Fakultät für Informatik
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Hardware /Software Codesign I

Compiler and Code Generation

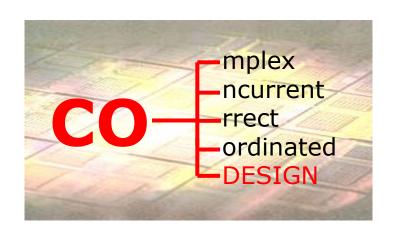
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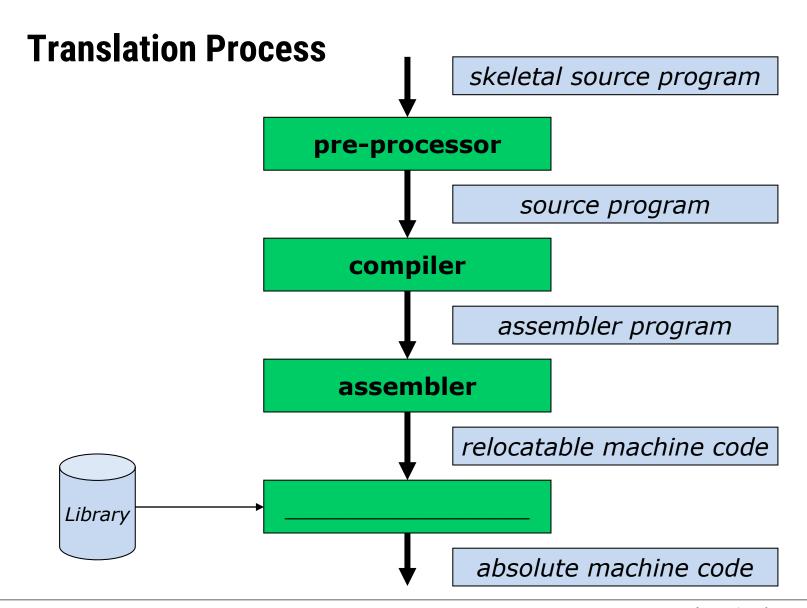


Contents

- Compiler Structure
- Code Generation
- Code Optimisation
- Code Generation for Specialised Processors
- Retargetable Compilers

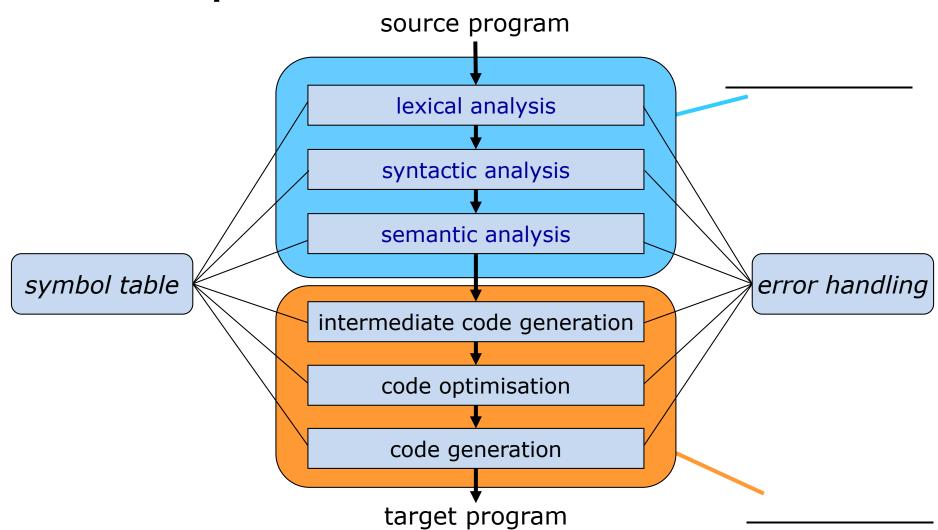








Compiler Phases





Analysis

- lexical analysis
 - scanning of source program and splitting into symbols
 - recognition of regular expressions by ______
- syntactic analysis
 - parsing symbol sequences and construction of sentences
 - sentences are described by a context-free grammar

```
A \rightarrow Identifier := E
```

$$E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid Identifier \mid Number$$

- semantic analysis
 - ensure that program parts fit together
 - e. g. type casts:



Synthesis

- intermediate code generation
 - _____ \rightarrow simplified retargeting
 - should be easy to generate
 - should be easily translatable into target program
- code optimisation
 - trade-off:

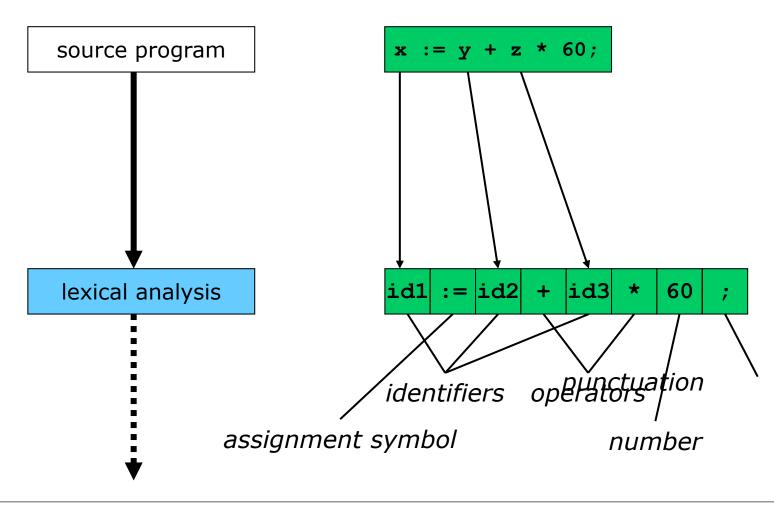
GP processors fast code $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ fast translation

specialised proc. fast code $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ short (low mem.) code $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ low power

- intermediate AND target code can be optimised
- code generation

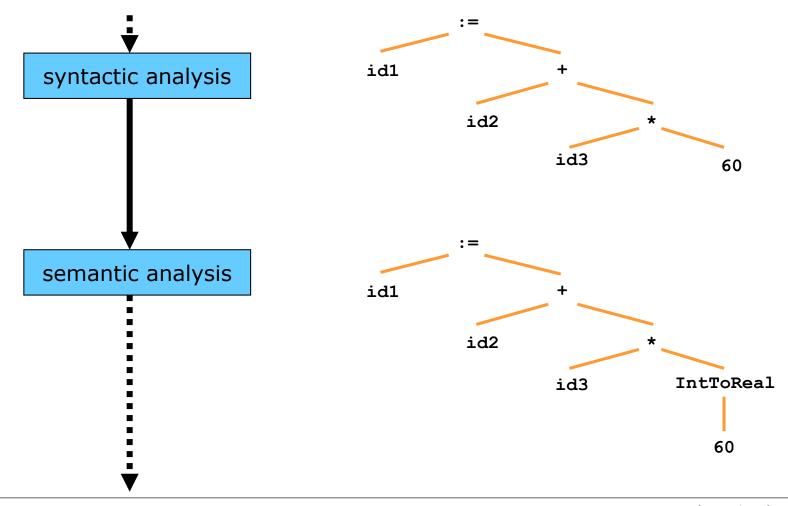


Example (I)



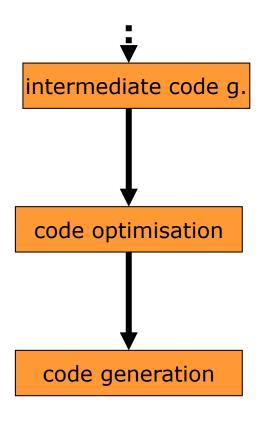


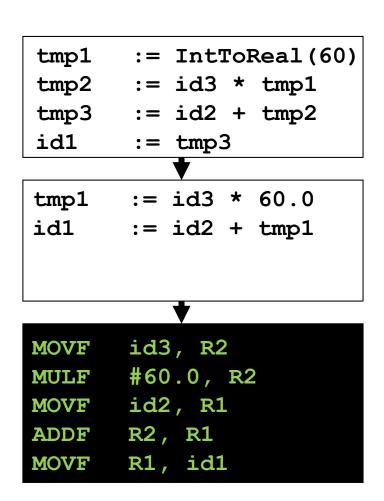
Example (II)





Example (III)

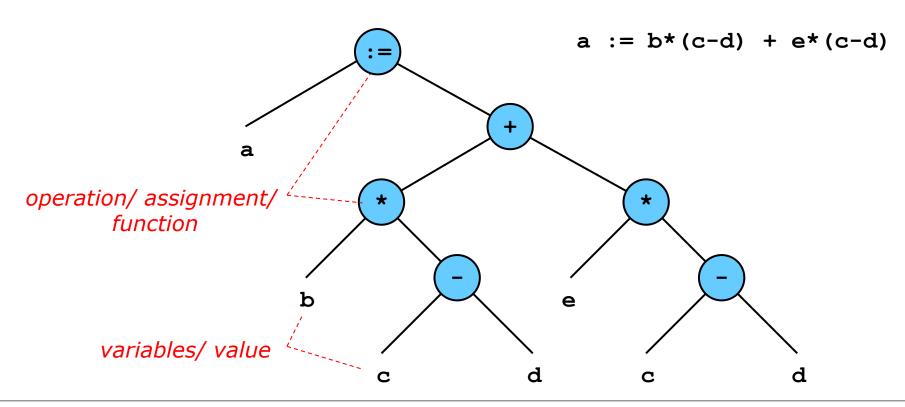






Representations (I)

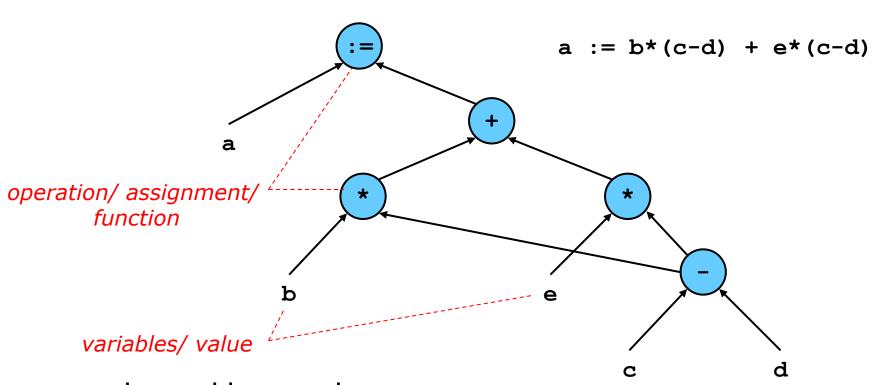
representation of a regular expression (undirected)





Representations (II)

•



· three-address code



Three-Address Code (I)

- three-address instructions
 - maximal 3 addresses (2 operands, 1 result)
 - maximal 1 operation and 2 operands

assignment instructions

$$x := y \text{ op } z$$

 $x := \text{op } y$

$$x := y$$

control flow instructions

```
goto L
if x relop y goto L
```

subroutines

```
param x
call p,n
return y
```



Three-Address Code (II)

- advantages
 - dissection of long arithmetic expressions
 - temporary names facilitate reordering of instructions
 - forms a valid schedule

definition

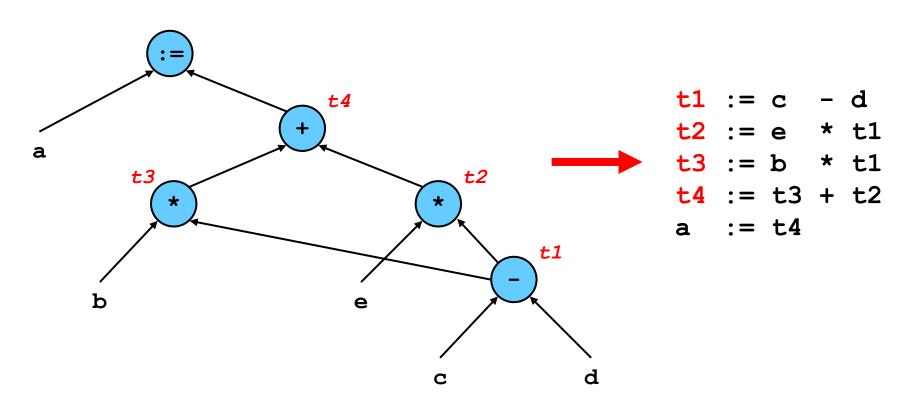
A three-address instruction x := y op z

_____ *x* _____ *y* and *z*



Example

three-address code generation





Basic Blocks (I)

definition

A basic block (BB) is a _______ of instructions where the control flow enters at the beginning and exits at the end, without stopping in-between or branching (except at the end).

example

branching at the end of BB

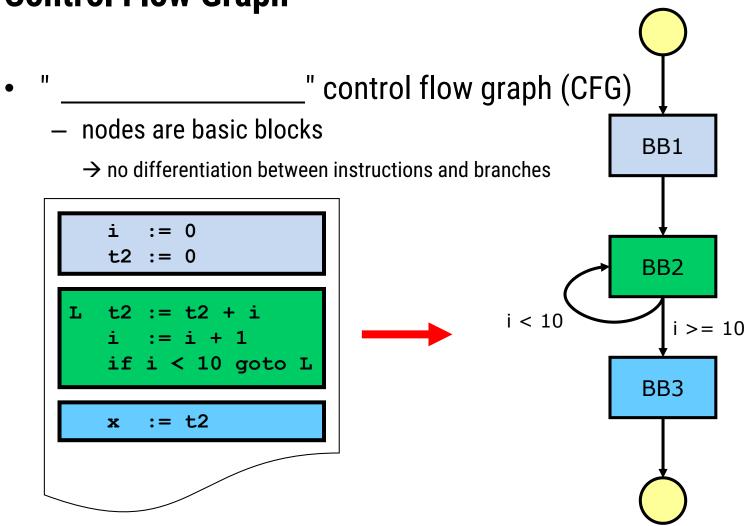


Basic Blocks (II)

- a sequence of three-address instructions = set of basic blocks
 - 1. determine the block beginnings:
 - the _____ is a block beginning
 - targets of (un)conditional jumps are block beginnings
 - instructions that follow (un)conditional jumps are block beginnings
 - 2. determine the basic blocks:
 - every block beginning creates a basic block
 - the basic block consists of the instructions from block beginning to the next block beginning (exclusive) or to the end of program



Control Flow Graph





Directed Acyclic Graph of a BB

definition

A DAG of a basic block is a directed acyclic graph with following node markings:

- _____ marked with a variable or constant name, variables with initial values are assigned the index 0
- inner nodes marked with operator symbol, operator decides whether value or address of associated variables is used
- optionally, node can be marked with a sequence of variable names, which are assigned the computed value



Example (I)

```
int i, prod, a[20], b[20];
[...]

prod = 0;
i = 0;
do
{
   prod = prod + a[i] * b[i];
   i++;
} while (i < 20)</pre>
```

C program

length of integer = 4 byte

```
(1) prod := 0

(2) i := 0

(3) t1 := 4 * i

(4) t2 := a[t1]

(5) t3 := 4 * i

(6) t4 := b[t3]

(7) t5 := t4 * t2

(8) t6 := prod + t5

(9) prod := t6

(10) t7 := i + 1

(11) i := t7

(12) if i < 20 goto (3)
```

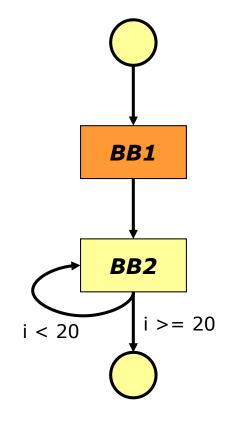
three-address code



Example (II)

```
(1)
    prod := 0
(2)
    i := 0
(3)
   t1 := 4 * i
(4)
   t2 := a[t1]
(5)
   t3 := 4 * i
(6)
   t4 := b[t3]
(7) t5 := t4 * t2
(8)
   t6 := prod + t5
    prod := t6
(9)
(10) t7 := i + 1
(11) i := t7
(12) if i < 20 goto (3)
```

```
BB1
(1)
    prod := 0
(2)
    i := 0
                  BB2
    t1 := 4 * i
(3)
(4) t2 := a[t1]
(5) t3 := 4 * i
(6) t4 := b[t3]
(7) t5 := t4 * t2
(8) t6 := prod + t5
(9)
    prod := t6
(10) t7 := i + 1
(11) i := t7
(12) if i < 20 goto (3)
```



three-address code

basic blocks

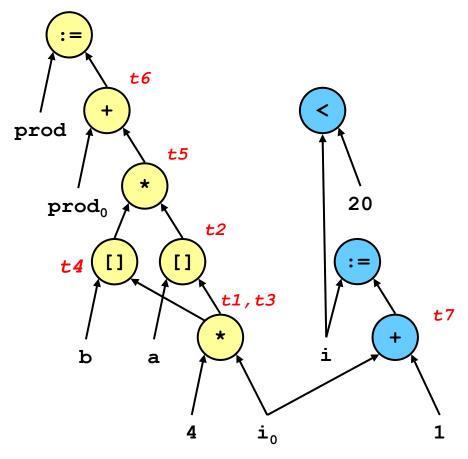
20

CFG



Example (III)

```
BB2
(3)
(4)
    t2 := a[t1]
(5)
    t3 := 4 * i
(6)
   t4 := b[t3]
    t5 := t4 * t2
(7)
    t6 := prod + t5
(8)
    prod := t6
(9)
    t7 := i + 1
(11) i := t7
(12) if i < 20 goto (3)
```



basic block 2

DAG for BB2

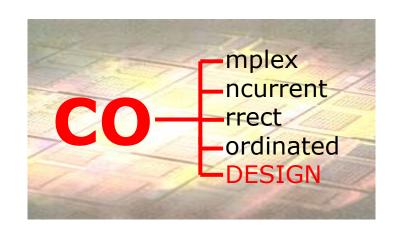
21



Contents

Compiler Structure

- Code Generation → Basics
- Code Optimisation
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22



Machine Model (I)

- set of n registers $\{R_0, R_1, ..., R_{n-1}\}$
- byte addressable, word = 4 byte
- instruction format

- e.g. MOV R0, a
 ADD R1, R0
- each instruction has cost of 1
- addresses of operands follow the instructions (in the code)



Machine Model (II)

addressing modes

mode	form	address	added cost
absolute	M	М	1
register	R	R	0
indexed	c(R)	c + contents(R)	1
indirect register	*R	contents (R)	0
indirect indexed	*c(R)	contents (c+ contents (R))	1
immediate	#c	С	1



Code Generation

- code generation = ______
 - allocation:
 - mostly the components are fixed (e. g. target CPU)
 - binding:
 - register binding (allocation/ assignment)
 - instruction selection
 - scheduling:
 - · instruction sequencing
- requirements
 - correct code
 - efficient code
 - efficient generation



Register Binding

- goal: efficient usage of available registers
 - instructions with register operands are generally shorter and faster than instructions with memory operands (important with CISC)
 - minimize number of LOAD/STORE instr. (important with RISC)

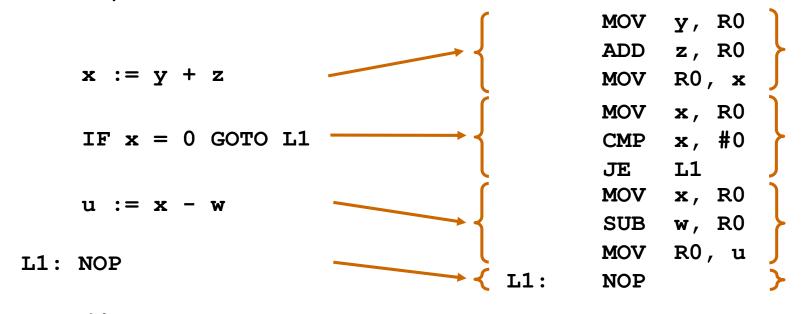
•

- determine the set of variables that should be held in registers for each time
- register assignment
 - assign these set of variables to the available registers
- optimal register binding
 - NP-hard problem
 - consider additional restrictions for register use by the processor architecture, compiler or operating system



Instruction Selection

code patterns for each three-address instruction

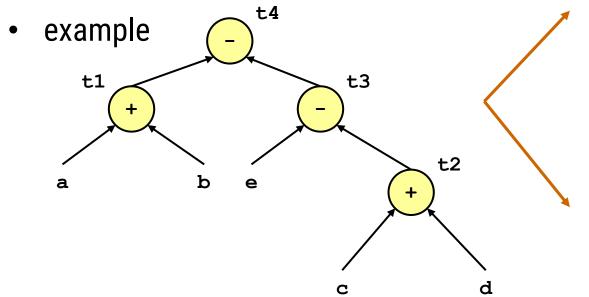


- problems:
- often inefficient code generated → code optimisation
- several matching target instructions
- some instructions only with _
- exploitation of special processor features (MMX, ...)



Scheduling (I)

- goal: optimal instruction sequence
 - _____ of instructions for the given number of registers
 - NP-hard problem



code 2



Scheduling (II)

(2 registers available)

- (1) MOV c, R0
- (2) ADD d, R0
- (3) MOV e, R1
- (4) SUB R0, R1
- (5) MOV a, R0
- (6) ADD b, R0
- (7) SUB R1, R0
- (8) MOV R0, t4

```
t1 := a + b
t2 := c + d
t3 := e - t2
t4 := t1 - t3
| code 2
```

- (1) MOV a, R0
- (2) ADD b, R0
- (3) MOV c, R1
- (4) ADD d, R1
- (5) MOV R0, t1
- (6) MOV e, R0
- (7) SUB R1, R0
- (8) MOV t1, R1
- (9) SUB R0, R1
- (10) MOV R1, t4



Life Time of Variables (I)

definition

```
S = \{S_1, ..., S_n\} ... set of three address instructions
```

$$G = (V,E)$$
 ... control flow graph

 S_i writes a variable x, S_i reads x

if a path (S_i, S_i) from S_i to S_i exists in G without rewriting x $\rightarrow x$ is **alive** in every instruction line S_k of path (S_i, S_i)

life time of variable x = set of all nodes where x is alive

definition

A name (variable) is active at a certain point inside a basic block if its value is used afterward – possibly in another basic block.



Life Time of Variables (II)

• states of a variable x in a instruction line i:

-	_ :	x is read (used) after line i
	_ :	x is not read after line i
	_ :	line number of next usage of x

- determining life times
 - 1. go to the end of the BB and find the variables which must be active at the block exit
 - 2. go back to the block entry instruction by instruction for each instruction (I) x := y op z

```
if x is INACTIVE, remove the instruction (I)
else set x to INACTIVE and NEXT-USE to none
set y, z to ACTIVE and NEXT-USE to (I)
```



Simple Code Generator (I)

- for each three-address instruction $x := y \circ p z$
 - 1. call getreg(x) to determine the location L, where the result **x** will be written
 - 2. determine y' the current location of y
 - 3. if $y' \neq L$, generate MOV y', L
 - 4. determine z' the current location of z
 - 5. generate op z', L
- current location of variable +

 - if t is in memory and register, prefer the register



Simple Code Generator (II)

- L = getreg(x) for the instruction x := y op z
 - 1. if y is stored in a register R, which is not used by another variable, and y has no NEXT-USE: return (R)
 - 2. if an empty register R exists: return (R)
 - 3. if x has a **NEXT-USE** in the BB or op is an operator which needs a register (e.g. indirect addressing), find a used register R, store the register content to memory using MOV R, M and return (R)
 - 4. if x has no further usage in the basic block or no feasible register could be found: $return(M_x)$

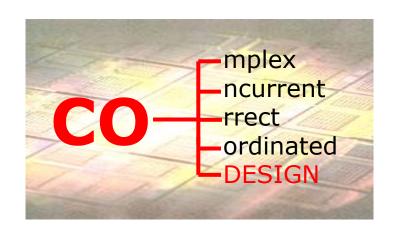


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→ Register Binding

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Register Allocation

- global register allocation
 - determine number of
 - for global variables
 - for loop variables
 - for variables in basic blocks
 - user-defined register allocation
 - e.g. in programming language C: register int i;
- algorithms for optimised register allocation
 - usage counters (loops)
 - graph colouring (inside basic blocks)



Allocation by Usage Counters (I)

- a loop L consists of several basic blocks
- if a variable **a** is kept in a register during the complete execution of **L**, costs can be saved:
 - cost unit for each use of a
 - ADD RO, R1 (cost ___) instead of ADD a, R1 (cost _
 - cost units at the end of the basic block, if a has been defined in the basic block and is active afterwards
 - no save instruction MOV RO, a (cost ____)

see slide 24 (added cost)



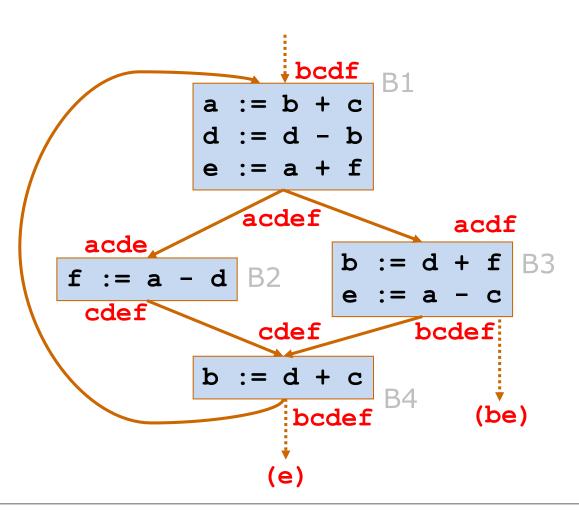
Allocation by Usage Counters (II)

calculate cost savings for the loop

- uses (a, B) counts the number of usages of a in basic block B
 before a is defined
- active (a,B) is '1', if a has been defined in basic block B and is active at the end of the basic block, otherwise '0'
- approximation, because of assumption
 - all basic blocks in L are executed equally often
 - L is executed for many times



Example



```
active(a,B1)
              = 1 (*2)
uses (a, B1)
uses(a,B2)
uses (a,B3)
uses (a, B4)
cost red.
              = 4
```

```
cost reduction:
  a: 4
 b: 6
  c: 3
  d: 6
  e: 4
  f: 4
```

```
3 registers available:
   b \rightarrow R0
   d \rightarrow R1
   a \rightarrow R2
```



Allocation by Graph Colouring

- algorithm
 - code generation with **unlimited number** of registers (symbolic registers) → each variable name is a symbolic register
 - 2. **life time** determination of the variables (symbolic registers)
 - 3. construction of the register conflict graph
 - 4. mapping of the symbolic registers to physical registers by **graph** colouring

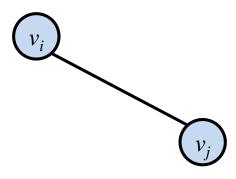


Register Conflict Graph

definition

A register conflict graph G=(V,E) is an undirected graph, where the nodes V represent the variables (symbolic registers) and the edges E represent the conflicts between the variables.

An edge between v_i , $v_j \in V$ indicates that the _____ of v_i and v_j overlap. Thus, v_i and v_j cannot share a register.

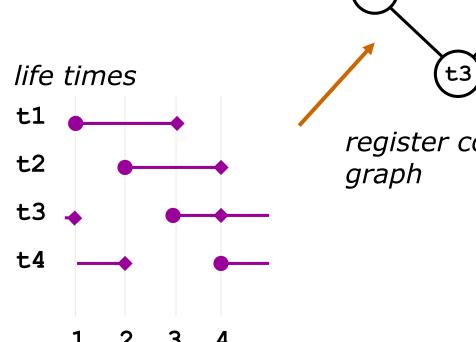




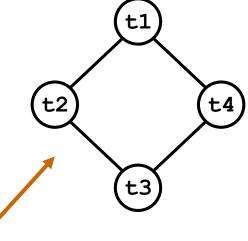
Example

loop body (BB)

- **(1)** := t3
- (2) t2 := t4 * 20
- (3) t3 := t1 + 5
- t4 := t2 + t3(4)



41

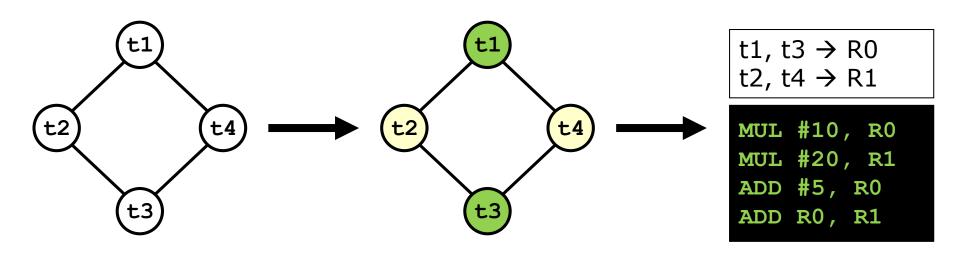


register conflict



Graph Colouring (I)

 colour the nodes of G with l colours in a way that no two adjacent nodes get the same colour (NP-complete problem)





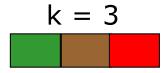
Graph Colouring (II)

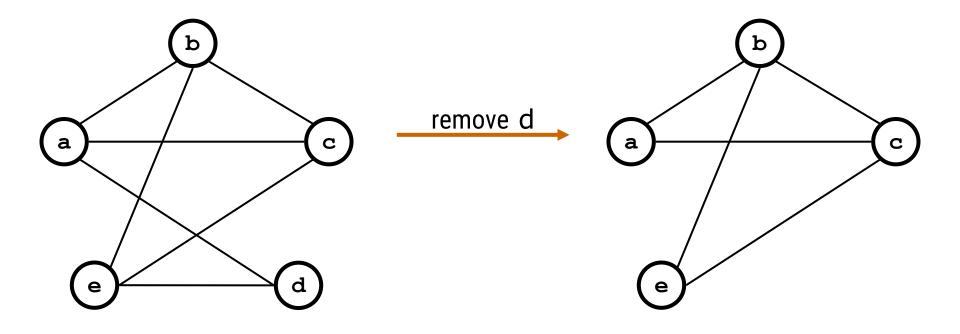
- **heuristic:** can a graph G = (V, E) be coloured with l colours?
 - algorithm
 - 1. find a node v_i in G with deg(vi) < 1
 - 2. create G' = (V', E') by removing v_i and all its edges
 - 3. if _____ then l-colouring is possible, return true else

if all nodes v_i in G' have a deg(vi) >= 1 then l-colouring not possible, return false else G = G', goto 1

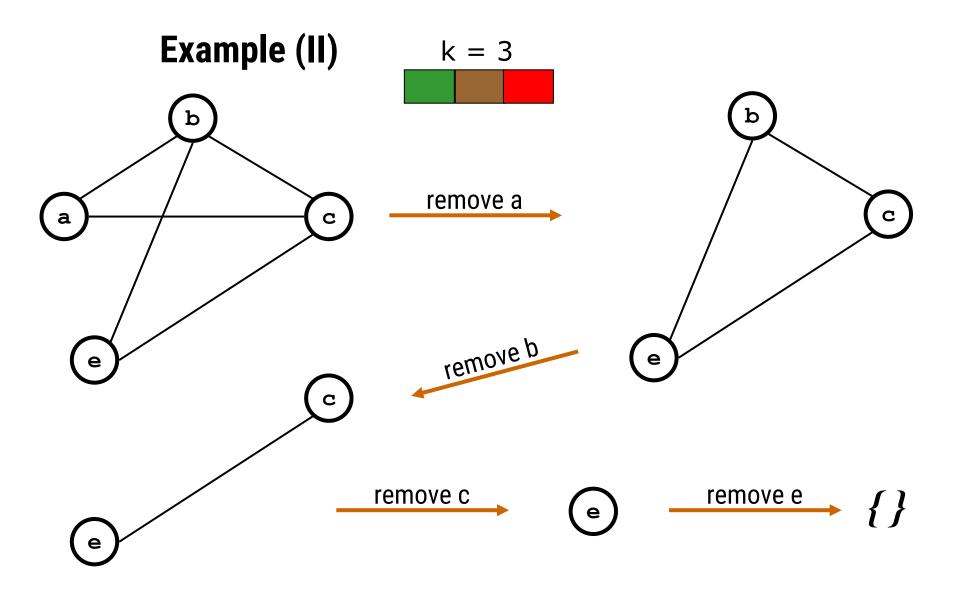


Example (I)



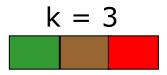






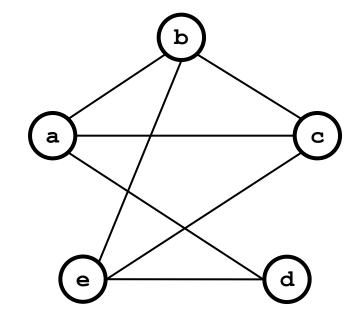


Example (III)



sequence of removed nodes:

$$d \rightarrow a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow e$$



Problem: heuristic is sensitive against _

→ see exercise

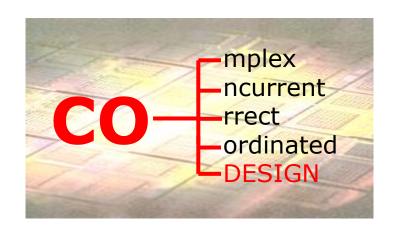


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Classification

- static / dynamic:
 - scheduling during design- or runtime?
- - tasks interruptible?
- with / without resource restrictions:
 - scheduling influenced by resources?
- aperiodic / periodic (iterative)
 - scheduling calculable?



Scheduling without Resource Constraints

- ASAP (As Soon As Possible)
 - determines earliest possible start times of tasks
 - result: minimal latency
- ALAP (As Late As Possible)
 - determines latest possible start times of tasks for a given latency
- ______ *M* of a task:
 - difference of start times: M = time(ALAP) time(ASAP)
 - $-M = 0 \rightarrow \text{task}$ is part of critical path



Example

equations (one program)

$$x = ((a \cdot b) + (b \cdot c) - d) - (c \cdot d \cdot f)$$

$$y = (d \cdot e) + c$$

$$z = (e+f) << 2$$

three-address code

(2)
$$t2 := b * c$$

$$(3)$$
 t3 := t1 + t2

$$(4)$$
 $t4 := t3 - d$

$$(5)$$
 t5 := c * d

(6)
$$t6 := t5 * f$$

$$(7) x := t4 - t6$$

(8)
$$u1 := d * e$$

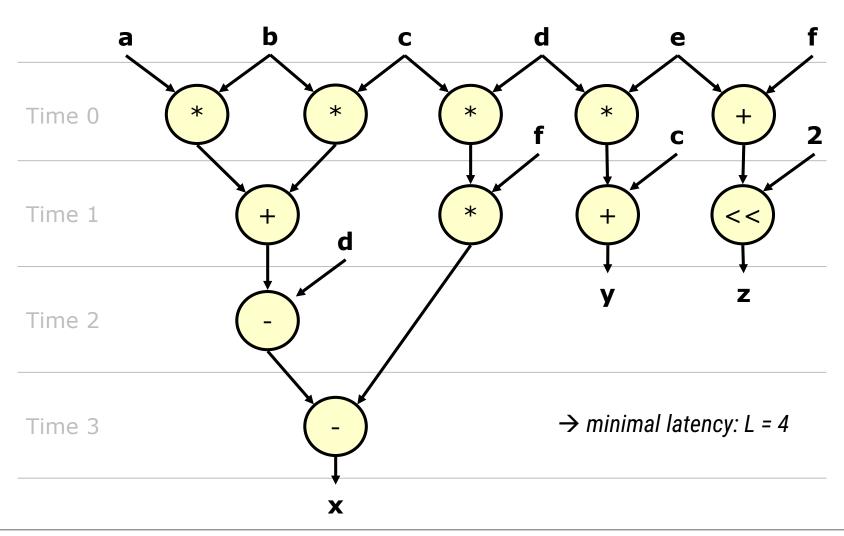
(9)
$$y := u1 + c$$

$$(10) v1 := e + f$$

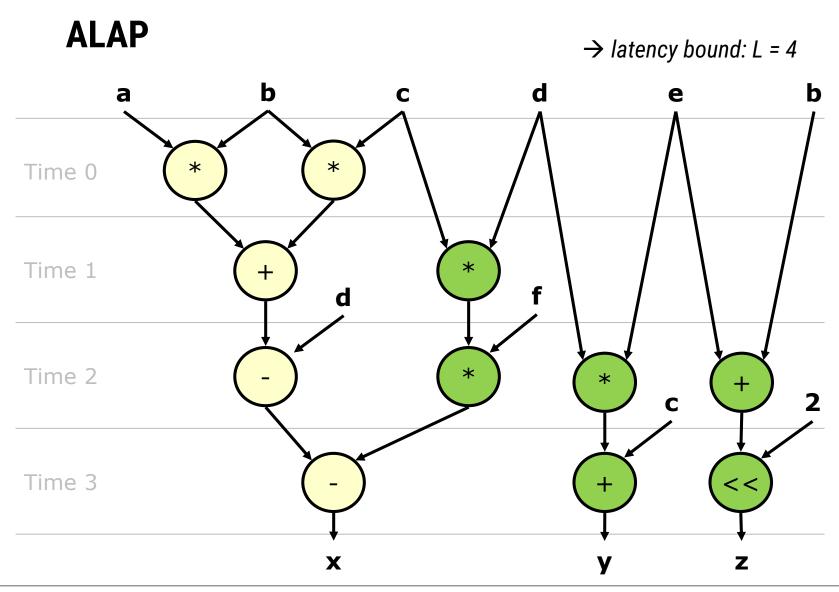
$$(11)$$
 Z := v1 << 2



ASAP

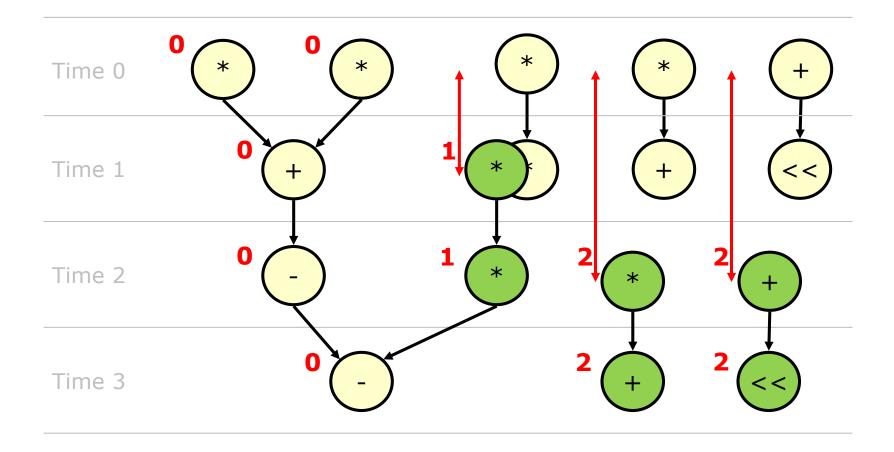








Mobility





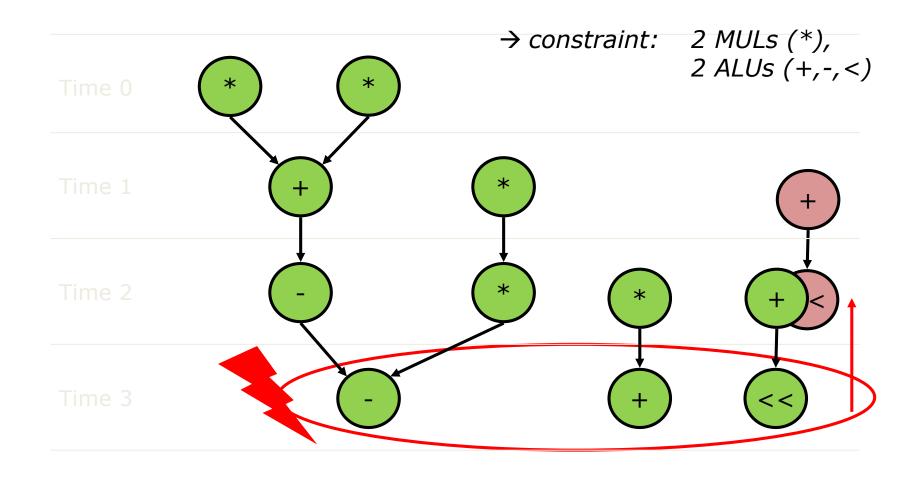
Scheduling under Resource Constraints

- extended ASAP/ ALAP
 - calculate ASAP or ALAP
 - move tasks down (ASAP) or up (ALAP) until resource constraints are satisfied

- operations are prioritised depending on a given criteria (e. g. number of children nodes, mobility, ...)
- assign to each free resource in each time step the task which is executable and has the highest priority



Extended ALAP





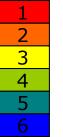
List Scheduling

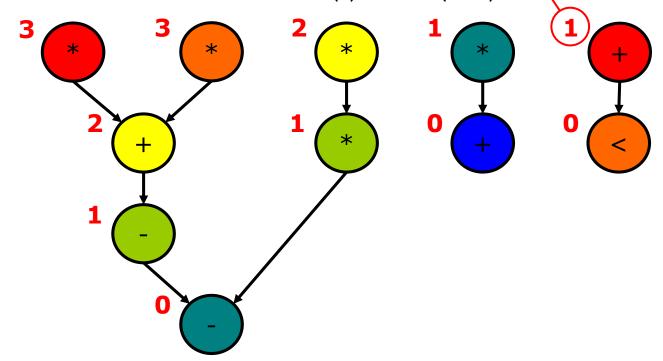
example

prioritisation criterion: number of children nodes

– resource constraints: 1 MUL (*), 1 ALU (+,-,<)</p>

exec. time







Periodic Scheduling

