
	jg	2
L3:	ret	

register allocation

%x11 %x6 %x8	%eax
%x0 %x5	%edi
%x7	%ecx

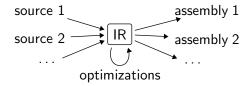
benefits of LLVM

one can make use of LLVM to

• implement a new compiler for a language S with only a frontend and a translation to IR

and/or

design and implement new optimizations, over IR



• lab 8

• mini Java continued

• lecture 9

• garbage collection