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国家超级计算广州中心
NATIONAL SUPERCOMPUTER CENTER IN GUANGZHOU

Compilation Principle 编译原理

第21讲：目标代码生成(2)

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Quiz

右图是函数调用过程中的栈空间：

- Q1: 确定\$fp和\$sp的位置。从(a)(b)(c)中选择。

- Q2: 在右图x/y/z三者中，哪些是函数参数？哪些是局部变量？

- Q3: 栈元素Old_IP存放什么信息？

- Q4: 以下目标代码在做什么？

`add $sp $sp -4; sw $t0 0($sp)`

- Q5: 以下指令是否正确？请简述理由。（假设针对MIPS架构）

`add 0($sp) $t0`

Higher address

	y
	x
(a)	Old_FP
(b)	Old_IP
	z
(c)	...

Quiz Solutions

右图是函数调用产生的栈空间：

- Q1: 确定\$fp和\$sp的位置。从(a)(b)(c)中选择。

\$fp: (b), \$sp: (c)

- Q2: 在右图x/y/z三者中，哪些是函数参数？
哪些是局部变量？

参数: x, y 局部变量: z

- Q3: 栈元素Old_IP存放什么信息？

返回地址，也即函数调用处的下一条指令的地址

- Q4: 以下目标代码在做什么？

add \$sp \$sp -4; sw \$t0 0(\$sp)

分配4字节栈空间，然后将t0寄存器中的值放入栈顶

- Q5: 以下指令是否正确？请简述理由。（假设针对MIPS架构）
add 0(\$sp) \$t0
错误：只有load/store可以操作内存，其他指令只能从寄存器中取操作数

Higher address

	y
	x
(a)	Old_FP
(b)	Old_IP
	z
(c)	...

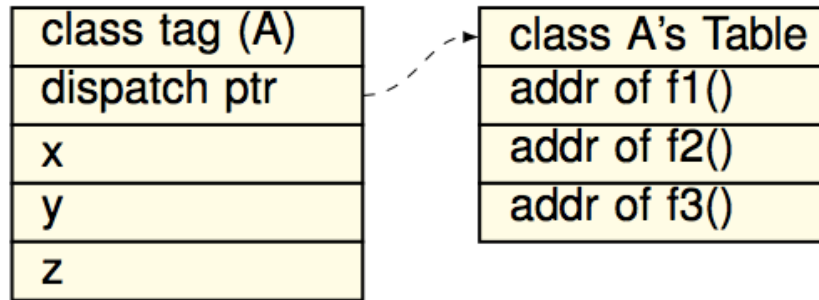
Code Generation for OO

- Objects are like structures in C
 - Objects are laid out in contiguous memory
 - Each member variable is stored at a fixed offset in object
- Unlike structures, objects have member methods
- Two types of member methods:
 - **Nonvirtual** member methods: cannot be overridden
`Parent obj = new Child();`
`obj.nonvirtual(); // Parent::nonvirtual() called`
Method called depends on (static) reference type
Compiler can decide call targets statically
 - **Virtual** member methods: can be overridden by child class
`Parent obj = new Child();`
`obj.virtual(); // Child::virtual() called`
Method called depends on (runtime) type of object
Need to call different targets depending on runtime type

Static and Dynamic Dispatch

- **Dispatch:** to send to a particular place for a purpose
 - I.e., to jump to a (particular) function
- **Static Dispatch:** selects call target at compile time
 - Nonvirtual methods implemented using static dispatch
 - Implication for code generation:
 - Can hard code function address into binary
- **Dynamic Dispatch:** selects call target at runtime
 - Virtual methods implemented using dynamic dispatch
 - Implication for code generation:
 - Must generate code to select correct call target
- **How?**
 - At compile time, generate a **dispatch table** for each class, containing call targets for all virtual methods of that class
 - At runtime, each object has a pointer to its dispatch table, which is indexed into to find call target for its runtime type

Typical Object Layout



- Class tag is used for dynamic type checking
- Dispatch ptr is a pointer to the dispatch table
- Compiler translates member accesses to offset accesses

```
if(...) obj = new Parent()
```

```
else obj = new Child();
```

```
obj.x = 10;           // move 10, x_offset(obj)
```

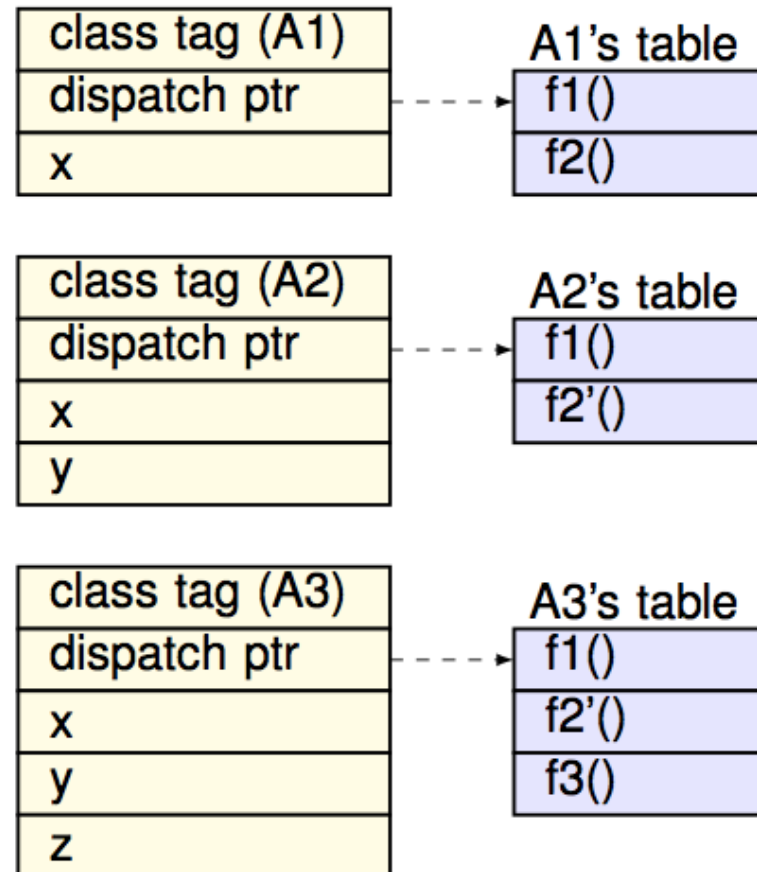
```
obj.f2();             // call f2_offset(obj.dispatch_ptr)
```

- Offsets must remain identical regardless of object type
 - How to layout object and dispatch table to make it so?

Inheritance and Subclasses

- Invariant: the offset of a member variable or member method is the same in a class and all of its subclasses

```
class A1 {  
    int x;  
    virtual void f1() { ... }  
    virtual void f2() { ... }  
}  
class A2 inherits A1 {  
    int y;  
    virtual void f2() { ... }  
}  
class A3 inherits A2 {  
    int z;  
    virtual void f3() { ... }  
}
```



Inheritance and Subclasses (cont.)

- Member variable access
 - Generate code using offset for reference type (class)
 - Object may be of child type, but will still have same offset
- Member method call
 - Generate code to load call target from dispatch table using offset for reference type
 - Again, object may be of child type, but still same offset
- No inheritance in our project
 - No dynamic dispatching
 - Statically bind a function call to its address

A Question ...

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 class A1 {
5     public:
6         virtual void f1() { cout << "base.f1\n"; }
7         virtual void f2() { cout << "base.f2\n"; }
8         void f3() { cout << "base.f3\n"; }
9     private:
10         char a;
11         int x;
12         int y;
13         static int z;
14 };
15
16 int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
17     A1 a1;
18     cout << "sizeof(a1) = " << sizeof(a1) << "\n";
19
20     return 0;
21 }
```

- What is the output?
 - **24** (on my 64-bit MBA)
- How come?
 - Fields (12B)
 - ▣ char a: 1 --> 4
 - ▣ int x: 4
 - ▣ int y: 4
 - Functions (8B)
 - ▣ virtual: 8B
 - Alignment
 - ▣ 12+8 --> 24

[1] [Determining the Size of a Class Object](#)

[2] [sizeof class in C++](#)



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Compilation Principle 编译原理

第21讲：代码优化(1)

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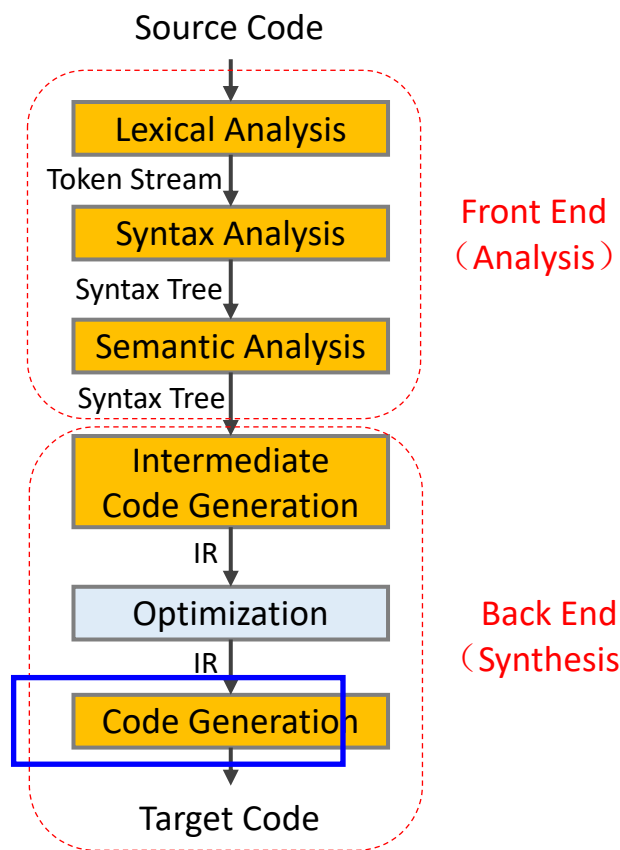


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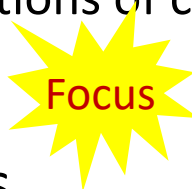


Optimization [代码优化]

- What we have now
 - IR of the source program (+symbol table)
- Goal of optimization[优化目标]
 - Improve the IR generated by the previous step to take better advantage of resources
- A very active area of research[研究热点]
 - Front end phases are well understood
 - Unoptimized code generation is relatively straightforward
 - Many optimizations are NP-complete
 - Thus usually rely on heuristics and approximations



To Optimize: Who, When, Where?

- Manual: source code
 - Select appropriate algorithms and data structures
 - Write code that the compiler can effectively optimize
 - Need to understand the capabilities and limitations of compiler opts.
- **Compiler**: intermediate representation 
 - To generate more efficient TAC instructions
- **Compiler**: final code generation
 - E.g., selecting effective instructions to emit, allocating registers in a better way
- Assembler/Linker: after final code generation
 - Attempting to re-work the assembly code itself into something more efficient (e.g., link-time optimization)

Example

```
int find_min(const int* array, const int len) {  
    int min = a[0];  
    for (int i = 1; i < len; i++) {  
        if (a[i] < min) { min = a[i]; }  
    }
```

```
    return min;  
}
```

```
int find_max(const int* array, const int len) {  
    int max = a[0];  
    for (int i = 1; i < len; i++) {  
        if (a[i] > max) { max = a[i]; }  
    }
```

```
    return min;  
}
```

```
void main() {  
    int* array, len, min, max;  
    initialize_array(array, &len);  
    min = find_min(array, len);  
    max = find_max(array, len);  
    ...  
}
```

Inline


Loop merge

```
void main() {  
    int* array, len, min, max;  
    initialize_array(array, &len);  
    min = a[0]; max = a[0];  
    for (int i = 0; i < len; i++) {  
        if (a[i] < min) { min = a[i]; }  
        if (a[i] > max) { max = a[i]; }  
    }  
    ...  
}
```

Overview of Optimizations

- Goal of optimization is to generate **better** code[更好的代码]
 - Impossible to generate **optimal** code (so, it is improvement, actually)
 - Factors beyond control of compiler (user input, OS design, HW design) all affect what is optimal
 - Even discounting above, it's still an NP-complete problem
- Better one or more of the following (in the average case)
 - **Execution time** [运行时间]
 - **Memory usage** [内存使用]
 - Energy consumption [能耗]
 - To reduce energy bill in a data center
 - To improve the lifetime of battery powered devices
 - Binary executable size [可执行文件大小]
 - If binary needs to be sent over the network
 - If binary must fit inside small device with limited storage
 - Other criteria [其他]
- Should never change program semantics[正确性是前提]

Types of Optimizations

- Compiler optimization is essentially a transformation[转换]
 - Delete / Add / Move / Modify something
- **Layout-related** transformations[布局相关]
 - Optimizes *where* in memory code and data is placed
 - Goal: maximize **spatial locality** [空间局部性]
 - Spatial locality: on an access, likelihood that nearby locations will also be accessed soon
 - Increases likelihood subsequent accesses will be faster
 - E.g. If access fetches cache line, later access can reuse
 - E.g. If access page faults, later access can reuse page
- **Code-related** transformations[代码相关] 
 - Optimizes *what* code is generated
 - Goal: execute least number of most costly instructions

Layout-Related Opt.: Code

- Two ways to layout code for the below example

```
f() {  
  ...  
  h();  
  ...  
}  
g() {  
  ...  
}  
h() {  
  ...  
}
```



code of f()
code of g()
code of h()

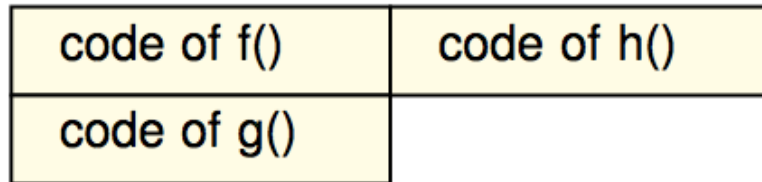
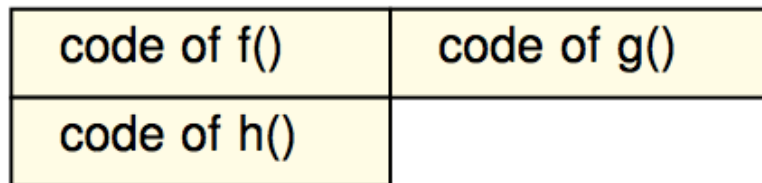
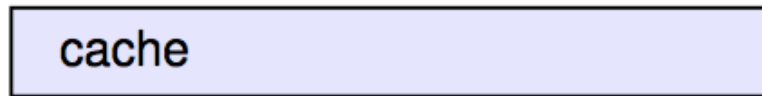
OR



code of f()
code of h()
code of g()

Layout-Related Opt.: Code (cont.)

- Which code layout is better?
- Assume
 - data cache has one N -word line
 - the size of each function is $N/2$ -word long
 - access sequence is “**g, f, h, f, h, f, h**”



6 cache misses

▼ ▼ ▼ ▼ ▼ ▼
g, f, h, f, h, f, h

▲ ▲
2 cache misses

Layout-Related Opt.: Data

- Change the variable declaration order

```
struct S {  
    int x1;  
    int x2[200];  
    int x3;  
} obj[100];
```



```
struct S {  
    int x1;  
    int x3;  
    int x2[200];  
} obj[100];  
  
for(...) {  
    ... = obj[i].x1 + obj[i].x3;  
}
```

- Improved spatial locality
 - Now x1 and x3 likely reside in same cache line
 - Access to x3 will always hit in the cache

Layout-Related Opt.: Data (cont.)

- Change AOS (array of structs) to SOA (struct of arrays)

```
struct S {  
    int x;  
    int y;  
} points[100];  
  
for(...) {  
    ... = points[i].x * 2;  
}  
for(...) {  
    ... = points[i].y * 2;  
}
```



```
struct S {  
    int x[100];  
    int y[100];  
} points;  
  
for(...) {  
    ... = points.x[i] * 2;  
}  
for(...) {  
    ... = points.y[i] * 2;  
}
```

- Improved spatial locality for accesses to 'x's and 'y's

Code-Related Optimizations

- Modifying code e.g. **strength reduction**
 $A=2*a; \quad \equiv \quad A=a\ll 1;$
- Deleting code e.g. **dead code elimination**
 $A=2; A=y; \equiv A=y;$
- Moving code e.g. **code scheduling**
 $A=x*y; B=A+1; C=y; \equiv A=x*y; C=y; B=A+1;$
(Now $C=y;$ can execute while waiting for $A=x*y;$)
- Inserting code e.g. **data prefetching**[数据预取]
 $\text{while } (p \neq \text{NULL})$
 $\{ \text{process}(p); p=p \rightarrow \text{next}; \}$
 \equiv
 $\text{while } (p \neq \text{NULL})$
 $\{ \text{prefetch}(p \rightarrow \text{next}); \text{process}(p); p=p \rightarrow \text{next}; \}$
(Now access to $p \rightarrow \text{next}$ is likely to hit in cache)

Control-Flow Analysis[控制流分析]

- The compiling process has done lots of analysis
 - Lexical
 - Syntax
 - Semantic
 - IR
- But, it still doesn't really know how the program does what it does
- **Control-flow analysis** helps compiler to figure out more info about how the program does its work
 - First construct a control-flow graph, which is a graph of the different possible paths program flow could take through a function
 - To build the graph, we first divide the code into basic blocks

Basic Block[基本块]

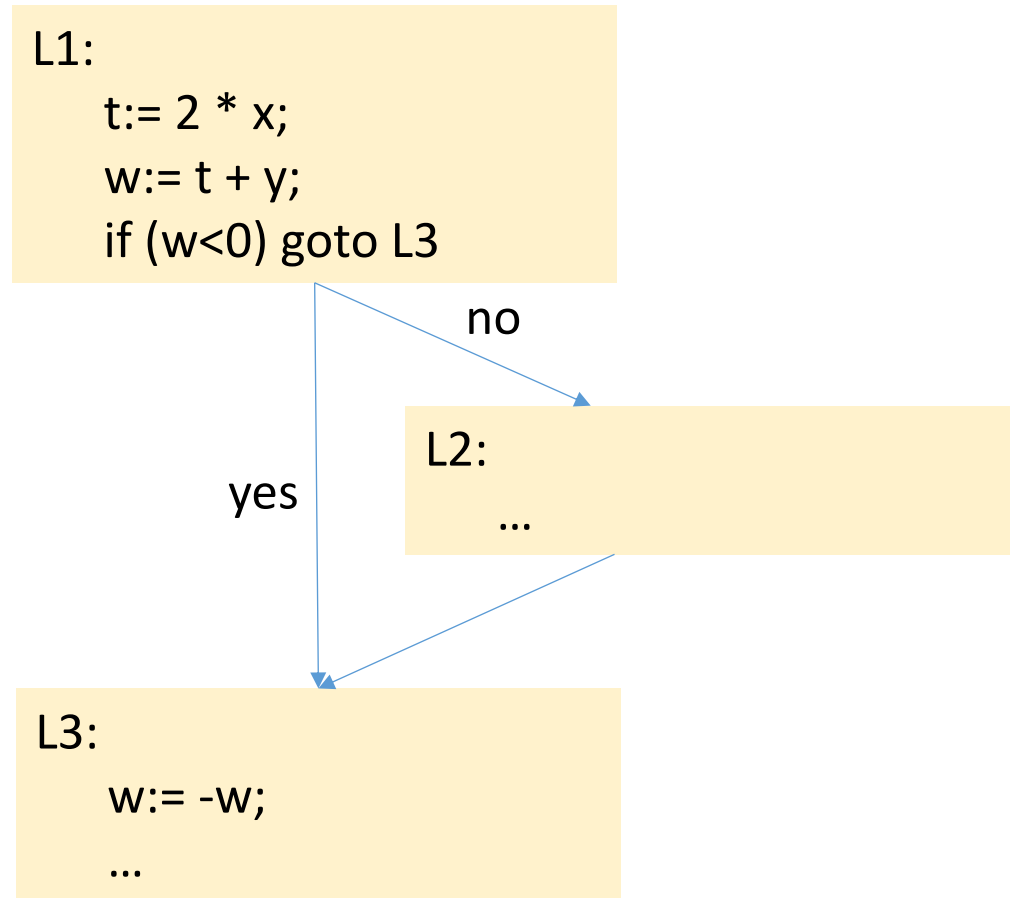
- A **basic block** is a maximal sequence of instructions that
 - Except the first instruction, there are no other labels
 - Except the last instruction, there are no jumps
- Therefore, [进出口唯一]
 - Can only jump into the beginning of a block
 - Can only jump out at the end of a block
- Are units of control flow that cannot be divided further
 - All instructions in basic block execute or none at all
- Local optimizations are limited to scope of a basic block
- Global optimizations are across basic blocks

Control Flow Graph[控制流图]

- A **control flow graph** is a directed graph in which
 - **Nodes** are basic blocks
 - **Edges** represent flow of execution between basic blocks
 - Flow from end of one basic block to beginning of another
 - Flow can be result of a control flow divergence
 - Flow can be result of a control flow merge
 - Control statements introduce control flow edges
 - e.g. if-then-else, for-loop, while-loop, ...
- CFG is widely used to represent a function
- CFG is widely used for program analysis, especially for global analysis/optimization

Example

```
L1:
  t:= 2 * x;
  w:= t + y;
  if (w<0) goto L3
L2:
  ...
L3:
  w:= -w
  ...
```



Construct CFG

- Step 1: partition code into basic blocks[分解为基本块]
 - Identify **leader** instructions that are
 - the first instruction of a program, or
 - target instructions of jump instructions, or
 - instructions immediately following jump instructions
 - A basic block consists of a leader instruction and subsequent instructions before the next leader
- Step 2: add an edge between basic blocks B1 and B2 if[连接基本块]
 - B2 follows B1, and B1 may “fall through” to B2[相邻]
 - B1 ends with a conditional jump to another basic block[若条件假，到达B2]
 - B1 ends with a non-jump instruction (B2 is a target of a jump)[无跳转，B1顺序执行到达B2]
 - Note: if B1 ends in an unconditional jump, cannot fall through[B1无条件跳转，会绕开B2]
 - B2 doesn't follow B1, but B1 ends with a jump to B2 [不相邻，但B2是B1的跳转目标]

Example

- Partition code into basic blocks
 - Identify leader instructions
- Add edges between basic blocks

```
01:      A=4
02:      T1=A*B
03. L1:  T2=T1/C
04:      if (T2<W) goto L2
05:      M=T1*K
06:      T3=M+1
07. L2:  H=I
08:      M=T3-H
09:      if (T3>0) goto L3
10:      goto L1
11. L3:  halt
```

