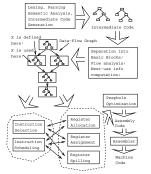


Introduction

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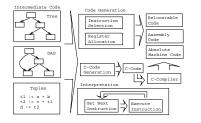
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Code Generation Issues I

- The purpose of the code generation phase of the compiler is to transform the intermediate code produced by the front end into some other code that can be executed.
- Often the the code generator will produce assembly code or object code which (after assembly and linking) can be directly executed by the hardware.
- Alternatively, the code generator can generate C-code and use the native C-compiler as the "real" back-end.
- Or, the code generator can generate code for a "virtual machine", and use an interpreter to execute the code.
- We expect the code generator to produce code that is as efficient as possible.

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- The input to the code generator can be any one of the intermediate representations we've discussed: Trees, Tuples, Graphs,...
- The work of the code generator consists of several (interdependent) tasks:

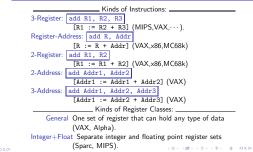
Instruction

- selection: Which instructions should be generated?
- scheduling: In which order should they be generated?

Register

- allocation: Which variables should be kept in registers?
- assignment: In which registers should they be stored?
- spilling: Which registers should be spilled when?

Machine Architectures I



Architectures

Kinds of Addressing Modes: Kinds of Register Classes (cont): Register Ind. with Displacement: d(R) The contents of the Integer+Float+Address Separate integer, floating point, and memory address R+d, where R is a register and d a address register sets (MC68k). (small) constant. (All architectures.) Kinds of Addressing Modes: The Cost of an instruction: Immediate: #X The value of the constant X. (All architectures.) The Cost of an instruction is the number of machine cycles it Register Direct: R The contents of register R. (All architectures.) takes to execute it. Register Indirect: (R) The contents of the memory address in On RISCs, most instructions take 1 cycle to execute. Loads, register R. (All.) stores, branches, multiplies, and divides may take longer. Register Indirect with increment: (R+) The contents of the On CISCs, the number of cycles required to execute an memory address in register R. R is incremented by the instruction Instr Op1, Op2 is size of the instruction (i.e. if MOVE.W (R+), Addr cost(Instr)+cost(Op1)+cost(Op2). cost(Opi) is the moves two bytes, then R would be incremented by number of cycles required to compute the addressing mode 2). (VAX, MC68k.) Op;. 101 (0) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) 1 1 M 1 1 2 1 1 2 1 2 1 3 1 9 1 9 1 9

Code Generation Example I

 A straight-forward code generator considers one tuple at a time, without looking at other tuples. The code generator is simple, but the generated code is sub-optimal.

int A[5], i, x;

The Tuple	Code
(1) i := 1	(9) T5 := i
(2) TO := i	(10) T6 := A[T5]
(3) IF TO<6 GDTO (5)	(11) T7 := T4+T6
(4) GOTO (17)	(12) x := T7
(5) T1 := i	(13) T8 := i
(6) T2 := A[T1]	(14) T9 := T8+1
(7) T3 := x	(15) i := T9
(8) T4 := T2*T3	(16) GOTO (2)

A Simple Example

Code Ge	meration Example II (A)
 li	Unoptimized MIPS Code:
sw	
L2: lw	
sl bn	
j	L3 # GOTO L3
L5: lw	(5) T1 := i \$2,i # \$2 := CONT(i)
	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
SW	
lw	(14) T9 := T8 + 1
	du \$2,\$3,1 # \$2 := \$3 + 1 ve \$3,\$2 # \$3 := \$2 (15) i := T9
SW	
j L3:	(16) GOTO (2) L2 # GOTO L2

	(6) T2 := A[T1]
move	\$3,\$2 # \$3 := \$2
sll	\$2,\$3,2 # \$2 := \$3 * 4
la	\$3,A # \$3 := ADDR(A)
addu	\$2,\$2,\$3 # \$2 := \$2 + \$3
lw	\$2,0(\$2) # \$2 := CONT(A[i])
	(7) T3 := x
lw	\$3,x # \$3 := CONT(x);
	(8) T4 := T2 * T3
mult	\$3,\$2 # \$lo := \$3 * \$2
mflo	\$4 # \$4 := \$1o
	(9) T5 := i
lw	\$2,i # \$2 := CONT(i)
	(10) T6 := A[T5]
move	\$3,\$2 # \$3 := \$2
sll	\$2,\$3,2 # \$2 := \$3 * 4
la	\$3,A # \$3 := ADDR(A)
addu	\$2,\$2,\$3 # \$2 := \$2 + \$3
lw	\$3,0(\$2) # \$2 := CONT(A[i]),

Code Generation Example III (A)

 The generated code becomes a lot faster if we perform Common Sub-Expression Elimination (CSE) and keep the index variable i in a register (\$6) over the entire loop:

li	(1) i := 1 \$6,0x1 # \$6 := 1
L2:	(2) TO := i
	(3) IF i < 6 GOTO (5)
slt	\$3,\$6,6 # \$3 := i < 6
bne	\$3,\$0,L5
	(4) GOTO (17)
j	L3 # GOTO L3
L5:	(5) T1 := i

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• A[T1] is computed once, and the result is kept in register \$5 until it's needed the next time.

	(6) T2 := A[T1]
move	\$3,\$6 # \$3 := \$6
sll	\$2,\$3,2 # \$2 := \$3 * 4
la	\$3,A # \$3 := ADDR(A)
addu	\$2,\$2,\$3 # \$2 := \$2 + \$3
lw	\$5,0(\$2) # \$5 := CONT(A[i])
	(7) T3 := x
lw	\$3,x # \$3 := CONT(x);
	(8) T4 := T2 * T3
mult	\$3,\$5 # \$10 := \$3 * \$5
mflo	\$4 # \$4 := \$lo
	(9) T5 := i
	(10) T6 := A[T5]

- Code Generation Example IV (A)
 - Since x and ADDR(A) seem to be used a lot in the loop, we keep them in registers (\$7 and \$8, respectively) as well.
 - We also reverse the comparison, which allows us to remove one jump.
 - . The move instruction is unnecessary, so we remove it also.

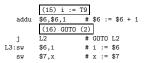
$$\begin{array}{c} (1) \ i := 1 \\ 1i \ & \$ 6, 0x1 \ & \# \$ 6 := 1 \\ 1w \ & \$ 7, x \ & \# \$ 7 := CONT(x); \\ 1a \ & \$ 8, A \ & \# \$ 8 := ADDR(A) \\ L2: \ & \hline (2) \ TO := i \\ \hline & \hline (3) \ IF \ i < 6 \ GOTO \ (5) \\ \hline & \hline (4) \ GOTO \ (17) \\ 8sge \ & \$ 3, \$ 6, 6 \ & \# \$ 3 := i >= 6 \\ bne \ & \$ 3, \$ 0, L3 \ & \# IF \$ 3 \neq 0 \ GOTO \ L3 \end{array}$$

 After the loop we need to store the value of \$6 which has been used to hold the loop index variable i.

addu sw	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
addu	(13) T8 := i (14) T9 := T8 + 1 (15) i := T9 \$6,\$6,1 # \$6 := \$6 + 1
j L3:sw	(16) GOTO (2) L2 # GOTO L2 \$6,i # i := \$6

	(9) T5 := i
	(10) T6 := A[T5]
	(11) T7 := T4 + T6
	(12) x := T7
addu	\$7,\$4,\$5 # \$7 := \$4 + \$5

(13)	T8	:=	i		
(14)	T9	:=	Τ8	+	1



- The unoptimized code (produced by gcc -S -g) was 28 instructions long. Our optimized code is 16 instructions. Improvement: 42%.
- More importantly, in the original code there were 26 instructions inside the loop, and 2 outside. Since the loop runs 5 times, we will execute 3 + 5 * 25 = 128 instructions.
- In the optimized case, we have 11 instructions in the loop and 5 outside. We will execute only 5 + 5 * 11 = 60 instructions. Improvement: 53%.

Instruction Seleection

Instruction Selection I

- Instruction selection is usually pretty simple on RISC architectures – there is often just one possible sequence of instructions to perform a particular kind of computation.
- CISC's like the VAX, on the other hand, leave the compiler with more choices: ADD2 1, R1 ADD3 R1, 1, R1 INC R1 all add 1 to register R1.

V * 2 – Unoptimized Sparc Code

set	V, %oO	<pre># %o0 := ADDR(V);</pre>
ld	[%00], %00	# %00 := CONT(V);
set	2, %01	# %o1 := 2;
call	.mul, 2	# %o0 := %o0 * %o1;
nop		# Empty delay slot

Instruction Selection II

V * 2 - Better Instr. Selection

• The Sparc has a library function .mul and a hardware multiply instruction smul:

set V, %oO

- ld [%00], %00
- smul %00, 1, %00 # %00 := %00 * %01;

V + 2 - Even Better Instr. Selection

- The Sparc also has hardware shift instructions (sll, srl).
- Integer multiplication by 2ⁱ can be implemented as a shift i steps to the left.

set V, %o0

ld [%00],%00

sll %00, 1, %00 # %00 := %00 * 2;

Instruction Scheduling I

Instruction Scheduling II (A)

V * 2 – Unoptimized Sparc Code

- - V + 2 Better Instr. Scheduling
 - Instruction scheduling is important for architectures with several functional units, pipelines, delay slots. I.e. most modern architectures.
 - The Sparc (and other RISCs) have branch delay slots. These are instructions (textually immediately following the branch) that are "executed for free" during the branch.

- The Sparc's integer and floating point units can execute in parallel. Integer and floating point instructions should therefore be reordered so that operations are interleaved.
- Consider this example program:

int a, b, c; double x, y, z;
{
 a = b - c; c = a + b; b = a + c;
 y = x * x; z = x + y; x = y / z;}

 How will the generated code be different if the compiler takes advantage of parallel execution, or not?

Instruction Scheduling II (B)

int a {		; double x, y, z - c; c = a + b;		+ c;
	y = x	* x; z = x + y;	x = y	/ z;}
		cc -02		cc -03
	set	Ъ,%оЗ	fmuld	%f30,%f30,%f28
	sub	%00,%01,%01	set	c,%o1
	set	a,%o0	ld	[%o1],%o2
	add	%04,%05,%04	faddd	%f30,%f28,%f30
	add	%00,%02,%00	set	b,%o0
	set	x, %o0	ld	[%00],%04
	fmuld	%f0,%f2,%f0	set	z,%g1
	sethi	%hi(z),%o2	sub	%04,%02,%02
	faddd	%f6,%f8,%f6	fdivd	%f28,%f30,%f2
	fdivd	%f12,%f14,%f12	add	%04,%02,%04
			add	%o2,%o4,%o5
				1000 ST 150 ST 150 ST

Register Allocation/Assignment/Spilling

Register Allocation Issues

Register Assignment (A)	Register Assignment (B)		
(日) (日) (日) (日) (日)	(日) (四) (注) (注)		
Ocmmon sub-expressions are stored in regs.			
Loads and Stores are expensive long as possible.	 MC68k has address, integer, and floating point, etc. 		
Procedure arguments are passed in regs.	 groups of registers that can only hold one type of data: MIPS & Sparc have floating point and integer registers; 		
Intermediate results are stored in regs.	 Some architectures have several different register classes, 		
Instructions take operands in regs.	hold each of these variables.		
Register Uses:	 Secondly, we have to decide which physical registers should 		
Registers have short access time.	Register Assignment:		
Hence, a one-word instruction can reference 3 registers but a two-word instruction is necessary to reference a memory word.	Register Allocation: • First we have to decide which variables should reside in registers at which point in the program. • Variables that are used frequently should be favored.		
We only need 4–7 bits to access a register, but 32–64 bits to access a memory word.			
Why do we need registers?			

- · Some architectures pass procedure arguments in registers. If a value is used twice, first in a computation and then in a procedure call, we should allocate the value to the appropriate procedure argument register.
- Sparc passes it's first 6 arguments in registers %00,%01,%02,%03,%04,%05.
- · See the next slide for an example.

<pre>main () { int a,b; a = b + 15;</pre>	$/* \leftarrow b$ is used here $/*$
P(b):	$/* \Leftarrow$ and here. */
<pre>}</pre>	<pre># %00 := CONT(b); # %01 := %00 + 15 # a := %01; # P(%00)</pre>

> -0.0 C

Register Spilling I

- We may have 8 | 16 | 32 regs available.
- When we run out of registers (during code generation) we need to pick a register to spill. I.e. in order to free the register for it's new use, it's current value first has to be stored in memory.
- Which register should be spilt? Least resently used, Least frequently used, Most distant use, ... (take your pick).

Example:

- Assume a machine with registers R1--R3.
- R1 holds variable a; R2 holds b, R3 holds c, and R4 holds d. Generate code for:

```
x = a + b; # \Leftarrow Which reg for x?
```

```
y = x + c;
```

• Which register should be spilt to free a register to hold x?

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Register Spilling Example

```
FOR i := 1 TO 100000 DO
   A[5,i] := b;
   FOR j := 1 TO 100000 DO
      A[j,i] := <Complicated Expression>;
   END
END
        1st Attempt (4 Regs available):
Allocation/Assignment: i in R_1, j in R_2, ADDR(A) in R_3,
           ADDR(A[5,]) in R_4.
    Spilling: Spill R4 in the inner loop to get enough registers to
           evaluate the complicated expression.
           _____ 2nd Attempt (4 Regs available): ______
Allocation/Assignment: i in R_1, j in R_2, ADDR(A) in R_3.
    Spilling: No spills. But ADDR(A[5,i]) must be loaded every
            time in the outer loop.
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```

- 2 Registers Available k and ADDR(Å) in registers. (Prefer variables in inner loops).
 4 Registers Available k , ADDR(Å), j, and i in registers. (Prefer index variables).
- 5 Registers Available k, ADDR(A), j, i, and b in registers. (Prefer most frequently used variables).

Basic Blocks and Flow Graphs

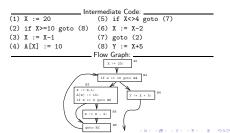
Basic Blocks and Flow Graphs I

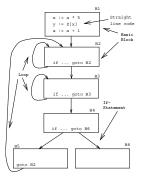
- We divide the intermediate code of each procedure into basic blocks. A basic block is a piece of straight line code, i.e. there are no jumps in or out of the middle of a block.
- The basic blocks within one procedure are organized as a flow graph.
- A flowgraph has
 - basic blocks B₁ · · · B_n as nodes,
 - $\bullet\,$ a directed edge $B_1 \to B_2$ if control can flow from B_1 to $B_2.$
- Code generation can be performed on a small or large piece of the flow graph at a time (small=easy, large=hard):

Local Within one basic block. Global Within one procedure. Inter-procedural Within one program.



X := 20; WHILE X < 10 DO X := X-1; A[X] := 10; IF X = 4 THEN X := X - 2; ENDIF; ENDDO; Y := X + 5;





Constructing Basic Blocks

Basic Blocks I

Basic Blocks II

- . How do we identify the basic blocks and build the flow graph?
- Assume that the input to the code generator is a list of tuples. How do we find the beginning and end of each basic block?

___ Algorithm: _____

- First determine a set of leaders, the first tuple of basic blocks:
 - The first tuple is a leader.
 - Tuple L is a leader if there is a tuple if ...goto L or goto L.
 - Tuple L is a leader if it immediately follows a tuple if ...goto L or goto L.
- A basic block consists of a leader and all the following tuples until the next leader.

(D) (B) (E) (E) (E) (E) (O)

Block B_1 : [(1) P:=0; (2) I:=1] Block B_2 : [(3) P:=P4I; (4) IF P<=60 GOTO B_4] Block B_3 : [(5) P:=0; (6) I:=5] Block B_4 : [(7) T1:=I42; (8) I:=T1+1; (9) IF I<=20 GOTO B_2] Block B_4 : [(10) K:=P43]

 $\begin{array}{c} P := 0 \\ I := 1 \\ P := P + I \\ I P > < 60 \text{ GDTD } B_{4} \\ \hline P := 0 \\ I := 6 \\ R_{4} \\ \hline T_{1} := 1 + 2 \\ I := T + 1 + 1 \\ I := T - 2 \text{ or } D_{2} \\ \hline R_{4} \\ \hline T_{1} := 1 + 2 \\ I := 7 + 2 \\ \hline R_{4} \\ \hline R_{4} \\ \hline R_{4} \\ \hline R_{5} \\ \hline$

```
P := 0; I := 1;
REPEAT
P := P + I;
IF P > 60 THEN P := 0; I := 5 ENDIF;
I := I * 2 + 1;
UNTLL I > 20;
K := P * 3
```

____ Tuples:

```
(1)
     P := 0

    Leader (Rule 1.a)

(2)
     T := 1
    P := P + I
                 ⇐ Leader (Rule 1.b)
(3)
    IF P <= 60 GOTO (7)
(4)
(5)
     P := 0
                 ⇐ Leader (Rule 1.c)
(6)
    I := 5
    T1 := I * 2
                 (7)
```

Summary

Summary I

- Read the Tiger book: Instruction selection pp. 205–216 Taming conditional branches pp. 185–188
- Or, read the Dragon book: Introduction 513–521
 Basic Blocks 528–530
 Flow Graphs 532–534

- Instruction selection picks which instruction to use, instruction scheduling picks the ordering of instructions.
- Register allocation picks which variables to keep in registers, register assignment picks the actual register in which a particular variable should be stored.
- We prefer to keep index variables and variables used in inner loops in registers.
- When we run out of registers, we have to pick a register to spill, i.e. to store back into memory. We avoid inserting spill code in inner loops.

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Summary II

- Code generation checklist:
 - Is the code correct?
 - Are values kept in registers for as long as possible?
 - Is the cheapest register always chosen for spilling?
 - Are values in inner loops allocated to registers?
- A basic block is a straight-line piece of code, with no jumps in or out except at the beginning and end.
- Local code generation considers one basic block at a time, global one procedure, and inter-procedural one program.

Homework

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Homework I

- Translate the program below into quadruples.
- Identify beginnings and ends of basic blocks.
- Build the control flow graph.

PROGRAM P;

```
VAR X : INTEGER; Y : REAL;
BEGIN
X := 1; Y := 5.5;
WHILE X < 10 D0
Y := Y + FLOAT(X);
X := X + 1;
IF Y > 10 THEN
Y := Y * 2.2;
ENDDG;
ENDD0;
END.
```

```
int A[5],x,i,n;
                         (1) i := 1
for (i=1; i<=n; i++) {</pre>
                         (2) IF i>n GOTO (14)
  if (i<n) {
                         (3) IF i>=n GOTO (6)
    x = A[i];
                         (4) x := A[i]
  } else {
                         (5) GOTO (11)
    while (x>4) {
                         (6) IF x<=4 GOTO (11)
      x = x * 2 + A[i];
                         (7) T1 := x*2
                         (8) T2 := A[i]
    };
                         (9) x := T1+T2
  };
  x = x+5;
                         (10) GOTO (6)
                         (11) x := x+5
                         (12) i := i+1
                         (13) GOTO (2)
```

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