

Code Generation

Part I

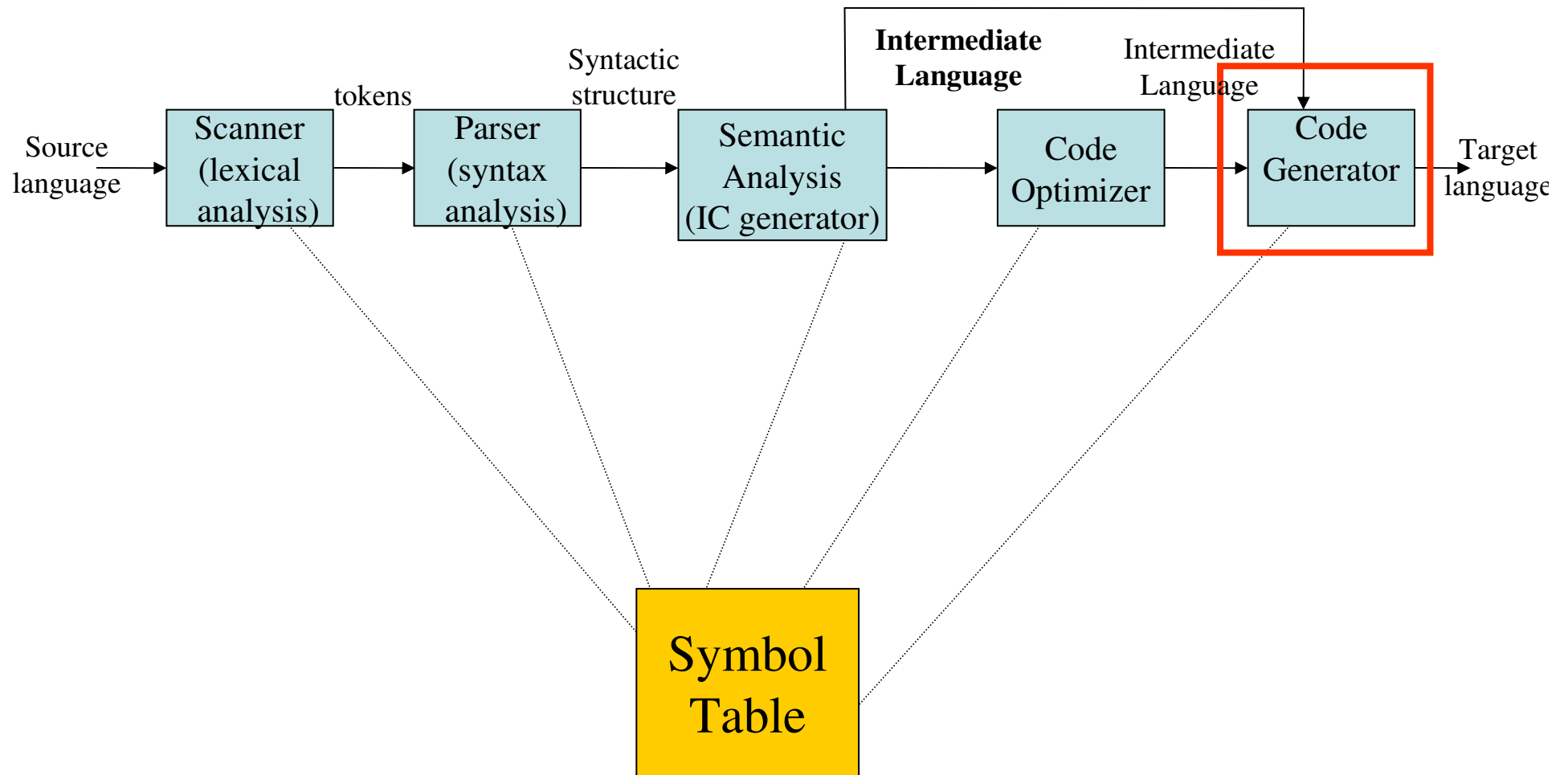
Code Generation

The code generation problem is the task of mapping intermediate code to machine code.

Requirements:

- Correctness
 - Must preserve semantic meaning of source program
- Efficiency
 - Make effective use of available resources
 - Code Generator itself must run efficiently

Compiler Architecture



Code Generation

- Want ***optimal*** code sequences?
 - NP-Complete
 - Generate all correct code sequences
 - ... and see which is best
- We should be content with heuristic techniques that generate good code
- **Optimal?**
 - The target program...
 - ... executes **faster**
 - ... takes less memory

Tasks of a Code Generator:

- Input language:
 - intermediate code (optimized or not)
 - Syntax and semantic errors have been removed
 - Type checking done and type conversion operators inserted
 - Information in the symbol table
- Target architecture: must be **well** understood
 - Significantly influences the difficulty of code generation
 - RISC, CISC
- Interplay between
 - Instruction Selection
 - Register Allocation
 - Instruction Scheduling

Instruction Selection

- There may be a large number of ‘candidate’ machine instructions for a given IR instruction
 - Level of IR
 - High: Each IR translates into many machine instructions
 - Low: Reflects many low-level details of machine
 - Nature of the instruction set
 - Uniformity and completeness
 - Each has own cost and constraints
 - Accurate cost information is difficult to obtain
 - Cost may be influenced by surrounding context

Instruction selection: Machine Idioms

IR Code: $x := x + 5$

Target Code: `mov x, r0`
 `add 5, r0`
 `mov r0, x`

IR Code: $x := x + 1$

Target Code: `mov x, r0`
 `add 1, r0`
 `mov r0, x`

Target Code: `mov x, r0`
 `inc r0`
 `mov r0, x`

Target Code: `inc x`

Register Allocation

- How to best use the bounded number of registers.
- Use of registers
 - Register allocation
 - We select a set of variables that will reside in registers at each point in the program
 - Register assignment
 - We pick the specific register that a variable will reside in.
- Complications:
 - special purpose registers
 - operators requiring multiple registers.
- Optimal assignment is NP-complete

Register Allocation

Multiply Instruction

mul **y, r4**

← Must specify an even numbered register
 $r5 \times y \rightarrow [r4, r5]$

Multiply Instruction

div **y, r4**

← Must specify an even numbered register
 $[r4, r5] \div y \Rightarrow [r4, r5]$

SRDA: Shift Right Double Arithmetic

srda **32, r6**



Register Allocation

IR Code:

```
t := a + b
t := t * c
t := t / d
```

Target Code:

```
mov    a, r1
add    b, r1
mul    c, r0
div    d, r0
mov    r1, t
```

IR Code:

```
t := a + b
t := t + c
t := t / d
```

Target Code:

```
mov    a, r0
add    b, r0
add    c, r0
srda   32, r0
div    d, r0
mov    r1, t
```

Conclusion:

Where you put the result of $t := a + b$ (either $r0$ or $r1$) depends on how it will be used later!!!

[A “chicken-and-egg” problem]

Instruction Scheduling

- Choosing the order of instructions to best utilize resources
- Picking the optimal order is NP-complete problem
- Simplest Approach
 - Don't mess with re-ordering.
 - Target code will perform all operations in the same order as the IR code
- Trickier Approach
 - Consider re-ordering operations
 - May produce better code
 - ... Get operands into registers just before they are needed
 - ... May use registers more efficiently

Moving Results Back to Memory

- When to move results from registers back into memory?
 - After an operation, the result will be in a register.
- **Immediately**
 - Move data back to memory just after it is computed.
 - May make more registers available for use elsewhere.
- ***Wait as long as possible before moving it back***
 - Only move data back to memory “at the end”
 - or “when absolutely necessary”
 - May be able to avoid re-loading it later!

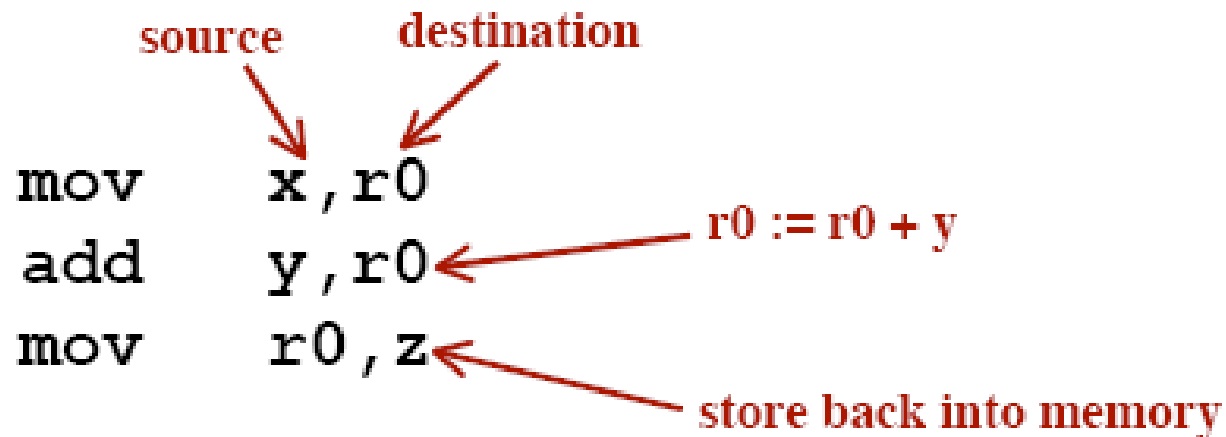
Code Generation Algorithm #1

Simple code generation algorithm:

Define a target code sequence to each intermediate code statement type.

Example Target Machine

2-Address Architecture



The diagram illustrates the code generation for a 2-Address Architecture. It shows three instructions: `mov x, r0`, `add y, r0`, and `mov r0, z`. Red arrows and text provide semantic interpretations: an arrow from `source` points to `x` in the first instruction; an arrow from `destination` points to `r0` in the first instruction; an arrow from `r0 := r0 + y` points to `r0` in the second instruction; and an arrow from `store back into memory` points to `r0` in the third instruction.

```
source      destination
  ↓          ↓
mov  x, r0
add  y, r0 ← r0 := r0 + y
mov  r0, z ← store back into memory
```

Code Generation Algorithm #1

Statement-by-statement generation

Code for each IR instruction is

generated independently of all other IR instructions.

IR Code:

`a := b + c`

`d := a + e`

ALSO: Registers are not used effectively.

Target Code:

...

`mov b, r0`

`add c, r0`

`a := b + c`

`mov r0, a`

`mov a, r0`

`add e, r0`

`d := a + e`

`mov r0, d`

...

This instruction is totally unnecessary!!!

Example Target Machine

A 2-address Architecture

op source, destination

2 operands, at most

Address Modes:

Absolute Memory Address

mov x, y
sub x, y

$x \rightarrow y$

$y - x \rightarrow y$

Register

mov r0, r1
sub r2, r3

$r3 - r2 \rightarrow r3$

Literal

mov 39, r1
sub 47, r2

Data is included in the instruction directly

Indirect Register

mov r0, [r1]

Register contains an address.
Moves data in to word pointed to by r1

Indirect plus Index

mov r0, [r1+48]

Use r1+48 as an address.

Double Indirect

mov r0, [[r1+48]]

Go to memory and fetch a second address, "p".
"p" points to the word.

Op-Codes:

mov
add
sub
mul
...

Evaluating A Potential Code Sequence

- Each instruction has a “*cost*”
Cost = Execution Time
- Execution Time is difficult to predict.
Pipelining, Branches, Delay Slots, etc.
- **Goal:** Approximate the real cost
A “***Cost Model***”

Simplest Cost Model:

Code Length \approx Execution Time
Just count the instructions!

A Better Cost Model

Look at each instruction.

Compute a cost (in “units”).

Count the number of memory accesses.

$$\text{Cost} = 1 + \text{Cost-of-operand-1} + \text{Cost-of-operand-2} + \text{Cost-of-result}$$

	<u>example</u>	<u>cost</u>
Absolute Memory Address	x	1
Register	r0	0
Literal	39	0
Indirect Register	[r1]	1
Indirect plus Index	[r1+48]	1
Double Indirect	[[r1+48]]	2

Example: sub 97, r5 r5 - 97 → r5

$$\text{Cost} = 1 + 0 + 0 + 0 = 1$$

Example: sub 97, [r5] [r5] - 97 → [r5]

$$\text{Cost} = 1 + 1 + 0 + 1 = 3$$

Example: sub [r1], [[r5+48]] [[r5+48]] - [r1] → [[r5+48]]

$$\text{Cost} = 1 + 2 + 1 + 2 = 6$$

Cost Generation Example

IR Code: $x := y + z$

Translation #1:

mov	y, x	3	} Cost = 7
add	z, x	4	

Translation #2:

mov	y, r1	2	} Cost = 6
add	z, r1	2	
mov	r1, x	2	

Lesson #1:
Use Registers

Translation #3:

*Assume “y” is in r1 and “z” is in r2
Assume “y” will not be needed again*

add	r2, r1	1	} Cost = 3
mov	r1, x	2	

Lesson #2:
Keep variables in registers

Lesson #3:
*Avoid or delay storing
into memory.*

Translation #4:

*Assume “y” is in r1 and “z” is in r2
Assume “y” will not be needed again.
Assume we can keep “x” in a register.*

add	r2, r1	1	} Cost = 1

Lesson #4: (not illustrated)
*Use different addressing
modes effectively.*

Basic Blocks

Break IR code into blocks such that...

**The block contains NO transfer-of-control instructions
... except as the last instruction**

- **A sequence of consecutive statements.**
- **Control enters only at the beginning.**
- **Control leaves only at the end.**

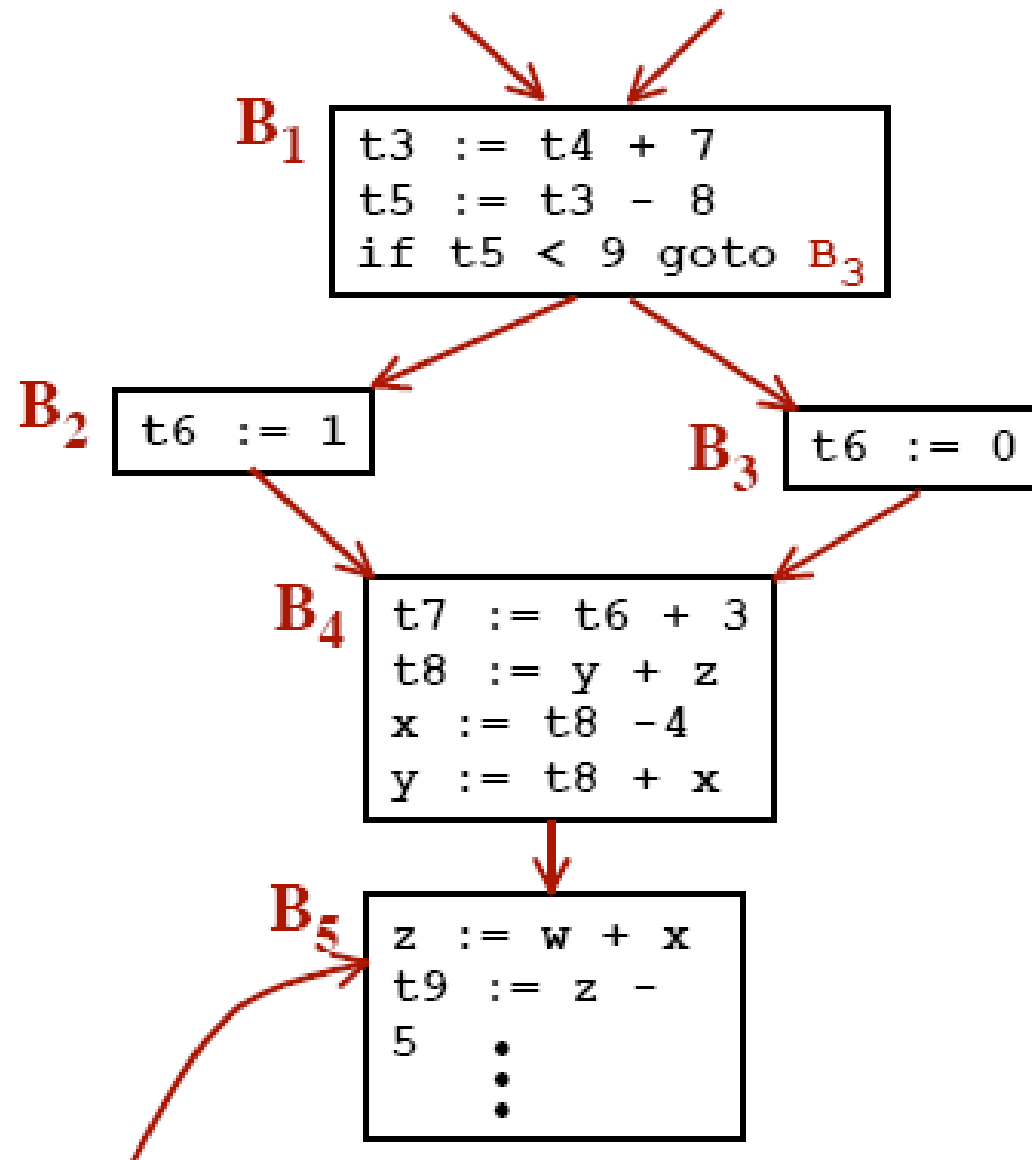
Basic Blocks

```
      •  
      •  
Label_43:  t3 := t4 + 7  
          t5 := t3 - 8  
          if t5 < 9 goto Label_44  
          t6 := 1  
          goto Label_45  
Label_44:  t6 := 0  
Label_45:  t7 := t6 + 3  
          t8 := y + z  
          x := t8 - 4  
          y := t8 + x  
Label_46:  z := w + x  
          t9 := z - 5  
          •  
          •  
          •
```

Basic Blocks

• • •		
Label_43:	t3 := t4 + 7 t5 := t3 - 8 if t5 < 9 goto Label_44	B₁
	t6 := 1 goto Label_45	B₂
Label_44:	t6 := 0	B₃
Label_45:	t7 := t6 + 3 t8 := y + z x := t8 - 4 y := t8 + x	B₄
Label_46:	z := w + x t9 := z - 5	B₅
• • •		

Control Flow Graph



Algorithm to Partition Instructions into Basic Blocks

Concept: “Leader”

The first instruction in a basic block

Idea:

Identify “leaders”

- The first instruction of each routine is a leader.
- Any statement that is the target of a branch / goto is a leader.
- Any statement that immediately follows
 - a branch / goto
 - a call instruction... is a leader

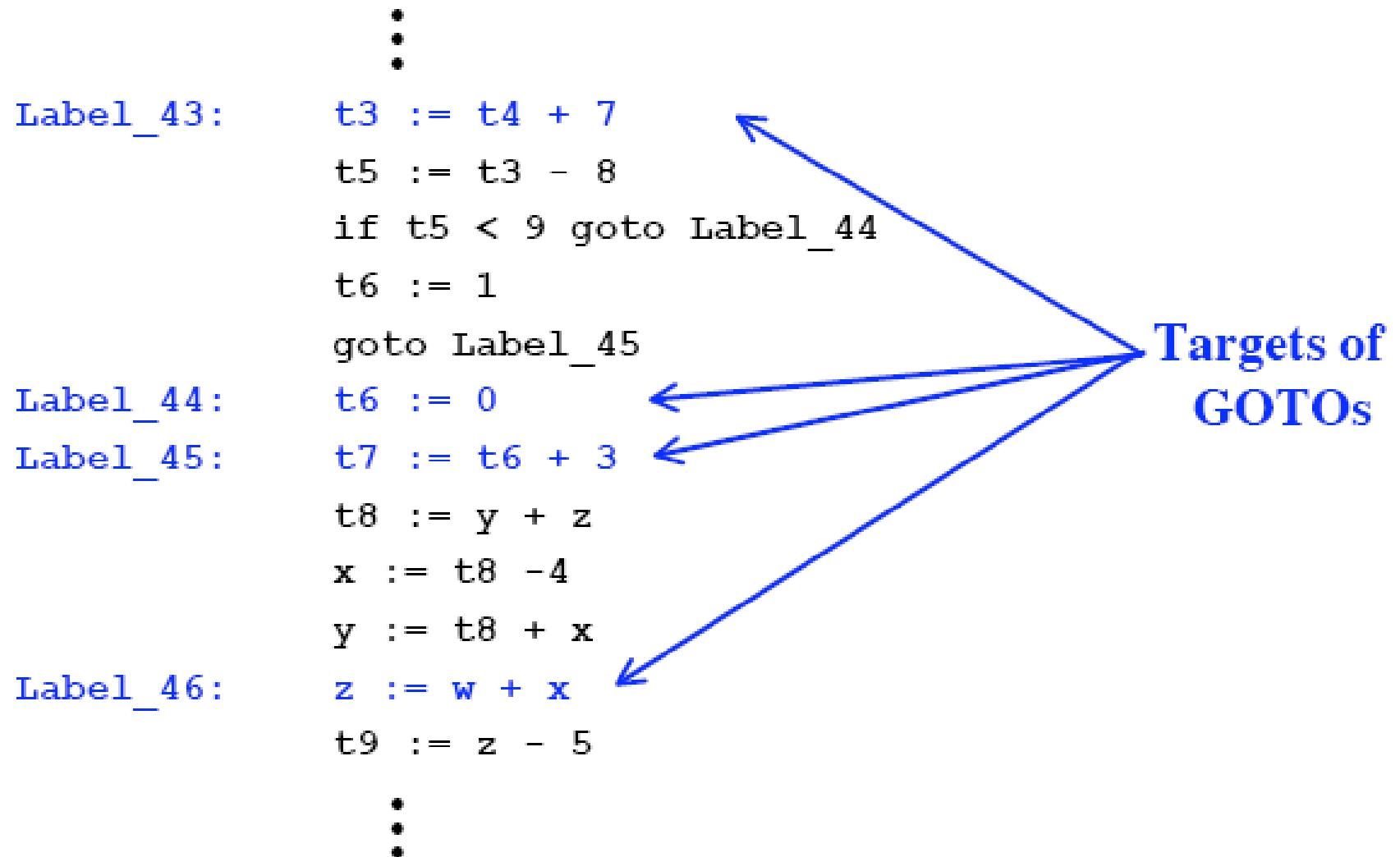
A Basic Block consists of

A leader and all statements that follow it
... up to, but not including, the next leader

Identify Leaders

```
      *  
      *  
      *  
Label_43:  t3 := t4 + 7  
          t5 := t3 - 8  
          if t5 < 9 goto Label_44  
          t6 := 1  
          goto Label_45  
Label_44:  t6 := 0  
Label_45:  t7 := t6 + 3  
          t8 := y + z  
          x := t8 - 4  
          y := t8 + x  
Label_46:  z := w + x  
          t9 := z - 5  
      *  
      *  
      *
```


Identify Leaders



Identify Leaders

```
•
•
Label_43:  t3 := t4 + 7
           t5 := t3 - 8
           if t5 < 9 goto Label_44
           t6 := 1
           goto Label_45
Label_44:  t6 := 0
Label_45:  t7 := t6 + 3
           t8 := y + z
           x := t8 - 4
           y := t8 + x
Label_46:  z := w + x
           t9 := z - 5
•
•
•
```

**Follows
a GOTO**

The diagram illustrates control flow in a program. A blue arrow originates from the 'goto Label_45' statement in the 'Label_43' block and points to the 't6 := 0' statement in the 'Label_44' block. Another blue arrow originates from the same 'goto Label_45' statement and points to the 't7 := t6 + 3' statement in the 'Label_45' block. A text label 'Follows a GOTO' with two arrows points to these two target statements, indicating that both are reached via a GOTO instruction.

Identify Leaders

•
•
•

Label_43: t3 := t4 + 7

 t5 := t3 - 8

 if t5 < 9 goto Label_44

 t6 := 1

 goto Label_45

Label_44: t6 := 0

Label_45: t7 := t6 + 3

 t8 := y + z

 x := t8 - 4

 y := t8 + x

Label_46: z := w + x

 t9 := z - 5

•
•
•

Look at Each Basic Block in Isolation

Use (B)


The set of variables used (i.e., read) by the Basic Block
(... before being written / updated)
The “inputs” to the BB

Def (B)

The set of variables in the Basic Block that are written / assigned to.
The “outputs” of the BB

B₇

<code>x := y + v</code>
<code>z := x * y</code>
<code>v := z + 5</code>
<code>if w < v goto B₉</code>



Use (B₇) = y, v, w

Def (B₇) = x, z, v

View the basic block as a function

$\langle x, z, v \rangle := f(y, v, w)$

Okay to transform the block!

(as long as it computes the same function)

Common Sub-Expression Elimination

Transform:

```
x := b + c  
y := a - d  
d := b + c
```



We compute “b+c” twice!

Into:

```
x := b + c  
y := a - d  
d := x
```

Common Sub-Expression Elimination

Transform:

x := b + c

y := a - d

d := b + c

z := a - d

What about “a-d”...
Do we need recompute?



Into:

x := b + c

y := a - d

d := x

z := a - d

Yes!

“d” has been changed since “a-d” computed!
Now, “a-d” may compute a different value!

Reordering Instructions in a Basic Block

Sometimes we can change the order of instructions...

$x := b + c$	$x := b + c$	$a := x + y$
$d := e + f$	$a := x + y$	$x := b + c$
$a := x + y$	$d := e + f$	$d := e + f$

But some changes would change the program!

Not Okay!

When can we exchange these two instructions?

$$x := \dots v_1 \dots v_2 \dots$$
$$y := \dots v_3 \dots v_4 \dots$$

If and only if...

$v_1 \neq y$

$v_2 \neq y$

$v_3 \neq x$

$v_4 \neq x$

Any variables (including possibly "x" and "y")

Live Variables


“Is some variable x live at some point P in the program?”

Could the value of “ x ” at point P ever be needed later in the execution?

“Point in a program”

A point in a program occurs between two statements.

```
...  
a := b + c  
d := e * f  
c := b - 5  
...
```



Point P

Is it possible that the program will ever read from x along a path from P ?

[... before “ x ” is written / stored into]

Dead Variables

A Variable is “*Dead at point P*”

= Not Live

Value will definitely never be used.

No need to compute it!

If value is in register, no need to store it!

Liveness Example

→ a := b + c
d := e * f
c := b - 5

At this point...

Is b live? YES

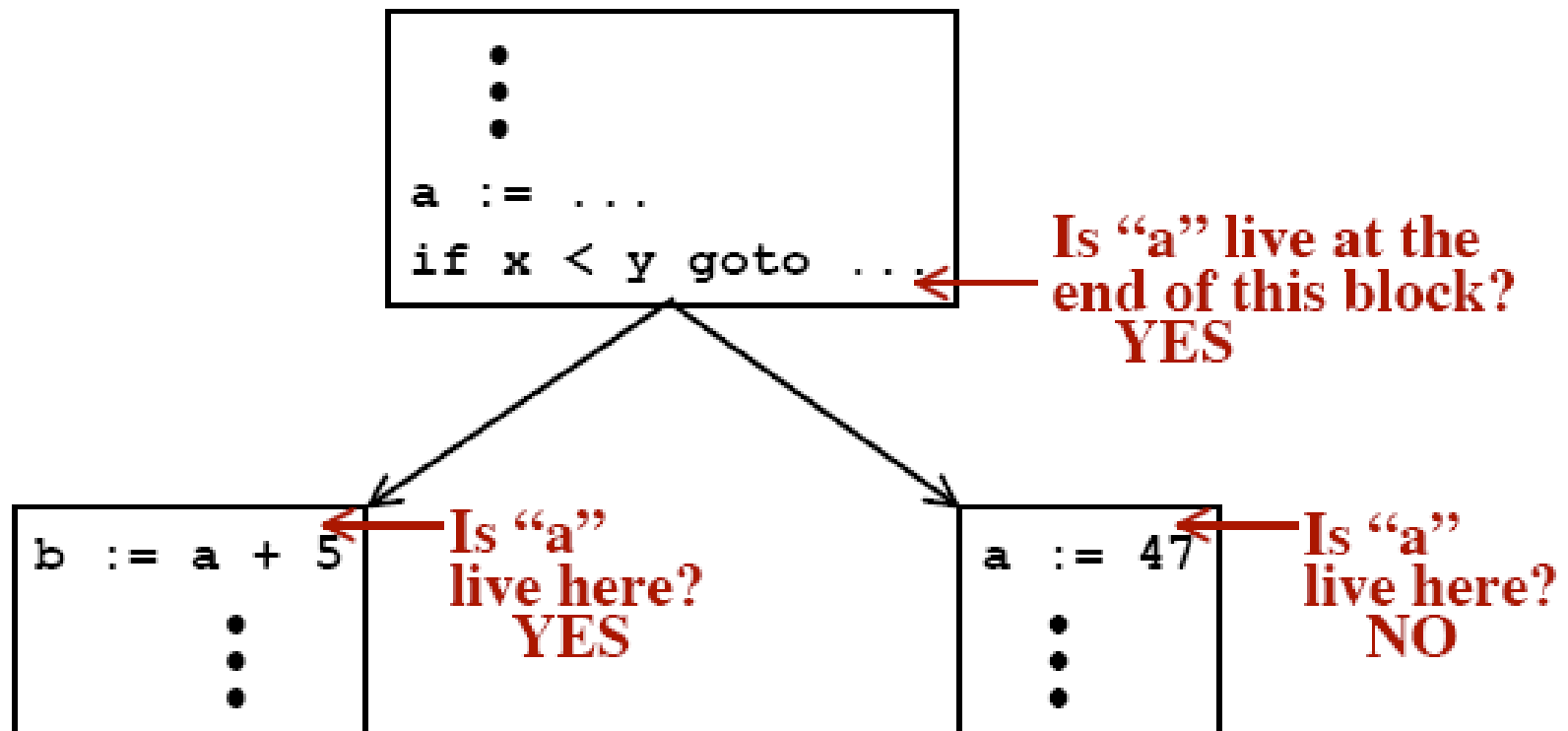
Is c live? NO

Is a live? Don't Know

Is g live? Possibly!

Liveness Example

Must look at the whole “control flow graph” to determine liveness.



Live Variable Analysis

Input:

The Control Flow Graph

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Use}(B_i) \\ \text{Def}(B_i) \end{array} \right\} \text{ for all } B_i$

Output:

$\text{Live}(B_i)$ = a list of all variables live at the end of B_i

Live Variable Analysis missing?

Assume all variables are live at the end of
each basic block.

Temporaries

Assumption:

Each temporary is used in only one basic block
(True of temps for expression evaluation)

```
...  
t5 := xxxx + xxxx  
...  
xxxx := t5 + xxxx  
...
```

*More precisely:
No temp will ever
be in $Use(B_i)$ for any BB*

Conclusion:

Temps are never live at the end of a basic block.

*If Live-Variable-Analysis is missing...
this assumption can at least identify many dead variables.*

Dead Code

“Dead Code” (first meaning)

Any code that cannot be reached.
(Will never be executed.)

```
    x := y + z
    goto Label_45
    a := b + c
    d := e * f
Label_45:
    z := x - a
```

Dead Code (unreachable)

“Dead Code” (second meaning)

A statement which computes a dead variable.

Example:

```
    b := x * y
    a := b + c
    ...
```

← If “a” is not live here...

Then eliminate this statement!!!

Temporaries

**If you can identify a variable which is
not in $\text{Use}(B_i)$ for any basic block
(e.g., a temporary used only in this basic block)**

Then you may...

- **Rename the variable**
- **Keep the variable in a register instead of in memory**
- **Eliminate it entirely (during some optimization)**

***Must be careful that the variable
is not used in other routines***
(i.e., accessed as a non-local from another routine)

Algebraic Transformation

Watch for special cases.

Replace with equivalent instructions

... that execute with a lower cost.

Examples

<code>x := y + 0</code>	\Rightarrow	<code>x := y</code>
<code>x := y * 1</code>	\Rightarrow	<code>x := y</code>
<code>x := y ** 2</code>	\Rightarrow	<code>x := y * y</code>
<code>x := y + 1</code>	\Rightarrow	<code>x := incr(y)</code>
<code>x := y - 1</code>	\Rightarrow	<code>x := decr(y)</code>
<code>...etc...</code>		

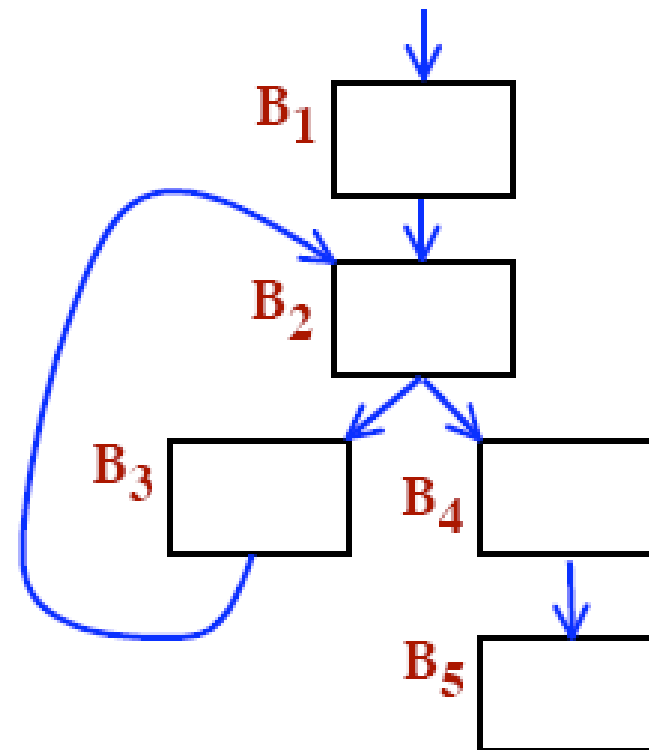
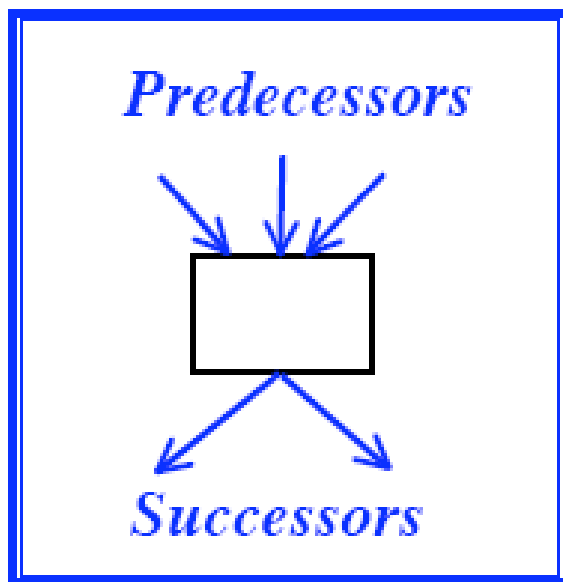
May do some transformations during “Peephole Optimization.”

*Other transformations may be Target Architecture Dependent
(use your “cost model” to determine when to transform)*

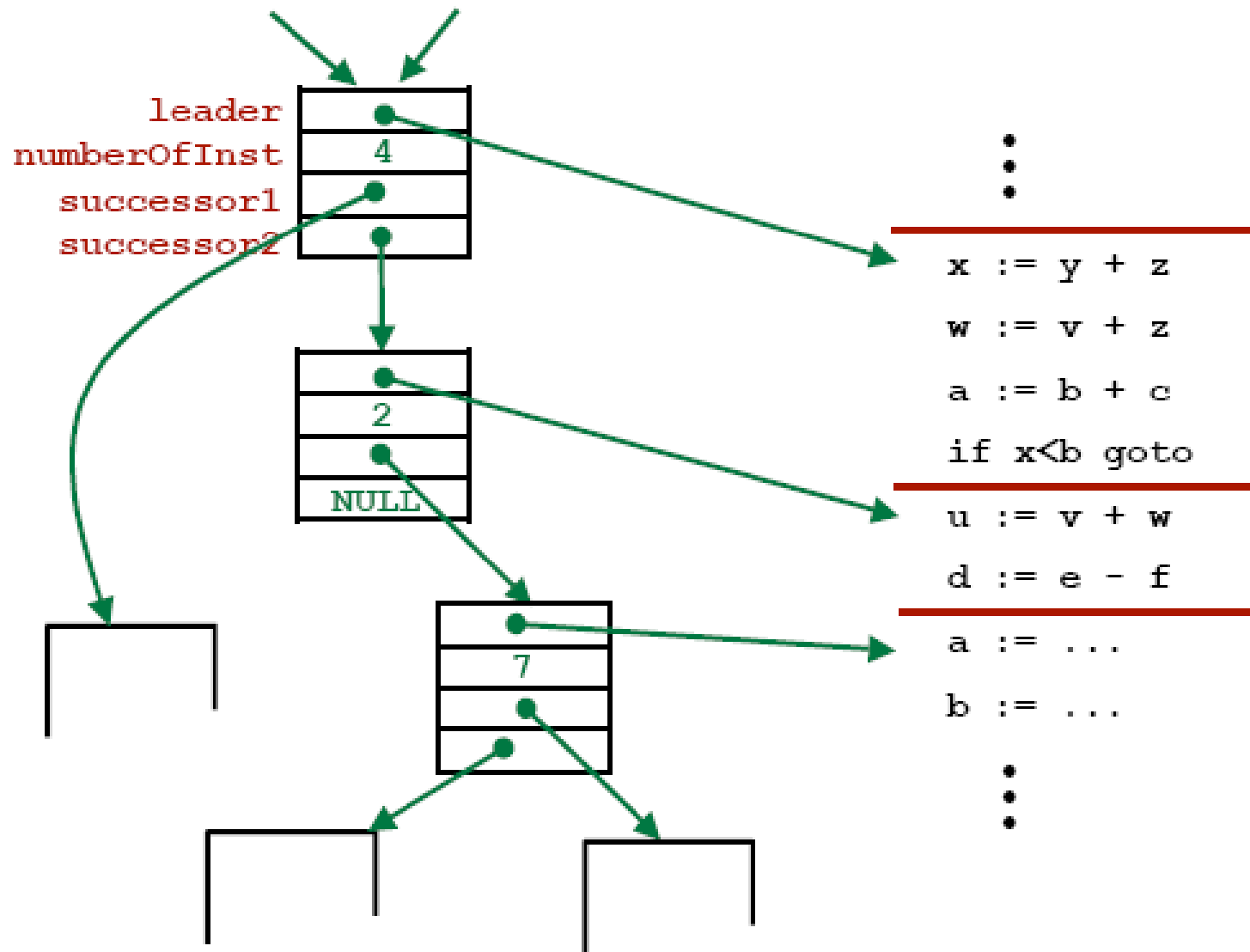
Control Flow Graphs

Definitions:

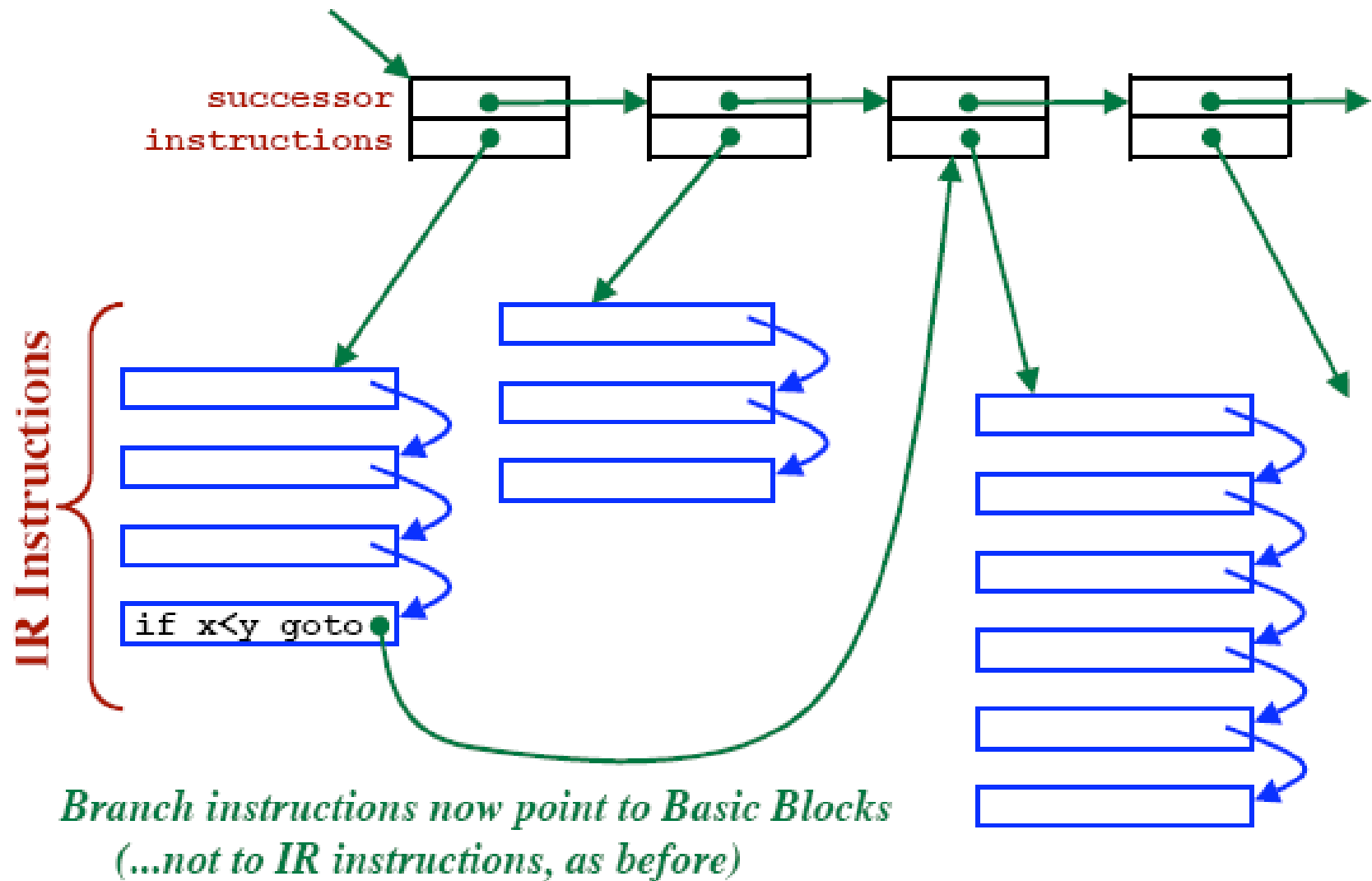
- Initial Block
- Predecessor Blocks
- Successor Blocks



Representing Flow Graphs: Idea 1



Representing Flow Graphs: Idea 2



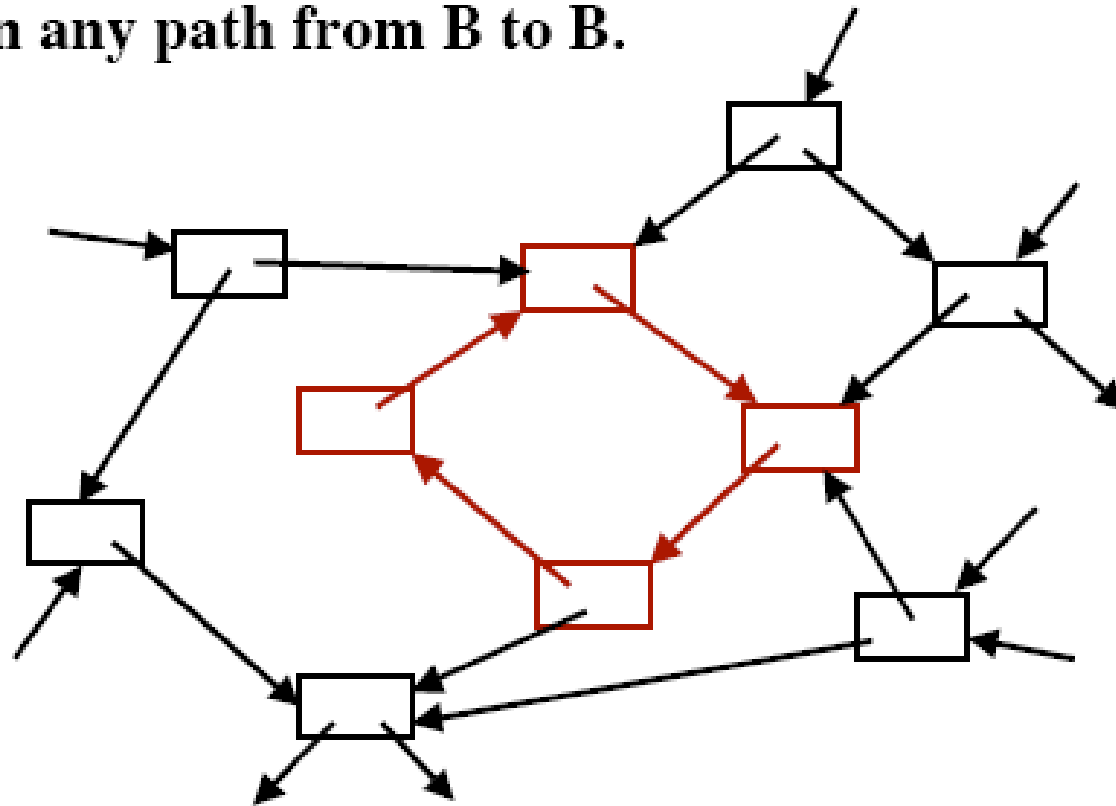
What is Loop?

A *cycle* in the flow graph.

Can go from B back to B.

A *path* from B to B.

All blocks on any path from B to B .



Natural Loop

Each loop has a unique entry (its “Header Block”)

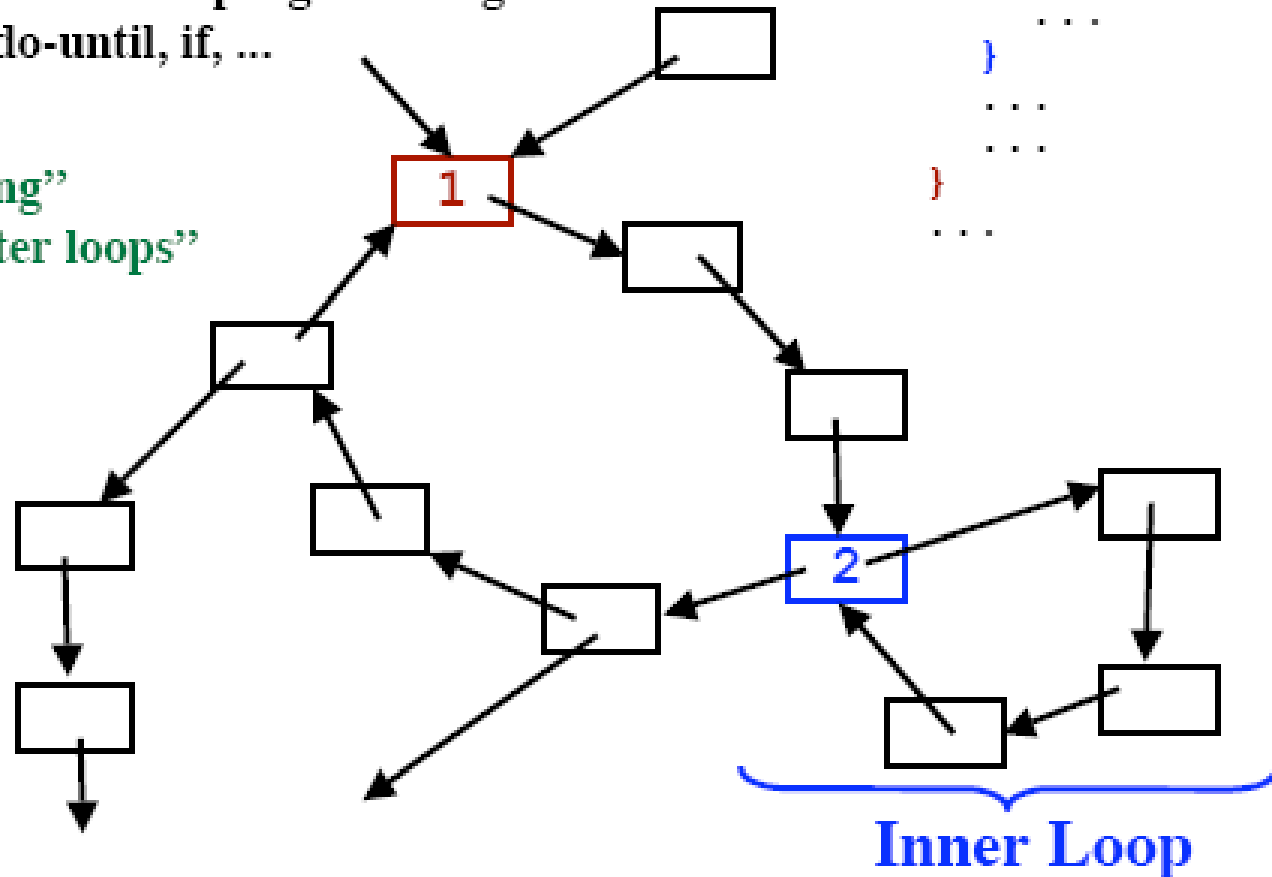
**To reach any block in the loop (from outside the loop)
you must first go through the header block**

Result from “structured programming” constructs
while, for, do-until, if, ...

Concepts:

“loop nesting”

“inner / outer loops”



```

...
...
while(...) {
    ...
    ...
    while(...) {
        ...
        ...
    }
    ...
    ...
}
...

```

Loops with Multiple Entries

- **Very un-natural**
- **Rare in assembly language programs**
- **Impossible in many programming languages**

```
goto Lab45;  
...  
while (x<y) {  
    ...  
    Lab45:  
    ...  
}
```

