Translating control flow structures more efficiently

```
[if (e_{cond}) e_{then} else e_{else}] :=
```

```
block nAfter
 block nElse
   block nThen
     branch(e<sub>cond</sub>, nThen, nElse)
   end //nThen:
   e_{then}
   br nAfter
 end //nElse:
 e_{else}
end //nAfter:
e_{rest}
```

Decomposing conditions in branch

```
branch(!e,nThen,nElse) :=
branch(e,nElse,nThen)
```

```
branch(e<sub>1</sub> && e<sub>2</sub>, nThen, nElse) :=
block nLong
branch(e<sub>1</sub>, nLong, nElse)
end //nLong:
branch(e<sub>2</sub>, nThen, nElse)
```

```
branch(e<sub>1</sub> || e<sub>2</sub>, nThen, nElse) :=
block nLong
branch(e<sub>1</sub>, nThen, nLong)
end //nLong:
branch(e<sub>2</sub>, nThen, nElse)
```

Decomposing conditions in branch

```
branch(true,nThen,nElse) :=
br nThen
```

```
branch(false,nThen,nElse) :=
br nElse
```

```
branch(b,nThen,nElse) := (where b is a local var)
get_local #b
br_if nThen
br nElse
```

.

Decomposing conditions in branch

... analogously for other relations

Returning the result from branch

```
Consider storing x = c
where x, c are boolean and c contains && or \parallel.
```

How do we put the result of c on the stack so it can be stored in x?

```
x = c :=
 block nAfter
  block nElse
    block nThen
      branch(c,nThen,nElse)
    end //nThen:
    i32.const 1
    br nAfter
  end //nElse:
   i32.const 0
 end //nAfter:
 set_local #x
```

Destination label parameters

Recall that in **branch**(c,nThen,nElse) we had two arguments nThen and nElse, which told us where to jump to execute code of the corresponding branches.

Similarly, up until now we explicitly enclosed our translated program fragments in an nAfter block, so we could jump to the "rest" of the program.

Destination label parameters

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 \Rightarrow We can generalize our translation function [\cdot] to take a destination label designating the "rest" in the surrounding code.

Destination label parameters

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 \Rightarrow We can generalize our translation function [\cdot] to take a destination label designating the "rest" in the surrounding code.

 $[\cdot] \Rightarrow [\cdot] nAfter$

 \Rightarrow The caller of the translation function determines where to continue!

Translations with an nAfter label parameter (1)

```
[x = e] nAfter :=
 block nSet
   [e] nSet
   // note that the rest of this block is never reached!
 end //nSet:
 set_local #x
 br nAfter
[s_1; s_2] nAfter :=
 block nSecond
   [s_1] nSecond
 end //nSecond:
 [s_2] nAfter
```

Translations with an nAfter label parameter (2)

```
[if (e_{cond}) e_{then} else e_{else}] nAfter :=
 block nFlse
   block nThen
     branch(e<sub>cond</sub>, nThen, nElse)
   end //nThen:
   [e_{then}] nAfter
 end //nElse:
 [e_{else}] nAfter
[return e] nAfter :=
 block nRet
   [e] nRet
 end //nRet:
 return
```

Switch statements

Let us assume our language had a switch statement (like C and Java do, for instance):

```
switch (escrutinee) {
   case c1: e1
    ...
   case cn: en
   default: edefault
}
```

▷ How can we compile such switch statements?

Compiling switch statements

```
[s_{switch}] nAfter :=
  block nDefault
    block nCase<sub>n</sub>
      . . .
        block nCase<sub>1</sub>
          block nTest
            [e_{scrutinee}] nTest
          end //nTest:
          tee_local #s (where s is some fresh local of type i32)
          i32.const c<sub>1</sub>; i32.eq; br_if nCase<sub>1</sub>
          get local #s
          i32.const c<sub>2</sub>; i32.eq; br_if nCase<sub>2</sub>
          . . .
          br nDefault
        end //nCase<sub>1</sub>:
        [e<sub>1</sub>] nCase<sub>2</sub>
      . . .
    end //nCase<sub>n</sub>:
    [e_n] nDefault
  end //nDefault:
  [e_{default}] nAfter
```

Compiling switch statements

```
[s_{switch}] nAfter :=
    block nDefault
      block nCase<sub>n</sub>
        . . .
          block nCase<sub>1</sub>
            block nTest
              [e_{scrutinee}] nTest
            end //nTest:
            tee_local #s (where s is some fresh local of type i32)
            i32.const c<sub>1</sub>; i32.eq; br_if nCase<sub>1</sub>
            get local #s
            i32.const c<sub>2</sub>; i32.eq; br_if nCase<sub>2</sub>
             . . .
            br nDefault
          end //nCase<sub>1</sub>:
          [e<sub>1</sub>] nCase<sub>2</sub>
        . . .
      end //nCase<sub>n</sub>:
      [e_n] nDefault
    end //nDefault:
    [e<sub>default</sub>] nAfter
▷ How do we translate break?
```

At any point during the translation of **switch** we want to keep track not only where to jump *after*, but also where to jump on a break!

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 \Rightarrow Let us extend the translation function by another label parameter.

 $[\cdot]$ nAfter $\Rightarrow [\cdot]$ nAfter nBreak

 \Rightarrow The caller of the translation function determines where to continue in the "normal" case, but also when break is called!

Translating break then is straightforward: One simply ignores nAfter and follows nBreak instead.

```
[break] nAfter nBreak :=
br nBreak
```

> What do we have change in our translation of switch statements?

Compiling switch statements with breaks

```
[s_{switch}] nAfter nBreak :=
 block nDefault
    block nCase<sub>n</sub>
      . . .
        block nCase1
         block nTest
            [e_{scrutinee}] nTest nBreak
         end //nTest:
          tee_local #s (where s is some fresh local of type i32)
          i32.const c<sub>1</sub>; i32.eq; br_if nCase<sub>1</sub>
         get_local #s
          i32.const c<sub>2</sub>; i32.eq; br_if nCase<sub>2</sub>
          . . .
         br nDefault
        end //nCase<sub>1</sub>:
        [e_1] nCase<sub>2</sub> nAfter
      . . .
    end //nCase<sub>n</sub>:
    [e_n] nDefault nAfter
  end //nDefault:
  [e_{default}] nAfter nAfter
```

Translating While Statement

Consider translation of the **while** statement, which gets 'nextLabel' destination, specifying where to jump when exiting the loop. We assume that the instructions emitted are inside the block that introduced nextLabel.

What is the translation schema?

```
[ while (cond) stmt ] nextLabel =
```

Translating While Statement

Consider translation of the **while** statement, which gets 'nextLabel' destination, specifying where to jump when exiting the loop. We assume that the instructions emitted are inside the block that introduced nextLabel.

What is the translation schema?

```
[ while (cond) stmt ] nextLabel =
  loop startLabel
    block bodyLabel
    branch(cond, bodyLabel, nextLabel)
    end // bodyLabel
    [ stmt ] startLabel
    end
```

break Statement

In many languages, a break statement can be used to exit from the loop. For example, it is possible to write code such as this:

```
while (cond1) {
   code1
   if (cond2) break;
   code2
}
```

Loop executes code1 and checks the condition cond2. If condition holds, it exists. Otherwise, it continues and executes code2 and then goes to the beginning of the loop, repeating the process.

Give translation scheme for this loop construct and explain how the translation of other constructs needs to change.

break Statement - Propagating Exit Label

For a **break** statement to know where to jump, it needs to be given a label indicating the exit of the loop. When we translate a statement (such as **if**) potentially containing **break**, the translation of this statement needs both the parameter to pass on to **break** as well as the parameter to jump to during normal execution. Therefore, each statement needs two destination parameters: the 'nextLabel' and the 'loopExit' label. For example,

[if (cond) thenC else elseC] nextL loopExitL =

break Statement - Propagating Exit Label

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```
[ if (cond) thenC else elseC ] nextL loopExitL =
    block elseL
    block thenL
    branch(cond, thenL, elseL)
    end // thenL
    [thenC] nextL loopExitL
end // elseL
[elseC] nextL loopExitL
```

Translating **break**:

```
[ break ] nextLabel loopExitLabel =
```

Translating **break**:

[break] nextLabel loopExitLabel =
 br loopExitLabel

Translating **break**:

```
[ break ] nextLabel loopExitLabel =
    br loopExitLabel
```

Translating while:

[while (cond) stmt] nextLabel loopExitLabel =

Translating **break**:

```
[ break ] nextLabel loopExitLabel =
    br loopExitLabel
```

Translating while:

```
[ while (cond) stmt ] nextLabel loopExitLabel =
    loop startLabel
    block bodyLabel
    branch(cond, bodyLabel, nextLabel)
    end // bodyLabel
    [ stmt ]
```

Translating **break**:

```
[ break ] nextLabel loopExitLabel =
    br loopExitLabel
```

Translating while:

```
[ while (cond) stmt ] nextLabel loopExitLabel =
    loop startLabel
    block bodyLabel
    branch(cond, bodyLabel, nextLabel)
    end // bodyLabel
    [ stmt ] startLabel
```

Translating **break**:

```
[ break ] nextLabel loopExitLabel =
    br loopExitLabel
```

Translating while:

```
[ while (cond) stmt ] nextLabel loopExitLabel =
    loop startLabel
    block bodyLabel
    branch(cond, bodyLabel, nextLabel)
    end // bodyLabel
    [ stmt ] startLabel nextLabel
    end
```

Translating **break**:

```
[ break ] nextLabel loopExitLabel =
    br loopExitLabel
```

Translating while:

```
[ while (cond) stmt ] nextLabel loopExitLabel =
    loop startLabel
    block bodyLabel
    branch(cond, bodyLabel, nextLabel)
    end // bodyLabel
    [ stmt ] startLabel nextLabel
    end
```

What if we want to have **continue** that goes to beginning of the loop?

Loops with break and continue

Translating **break**:

```
[ break ] nextL loopExitL loopStartL =
    br loopExitL
```

Translating continue:

```
[ continue ] nextL loopExitL loopStartL =
    br loopStartL
```

Translating while:

```
[ while (cond) stmt ] nextL loopExitL loopStartL =
    loop startLabel
        block bodyLabel
        branch(cond, bodyLabel, nextL)
        end // bodyLabel
        [ stmt ] startLabel nextL startLabel
    end
```

Explain difference between labels loopStartL and startLabel

Basic Instructions of Register Machines

$$\begin{split} & \mathsf{R}_{i} \leftarrow \mathsf{Mem}[\mathsf{R}_{j}] \mathsf{load} \\ & \mathsf{Mem}[\mathsf{R}_{j}] \leftarrow \mathsf{R}_{i} \mathsf{ store} \\ & \mathsf{R}_{i} \leftarrow \mathsf{R}_{j} * \mathsf{R}_{k} \mathsf{ compute: for an operation } * \end{split}$$

Efficient register machine code uses as few loads and stores as possible.

State Mapped to Register Machine

Both dynamically allocated heap and stack expand Heap is **more general**:

- Can allocate, read/write, deallocate, in any order
- Garbage Collector does deallocation automatically
 - Must be able to find free space among used one, group free blocks into larger ones (compaction),...

Stack is efficient: top of stack pointer (SP) is a register

- allocation is simple: increment, decrement
- to allocate N bytes on stack (push): SP := SP N
- to deallocate N bytes on stack (pop): SP := SP + N



Exact picture varies depend on hardware, OS, language runtime

WASM vs General Register Machine Code Naïve Correct Translation

WASM: imul.32

Register Machine: $R1 \leftarrow Mem[SP]$ SP = SP + 4 $R2 \leftarrow Mem[SP]$ $R2 \leftarrow R1 * R2$

 $Mem[SP] \leftarrow R2$

Register Allocation

How many variables?

Do we need 7 distinct registers if we wish to avoid load and stores?

x = m[0]	7 variables: x,y,z,xy,yz,xz,res1	x = m[0]	can do it with 5 only!
y = m[1]		y = m[1]	
xy = x * y		xy = x * y	
z = m[2]		z = m[2]	
$yz = y^*z$		yz = y*z	
$xz = x^*z$		y = x*z	// reuse y
res1 = xy +	yz	x = xy + yz	// reuse x
m[3] = res1	+ xz	m[3] = x + y	

Idea of Register Allocation

program:

 $x = m[0]; y = m[1]; xy = x^*y; z = m[2]; yz = y^*z; xz = x^*z; r = xy + yz; m[3] = r + xz$ live variable analysis result:



Color Variables Avoid Overlap of Same Colors

program:

 $x = m[0]; y = m[1]; xy = x^*y; z = m[2]; yz = y^*z; xz = x^*z; r = xy + yz; m[3] = r + xz$ live variable analysis result:



4 registers are enough for this program

Color Variables Avoid Overlap of Same Colors

program:

 $x = m[0]; y = m[1]; xy = x^*y; z = m[2]; yz = y^*z; xz = x^*z; r = xy + yz; m[3] = r + xz$ live variable analysis result:



4 registers are enough for this 7-variable program

How to assign colors to variables?

program:

 $x = m[0]; y = m[1]; xy = x^*y; z = m[2]; yz = y^*z; xz = x^*z; r = xy + yz; m[3] = r + xz$ live variable analysis result:



For each pair of variables determine if their lifetime overlaps = there is a point at which they are both alive. Construct **interference graph**



Edges between members of each set

program:

 $x = m[0]; y = m[1]; xy = x^*y; z = m[2]; yz = y^*z; xz = x^*z; r = xy + yz; m[3] = r + xz$ live variable analysis result:



For each pair of variables determine if their lifetime overlaps = there is a point at which they are both alive. Construct **interference graph**



Final interference graph

program:

 $x = m[0]; y = m[1]; xy = x^*y; z = m[2]; yz = y^*z; xz = x^*z; r = xy + yz; m[3] = r + xz$ live variable analysis result:



For each pair of variables determine if their lifetime overlaps = there is a point at which they are both alive. Construct **interference graph**



Coloring interference graph

program:

 $x = m[0]; y = m[1]; xy = x^*y; z = m[2]; yz = y^*z; xz = x^*z; r = xy + yz; m[3] = r + xz$ live variable analysis result:



Need to assign colors (register numbers) to nodes such that:

if there is an edge between nodes, then those nodes have different colors.

 \rightarrow standard graph vertex coloring problem



Idea of Graph Coloring

- Register Interference Graph (RIG):
 - indicates whether there exists a point of time where both variables are live
 - look at the sets of live variables at all progrma points after running live-variable analysis
 - if two variables occur together, draw an edge
 - we aim to assign different registers to such these variables
 - finding assignment of variables to K registers: corresponds to coloring graph using K colors

All we need to do is solve graph coloring problem



- NP hard
- In practice, we have heuristics that work for typical graphs
- If we cannot fit it all variables into registers, perform a **spill**:

store variable into memory and load again before using

Heuristic for Coloring with K Colors

Simplify:

If there is a node with less than K neighbors, we will always be able to color it! So we can remove such node from the graph (if it exists, otherwise remove other node) This reduces graph size. It is useful, even though incomplete

(e.g. planar can be colored by at most 4 colors, yet can have nodes with many neighbors)



Heuristic for Coloring with K Colors

Select

Assign colors backwards, adding nodes that were removed If the node was removed because it had <K neighbors, we will always find a color if there are multiple possibilities, we can choose any color



Use Computed Registers



Summary of Heuristic for Coloring

Simplify (forward, safe):

If there is a node with less than K neighbors, we will always be able to color it! so we can remove it from the graph

Potential Spill (forward, speculative):

If every node has K or more neighbors, we still remove one of them we mark it as node for **potential** spilling. Then remove it and continue

Select (backward):

Assign colors backwards, adding nodes that were removed

If we find a node that was spilled, we check if we are lucky, that we can color it. if yes, continue

if not, insert instructions to save and load values from memory (**actual spill**). Restart with new graph (a graph is now easier to color as we killed a variable)

Conservative Coalescing

Suppose variables tmp1 and tmp2 are both assigned to the same register R and the program has an instruction:

tmp2 = tmp1

which moves the value of tmp1 into tmp2. This instruction then becomes

R = R

which can be simply omitted!

How to force a register allocator to assign tmp1 and tmp2 to same register?

merge the nodes for tmp1 and tmp2 in the interference graph!

this is called coalescing

But: if we coalesce non-interfering nodes when there are assignments, then our graph may become more difficult to color, and we may in fact need more registers!

Conservative coalescing: coalesce only if merged node of tmp1 and tmp2 will have a small degree so that we are sure that we will be able to color it (e.g. resulting node has degree < K)

Run Register Allocation use 3 registers, coalesce j=i i = 0 s = s + i i = i + b j = i s = s + j + bj = j + 1



Run Register Allocation use 3 registers, coalesce j=i

