

Code Generation

Part II

Chapter 9

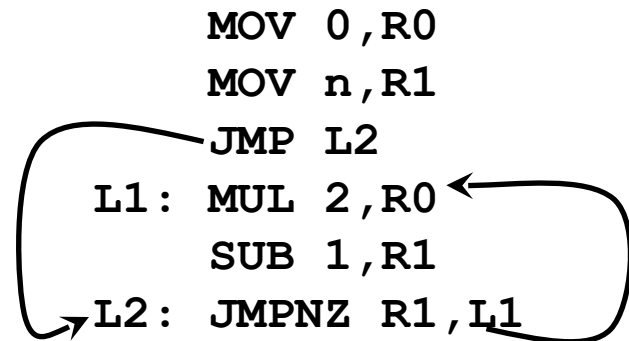
Flow Graphs

- A *flow graph* is a graphical depiction of a sequence of instructions with control flow edges
- A flow graph can be defined at the intermediate code level or target code level

```

MOV 1,R0
MOV n,R1
JMP L2
L1: MUL 2,R0
    SUB 1,R1
L2: JMPNZ R1,L1

```

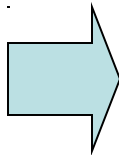


Basic Blocks

- A *basic block* is a sequence of consecutive instructions with exactly one entry point and one exit point (with natural flow or a branch instruction)

```

MOV 1,R0
MOV n,R1
JMP L2
L1: MUL 2,R0
    SUB 1,R1
L2: JPNZ R1,L1
  
```



```

MOV 1,R0
MOV n,R1
JMP L2
  
```

```

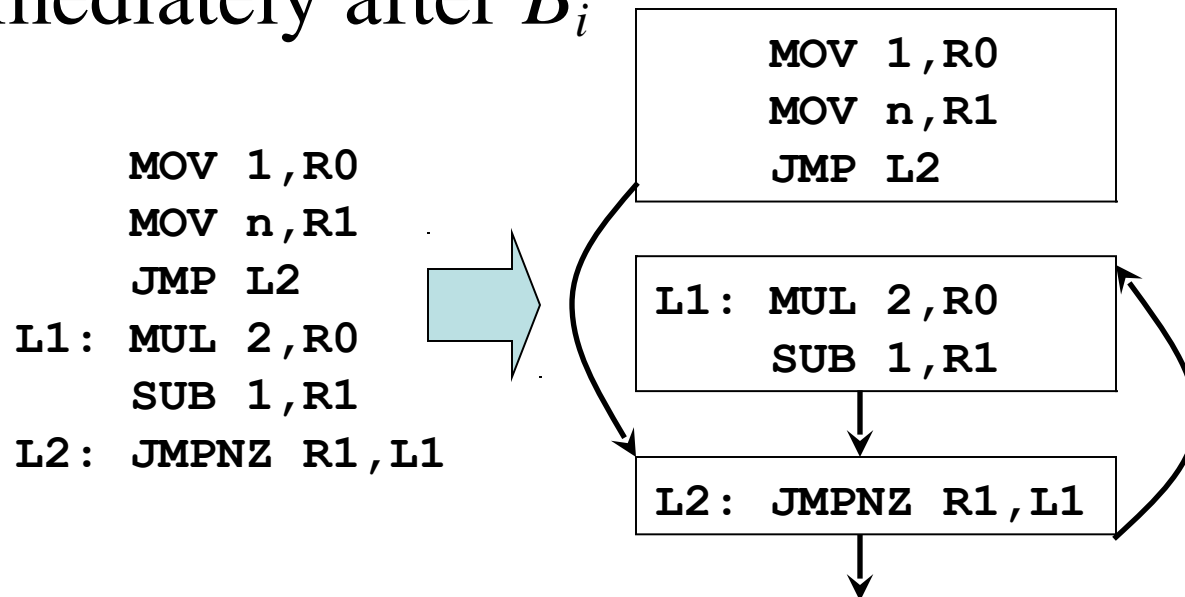
L1: MUL 2,R0
    SUB 1,R1
  
```

```

L2: JPNZ R1,L1
  
```

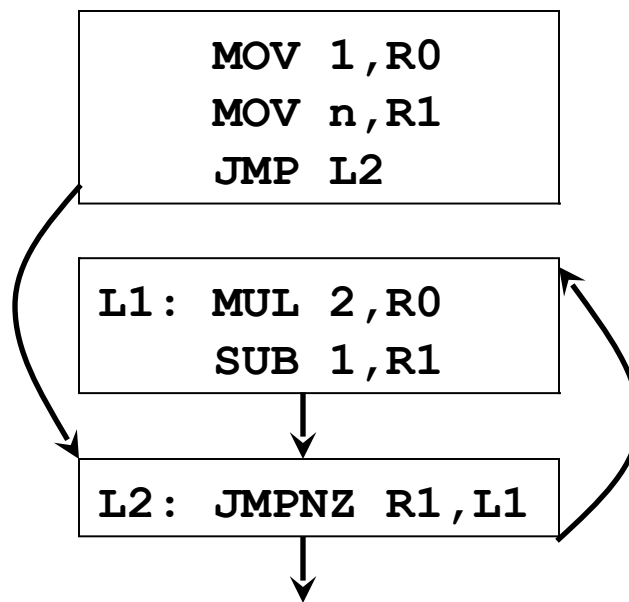
Basic Blocks and Control Flow Graphs

- A *control flow graph* (CFG) is a directed graph with basic blocks B_i as vertices and with edges $B_i \rightarrow B_j$ iff B_j can be executed immediately after B_i



Successor and Predecessor Blocks

- Suppose the CFG has an edge $B_1 \rightarrow B_2$
 - Basic block B_1 is a *predecessor* of B_2
 - Basic block B_2 is a *successor* of B_1



Partition Algorithm for Basic Blocks

Input: A sequence of three-address statements

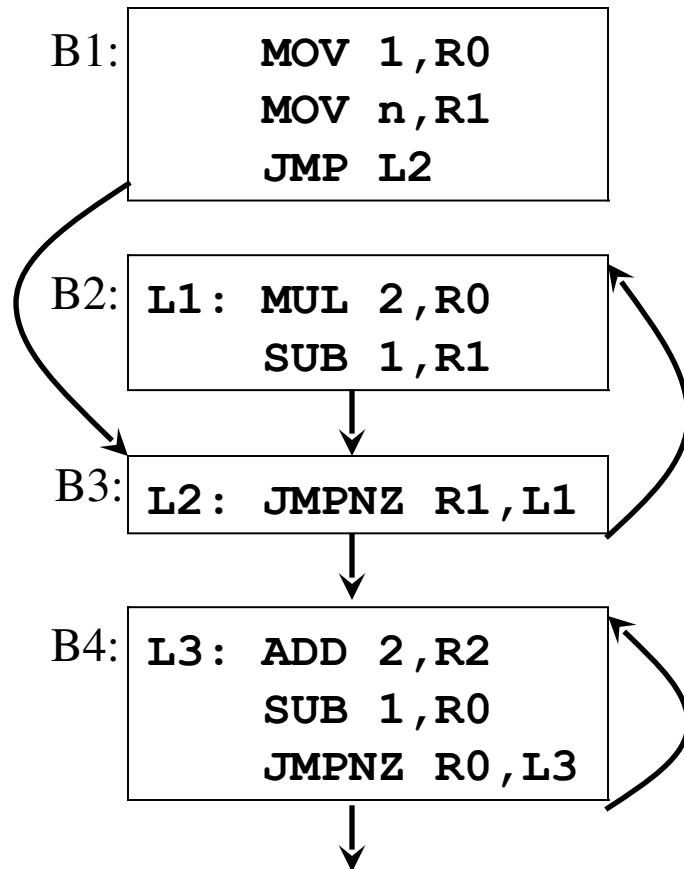
Output: A list of basic blocks with each three-address statement in exactly one block

1. Determine the set of *leaders*, the first statements of basic blocks
 - a) The first statement is the leader
 - b) Any statement that is the target of a goto is a leader
 - c) Any statement that immediately follows a goto is a leader
2. For each leader, its basic block consists of the leader and all statements up to but not including the next leader or the end of the program

Loops

- A *loop* is a collection of basic blocks, such that
 - All blocks in the collection are *strongly connected*
 - The collection has a unique *entry*, and the only way to reach a block in the loop is through the entry

Loops (Example)



Strongly connected components:

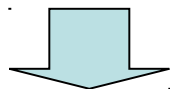
$\text{SCC} = \{ \{B2, B3\}, \{B4\} \}$

Entries:
B3, B4

Equivalence of Basic Blocks

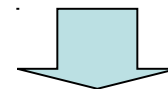
- Two basic blocks are (semantically) *equivalent* if they compute the same set of expressions

```
b := 0
t1 := a + b
t2 := c * t1
a := t2
```



```
a := c*a
b := 0
```

```
a := c * a
b := 0
```



```
a := c*a
b := 0
```

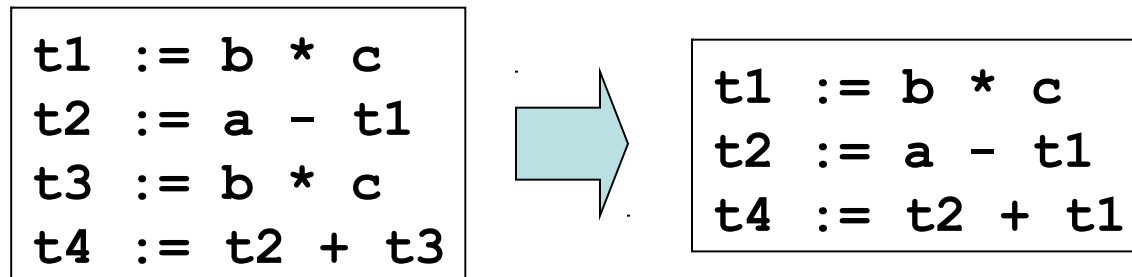
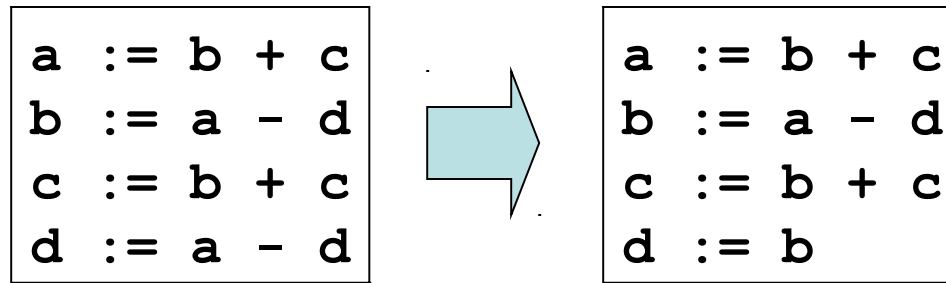
Blocks are equivalent, assuming **t1** and **t2** are *dead*: no longer used (no longer *live*)

Transformations on Basic Blocks

- A *code-improving transformation* is a code optimization to improve speed or reduce code size
- *Global transformations* are performed across basic blocks
- *Local transformations* are only performed on single basic blocks
- Transformations must be safe and preserve the meaning of the code
 - A local transformation is safe if the transformed basic block is guaranteed to be equivalent to its original form

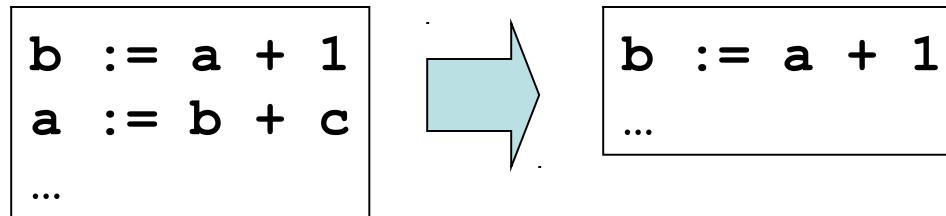
Common-Subexpression Elimination

- Remove redundant computations

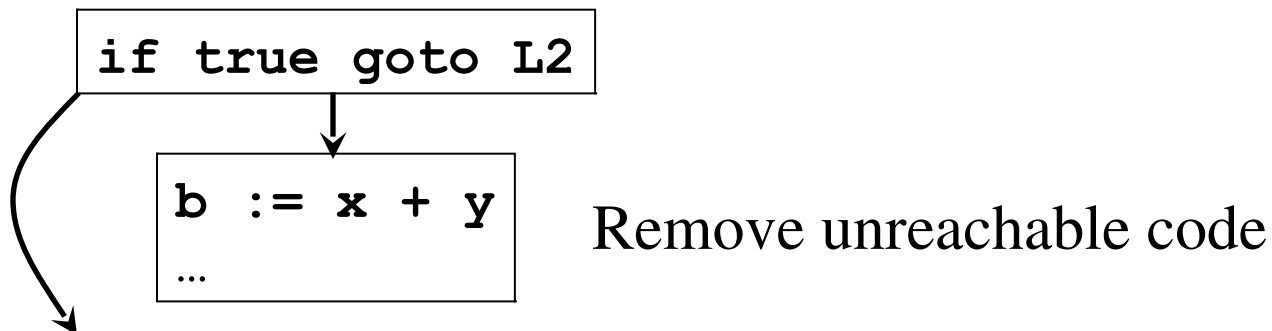


Dead Code Elimination

- Remove unused statements

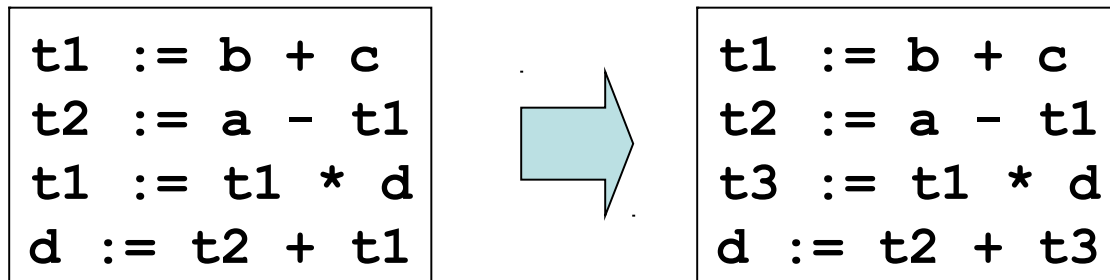


Assuming **a** is *dead* (not used)



Renaming Temporary Variables

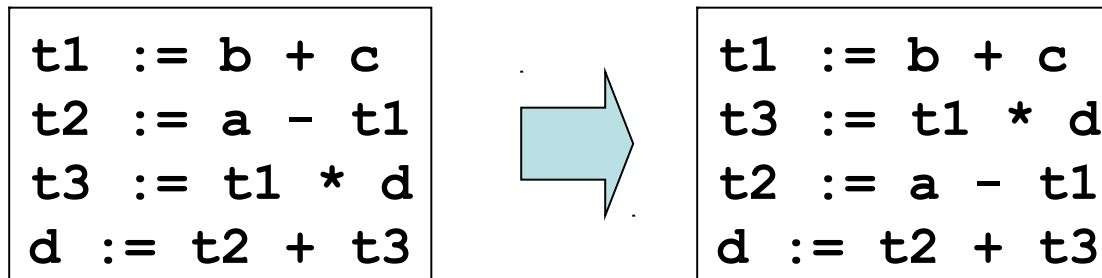
- Temporary variables that are dead at the end of a block can be safely renamed



Normal-form block

Interchange of Statements

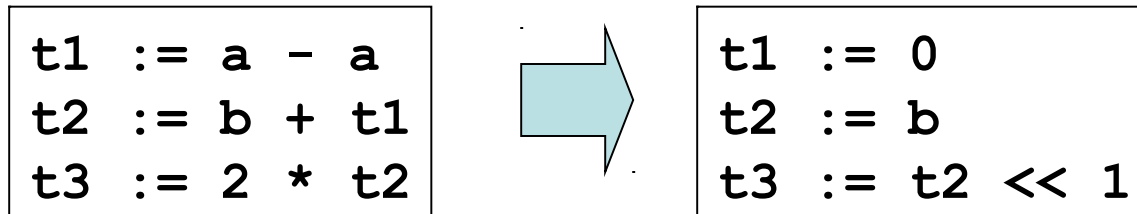
- Independent statements can be reordered



Note that normal-form blocks permit all statement interchanges that are possible

Algebraic Transformations

- Change arithmetic operations to transform blocks to algebraic equivalent forms



Next-Use

- Next-use information is needed for dead-code elimination and register assignment
- Next-use is computed by a backward scan of a basic block and performing the following actions on statement

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

- Add liveness/next-use info on x , y , and z to statement i
- Set x to “not live” and “no next use”
- Set y and z to “live” and the next uses of y and z to i

Next-Use (Step 1)

i: **a** := **b** + **c**

j: **t** := **a** + **b** [*live*(**a**) = true, *live*(**b**) = true, *live*(**t**) = true,
nextuse(**a**) = none, *nextuse*(**b**) = none, *nextuse*(**t**) = none]

Attach current live/next-use information

Because info is empty, assume variables are live

(Data flow analysis Ch.10 can provide accurate information)

Next-Use (Step 2)

$i: \mathbf{a} := \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}$

$live(\mathbf{a}) = \text{true}$	$nextuse(\mathbf{a}) = j$
$live(\mathbf{b}) = \text{true}$	$nextuse(\mathbf{b}) = j$
$live(\mathbf{t}) = \text{false}$	$nextuse(\mathbf{t}) = \text{none}$

$j: \mathbf{t} := \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ [$live(\mathbf{a}) = \text{true}, live(\mathbf{b}) = \text{true}, live(\mathbf{t}) = \text{true},$
 $nextuse(\mathbf{a}) = \text{none}, nextuse(\mathbf{b}) = \text{none}, nextuse(\mathbf{t}) = \text{none}$]

Compute live/next-use information at j

Next-Use (Step 3)

$i: \mathbf{a} := \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c} \ [\textit{live}(\mathbf{a}) = \text{true}, \textit{live}(\mathbf{b}) = \text{true}, \textit{live}(\mathbf{c}) = \text{false},$
 $\textit{nextuse}(\mathbf{a}) = j, \textit{nextuse}(\mathbf{b}) = j, \textit{nextuse}(\mathbf{c}) = \text{none}]$

$j: \mathbf{t} := \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} \ [\textit{live}(\mathbf{a}) = \text{true}, \textit{live}(\mathbf{b}) = \text{true}, \textit{live}(\mathbf{t}) = \text{true},$
 $\textit{nextuse}(\mathbf{a}) = \text{none}, \textit{nextuse}(\mathbf{b}) = \text{none}, \textit{nextuse}(\mathbf{t}) = \text{none}]$

Attach current live/next-use information to i

Next-Use (Step 4)

$live(\mathbf{a}) = \text{false}$	$nextuse(\mathbf{a}) = \text{none}$
$live(\mathbf{b}) = \text{true}$	$nextuse(\mathbf{b}) = i$
$live(\mathbf{c}) = \text{true}$	$nextuse(\mathbf{c}) = i$
$live(\mathbf{t}) = \text{false}$	$nextuse(\mathbf{t}) = \text{none}$

$i: \mathbf{a} := \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c} \ [\ live(\mathbf{a}) = \text{true}, \ live(\mathbf{b}) = \text{true}, \ live(\mathbf{c}) = \text{false},$
 $nextuse(\mathbf{a}) = j, \ nextuse(\mathbf{b}) = j, \ nextuse(\mathbf{c}) = \text{none} \]$

$j: \mathbf{t} := \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} \ [\ live(\mathbf{a}) = \text{false}, \ live(\mathbf{b}) = \text{false}, \ live(\mathbf{t}) = \text{false},$
 $nextuse(\mathbf{a}) = \text{none}, \ nextuse(\mathbf{b}) = \text{none}, \ nextuse(\mathbf{t}) = \text{none} \]$

Compute live/next-use information i

A Code Generator

- Generates target code for a sequence of three-address statements using next-use information
- Uses new function *getreg* to assign registers to variables
- Computed results are kept in registers as long as possible, which means:
 - Result is needed in another computation
 - Register is kept up to a procedure call or end of block
- Checks if operands to three-address code are available in registers

The Code Generation Algorithm

- For each statement $x := y \text{ op } z$
 1. Set location $L = \text{getreg}(y, z)$
 2. If $y \notin L$ then generate
MOV y', L
where y' denotes one of the locations where the value of y is available (choose register if possible)
 3. Generate
OP z', L
where z' is one of the locations of z ;
Update register/address descriptor of x to include L
 4. If y and/or z has no next use and is stored in register, update register descriptors to remove y and/or z

Register and Address Descriptors

- A *register descriptor* keeps track of what is currently stored in a register at a particular point in the code, e.g. a local variable, argument, global variable, etc.

MOV a, R0 “R0 contains a”

- An *address descriptor* keeps track of the location where the current value of the name can be found at run time, e.g. a register, stack location, memory address, etc.

MOV a, R0

MOV R0, R1 “a in R0 and R1”

The *getreg* Algorithm

- To compute *getreg*(*y*,*z*)
 1. If *y* is stored in a register *R* and *R* only holds the value *y*, and *y* has no next use, then return *R*;
Update address descriptor: value *y* no longer in *R*
 2. Else, return a new empty register if available
 3. Else, find an occupied register *R*;
Store contents (register spill) by generating
MOV *R*,*M*
for every *M* in address descriptor of *y*;
Return register *R*
 4. Return a memory location

Code Generation Example

<i>Statements</i>	<i>Code Generated</i>	<i>Register Descriptor</i>	<i>Address Descriptor</i>
t := a - b	MOV a,R0 SUB b,R0	Registers empty R0 contains t	t in R0
u := a - c	MOV a,R1 SUB c,R1	R0 contains t R1 contains u	t in R0 u in R1
v := t + u	ADD R1,R0	R0 contains v R1 contains u	u in R1 v in R0
d := v + u	ADD R1,R0 MOV R0,d	R0 contains d	d in R0 d in R0 and memory

Register Allocation and Assignment

- The *getreg* algorithm is simple but sub-optimal
 - All live variables in registers are stored (flushed) at the end of a block
- *Global register allocation* assigns variables to limited number of available registers and attempts to keep these registers consistent across basic block boundaries
 - Keeping variables in registers in looping code can result in big savings

Allocating Registers in Loops

- Suppose loading a variable x has a cost of 2
- Suppose storing a variable x has a cost of 2
- Benefit of allocating a register to a variable x within a loop L is

$$\sum_{B \in L} (use(x, B) + 2 live(x, B))$$

where $use(x, B)$ is the number of times x is used in B and $live(x, B) = \text{true}$ if x is live on exit from B

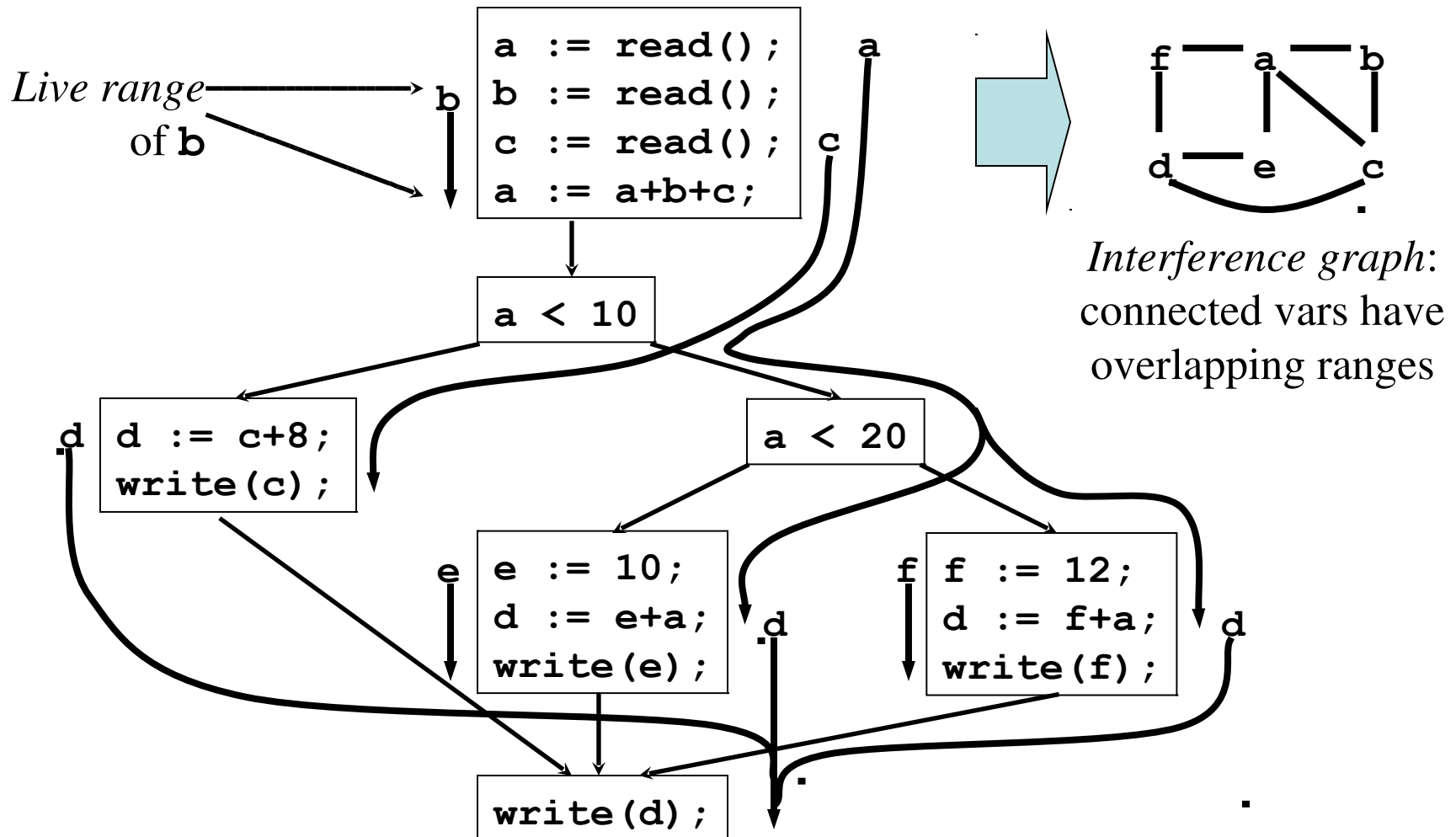
Global Register Allocation with Graph Coloring

- When a register is needed but all available registers are in use, the content of one of the used registers must be stored (spilled) to free a register
- Graph coloring allocates registers and attempts to minimize the cost of spills
- Build a *conflict graph* (*interference graph*)
- Find a k -coloring for the graph, with k the number of registers

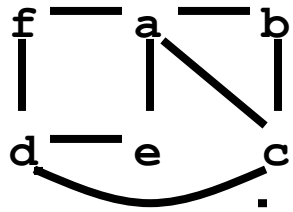
Register Allocation with Graph Coloring: Example

```
a := read();  
b := read();  
c := read();  
a := a + b + c;  
if (a < 10) {  
    d := c + 8;  
    write(c);  
} else if (a < 20) {  
    e := 10;  
    d := e + a;  
    write(e);  
} else {  
    f := 12;  
    d := f + a;  
    write(f);  
}  
write(d);
```

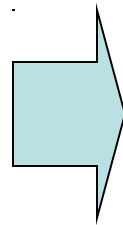
Register Allocation with Graph Coloring: Live Ranges



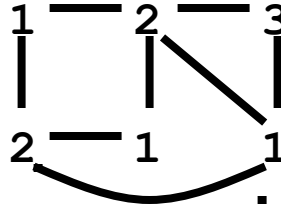
Register Allocation with Graph Coloring: Solution



Interference graph



Solve

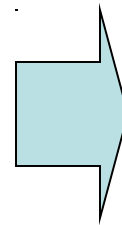


Three registers:

```

a = r2
b = r3
c = r1
d = r2
e = r1
f = r1

```



```

r2 := read();
r3 := read();
r1 := read();
r2 := r2 + r3 + r1;
if (r2 < 10) {
    r2 := r1 + 8;
    write(r1);
} else if (r2 < 20) {
    r1 := 10;
    r2 := r1 + r2;
    write(r1);
} else {
    r1 := 12;
    r2 := r1 + r2;
    write(r1);
}
write(r2);

```

Peephole Optimization

- Examines a short sequence of target instructions in a window (*peephole*) and replaces the instructions by a faster and/or shorter sequence when possible
- Applied to intermediate code or target code
- Typical optimizations:
 - Redundant instruction elimination
 - Flow-of-control optimizations
 - Algebraic simplifications
 - Use of machine idioms

Peephole Opt: Eliminating Redundant Loads and Stores

- Consider

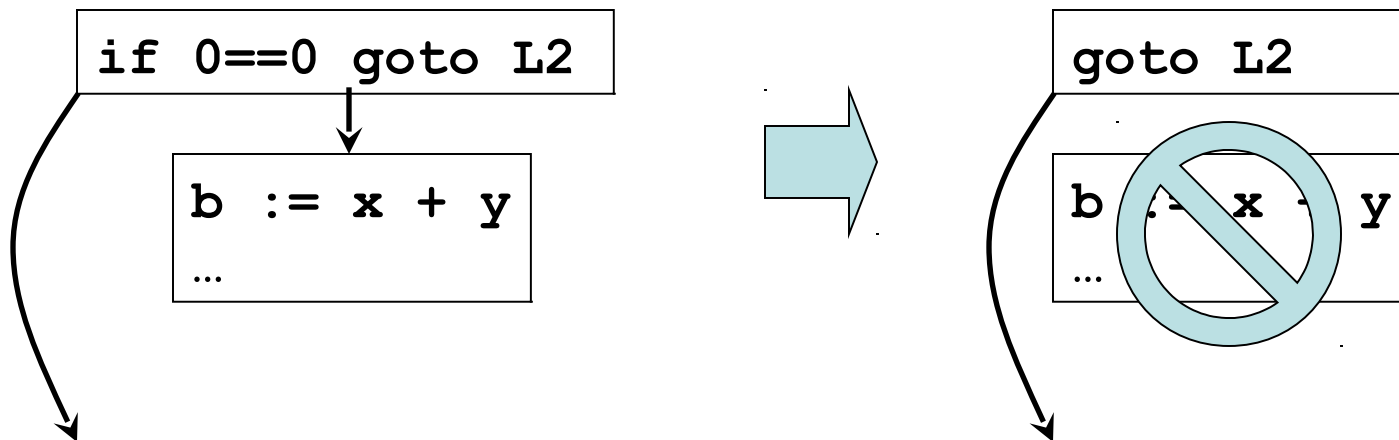
MOV R0 , a

MOV a , R0

- The second instruction can be deleted, but only if it is not labeled with a target label
 - Peephole represents sequence of instructions with at most one entry point
- The first instruction can also be deleted if $live(\mathbf{a}) = \text{false}$

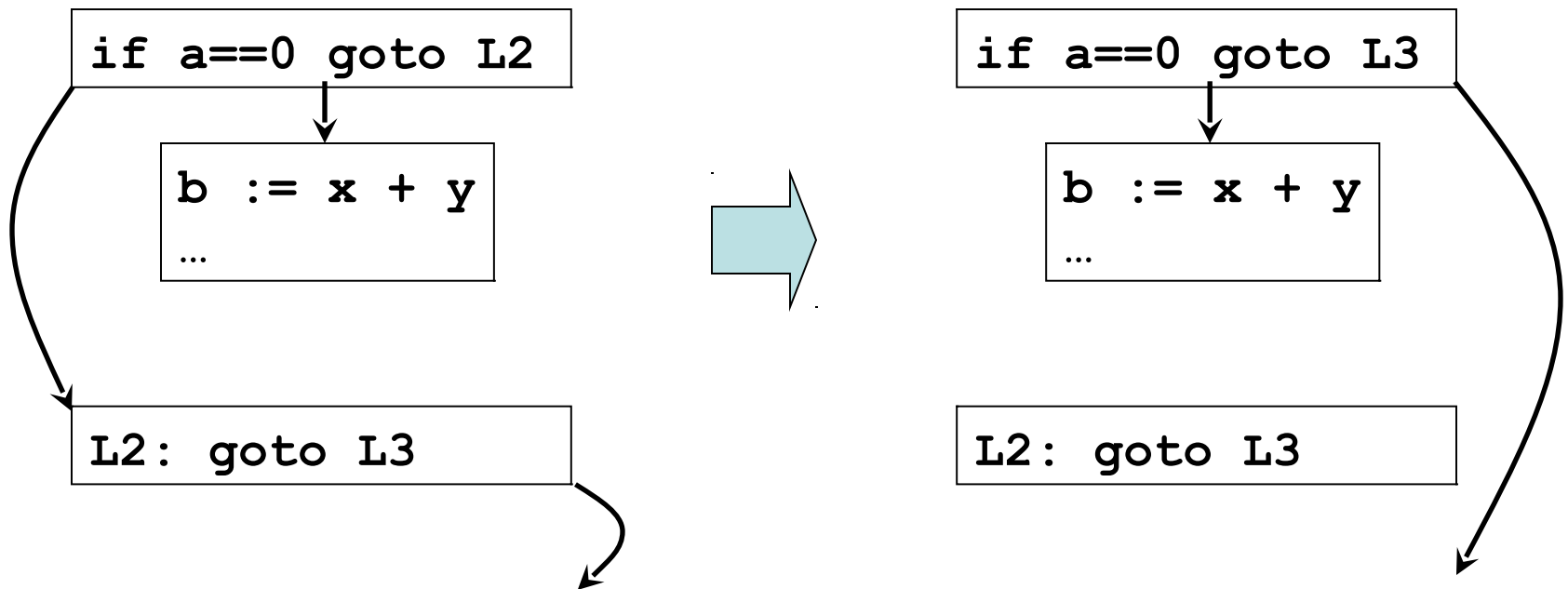
Peephole Optimization: Deleting Unreachable Code

- Unlabeled blocks can be removed



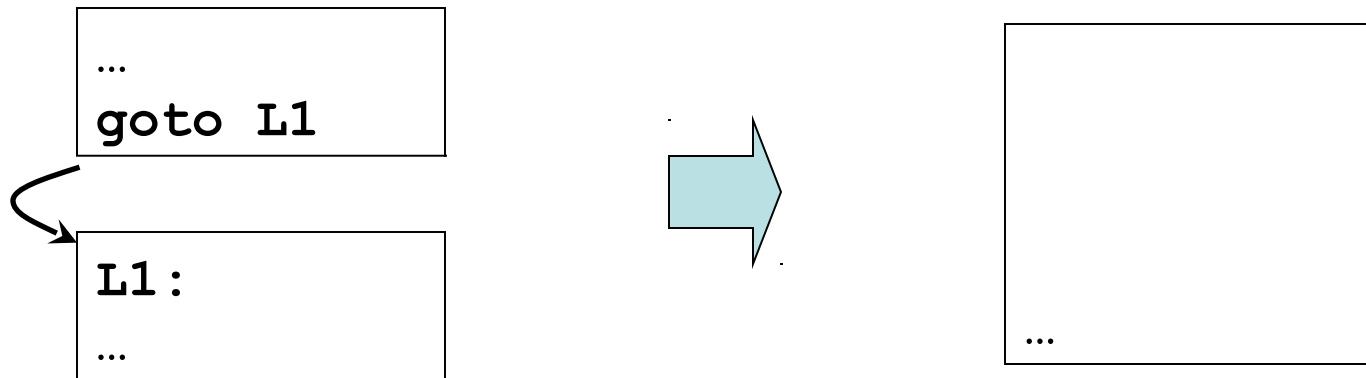
Peephole Optimization: Branch Chaining

- Shorten chain of branches by modifying target labels



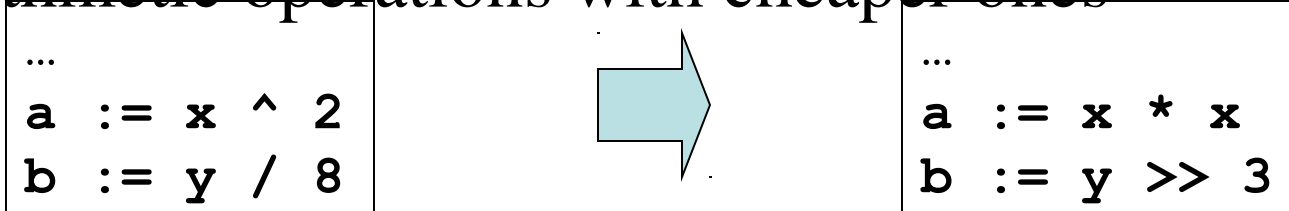
Peephole Optimization: Other Flow-of-Control Optimizations

- Remove redundant jumps

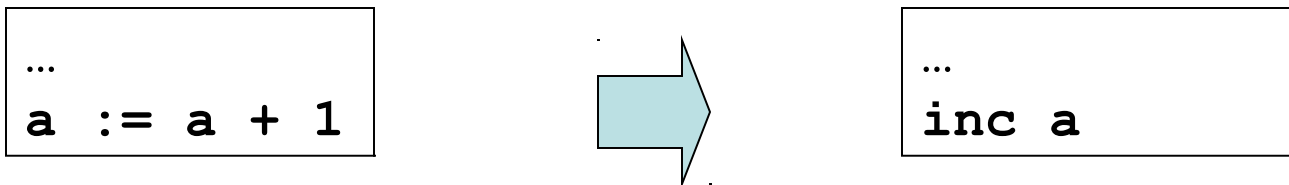


Other Peephole Optimizations

- *Reduction in strength*: replace expensive arithmetic operations with cheaper ones



- Utilize machine idioms



- Algebraic simplifications

