Compilerconstructie

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Code Generation

Code Generator Position in ^a Compiler

- Output code must
	- be correct
	- use resources of target machine effectively
- Code generator must run efficiently

Generating optimal code is undecidable problem Heuristics are available

8.1 Issues in Design of Code Generator

- Input to the code generator
- The target program
- Instruction selection
- Register allocation and assignment
- Evaluation order

Input to the Code Generator

- Intermediate representation of source program
	- Three-address representations (e.g., quadruples)
	- Virtual machine representations (e.g., bytecodes)
	- Postfix notation
	- Graphical representations (e.g., syntax trees and DAGs)
- Information from symbol table to determine run-time addresses
- Input is free of errors
	- Type checking and conversions have been done

The Target Program

- Common target-machine architectures
	- RISC: reduced instruction set computer
	- CISC: complex instruction set computer
	- Stack-based
- Possible output
	- Absolute machine code (executable code)
	- Relocatable machine code (object files for linker)
	- Assembly-language

Instruction Selection

- Given IR program can be implemented by many different code sequences
- Different machine instruction speeds
- Naive approach: statement-by-statement translation, with ^a code template for each IR statement

Example: $x = y + z$ Now, $a = b + c$ $d = a + e$

Target Machine

- Designing code generator requires understanding of target machine and its instruction set
- Our machine model
	- byte-addressable
	- $-$ has n general purpose registers R0, R1, ..., Rn -1
	- assumes operands are integers

Instructions of Target Machine

- Load operations: LD dst, addr e.g., LD r,x or LD r_1,r_2
- Store operations: ST x, r
- Computation operations: OP dst, src_1, src_2 e.g., $\overline{SUB}\;r_1,r_2,r_3$
- \bullet Unconditional jumps: BR L
- \bullet Conditional jumps: Bcond r,L e.g., BLTZ r, L

Addressing Modes of Target Machine

Addressing Modes (Examples)

 $b = a[i]$: LD R1, i MUL R1, R1, #8 LD $R2$, $a(R1)$ ST b, R2 $a[j] = c$ LD R1, c LD R2, j MUL R2, R2, #8 ST a(R2), R1 $x = *p$ LD R1, p LD R2, 0(R1) ST x, R2 if x < y goto L LD R1, x LD R2, y SUB R1, R1, R2 BLTZ R1, M

Instruction Costs

- Costs associated with compiling / running ^a program
	- Compilation time
	- Size, running time, power consumption of target program
- Finding optimal target problem: undecidable
- (Simple) cost per target-language instruction:
	- $-1 + \text{cost}$ for addressing modes of operands ≈ length (in words) of instruction

Examples:

8.4 Basic Blocks and Flow Graphs

- 1. Basic block: maximal sequence of consecutive three-address instructions, such that
	- (a) Flow of control can only enter through first instruction of block
	- (b) Control leaves block without halting or branching
- 2. Flow graph: graph with nodes: basic blocks edges: indicate flow between blocks

Determining Basic Blocks

- Determine leaders
	- 1. First three-address instruction is leader
	- 2. Any instruction that is target of goto is leader
	- 3. Any instruction that immediately follows goto is leader
- For each leader, its basic block consists of leader and all instructions up to next leader (or end of program)

Determining Basic Blocks (Example)

Determine leaders

Pseudo code

```
for i=1 to 10 do
   for j=1 to 10 do
      a[i, j] = 0.0;for i=1 to 10 do
   a[i, i] = 1.0;
```

```
Three-address code
```

```
1) i = 12) j = 1
 3) t1 = 10 * 1
 4) t2 = t1 + j5) t3 = 8 * t26) t4 = t3 - 887) a[t4] = 0.08) j = j + 1
 9) if j <= 10 goto (3)
10) i = i + 1
11) if i \le 10 goto (2)
12) i = 1
13) t5 = i - 114) t6 = 88 * t515) a[t6] = 1.0
16) i = i + 1
17) if i <= 10 goto (13)
```
Determining Basic Blocks (Example)

Determine leaders

Pseudo code

Three-address code

for
$$
i = 1
$$
 to 10 **do**
\n**for** $j = 1$ to 10 **do**
\n $a[i, j] = 0.0;$
\n**for** $i = 1$ to 10 **do**
\n $a[i, i] = 1.0;$

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}\n\rightarrow & 1) & i & = & 1 \\
\rightarrow & 2) & j & = & 1 \\
\rightarrow & 3) & t1 & = & 10 * 1 \\
4) & t2 & = & t1 + j \\
5) & t3 & = & 8 * t2 \\
6) & t4 & = & t3 - 88 \\
7) & a[t4] & = & 0.0 \\
8) & j & = & j + 1 \\
9) & if j <= & 10 \text{ goto (3)} \\
\rightarrow & 10) & i & = & i + 1 \\
11) & if i <= & 10 \text{ goto (2)} \\
\rightarrow & 12) & i & = & 1 \\
13) & t5 & = & i - 1 \\
14) & t6 & = & 88 * t5 \\
15) & a[t6] & = & 1.0 \\
16) & i & = & i + 1 \\
17) & if i <= & 10 \text{ goto (13)}\n\end{array}
$$

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Flow Graph

Edge from block B to block C

- if there is (un)conditional jump from end of B to beginning of C
- if C immediately follows B in original order, and B does not end in unconditional jump

Flow Graph (Example)

Loops in Flow Graph

Loop is set of nodes

- $\bullet\,$ With unique loop entry e
- \bullet Every node in L has nonempty path in L to e

Example

- \bullet $\{B_3\}$, with loop entry B_3
- \bullet $\{B_2, B_3, B_4\}$, with loop entry B_2
- \bullet $\{B_6\}$, with loop entry B_6

Next-Use Information

• Next-use information is needed for dead-code elimination and register assignment

> (i) $x = a * b$... (j) $z = c + x$

Instruction j uses value of x computed at i x is live at $i,$ i.e., we need value of x later

• For each three-address statement $x = y$ op z in block, record next-uses of x, y, z

Determining Next-Use Information

For single basic block

- Assume all non-temporary variables are live on exit
- Make backward scan of instructions in block
- For each instruction i: $x = y$ op z
	- 1. Attach to i current next-use- and liveness information of x, y, z
	- 2. Set x to 'not live' and 'no next use'
	- 3. Set y and z to 'live' Set 'next uses' of y and z to i

Passing Liveness Information over Blocks

Passing Liveness Information over Blocks

Example of loop

8.6 A Simple Code Generator

Use of registers

- Operands of operation must be in registers
- To hold values of temporary variables
- To hold (global) values that are used in several blocks
- To manage run-time stack

Assumption: subset of registers available for block

Machine instructions of form

- LD reg, mem
- ST *mem*, req
- OP reg, reg, reg

Register and Address Descriptors

- Register descriptor keeps track of what is currently in register
	- Example:

LD $R, x \rightarrow$ register R contains x

– Initially, all registers are empty

- Address descriptor keeps track of locations where current value of a variable can be found
	- Example:

LD
$$
R, x \rightarrow x
$$
 is (also) in R

– Information stored in symbol table

The Code-Generation Algorithm

For each three-address instruction $x = y$ op z

- 1. Use $getReg(x = y \text{ op } z)$ to select registers R_x, R_y, R_z
- 2. If y is not in R_y , then issue instruction LD R_y,y^\prime , where y' is a memory location for y (according to address descriptor)
- 3. If z is not in $R_z, \ \dots$
- 4. Issue instruction $\,OP~R_x,R_y,R_z$

At end of block: store all variables that are live-on-exit and not in their memory locations (according to address descriptor)

Managing Register / Address Descriptors

Description in book

```
Example: d = (a - b) + (a - c) + (a - c)  a = ... old value of d
 t = a - bLD R1, a
    LD R2, b
    SUB R2, R1, R2
 u = a - cLD R3, c
     SUB R1, R1, R3
 v = t + uADD R3, R2, R1
 a = dLD R2, d
 d = v + uADD R1, R3, R1
 exit
     ST a, R2
     ST d, R1
```
Function getReg

For each instruction $x = y$ op z

- To compute R_y
	- 1. If y is in register, $\longrightarrow R_y$
	- 2. Else, if empty register available, $\longrightarrow R_y$
	- 3. Else, select occupied register For each register R and variable v in R (a) If v is also somewhere else, then OK (b) If v is x , and x is not z , then OK (c) Else, if v is not used later, then OK (d) Else, ST v, R is required

Take R with smallest number of stores

Function getReg

For each instruction $x = y$ op z

• To compute R_x , similar with few differences

For each instruction $x = y$, choose $R_x = R_y$

8.8 Register Allocation and Assignment

So far, live variables in registers are stored at end of block

Use of registers

- Operands of operation must be in registers
- To hold values of temporary variables
- To hold (global) values that are used in several blocks
- To manage run-time stack

Usage counts

 \bullet

With x in register during loop L

- Save 1 for each use of x that is not preceded by assignment in same block
- Save 2 for each block, where x is assigned a value and x is live on exit

Total savings $\approx \sum \text{ }$ use $(x, B) + 2 * \textit{live}(x, B)$ blocks B∈L

Choose variables x with largest savings

Usage counts (Example)

Savings for a are $1+1+1*2=4$

8.5 Optimization of Basic Blocks

To improve running time of code

- Local optimization: within block
- Global optimization: across blocks

Local optimization benefits from DAG representation of basi c block

DAG Representation of Basic Blocks

- 1. A node for initial value of each variable appearing in bloc k
- 2. A node N for each statement s in block Children of N are nodes corresponding to last definitions of operands used by s
- 3. Node N is labeled by operator applied at s N has list of variables for which s is last definition in block

Example:

 $a = b + c$ $b = a - d$ $c = b + c$ $d = a - d$

Local Common Subexpression Elimination

- Use value-number method to detect common subexpressions
- Remove redundant computations

Example:

 $a = b + c$ $b = a - d$ $c = b + c$ $d = a - d$

Local Common Subexpression Elimination

- Use value-number method to detect common subexpressions
- Remove redundant computations

Example:

 $a = b + c$ $b = a - d$ $c = b + c$ $d = a - d$ $a = b + c$ $b = a - d$ $c = b + c$ $d = b$

Dead Code Elimination

- Remove roots with no live variables attached
- If possible, repeat

Example:

 $a = b + c$ $b = b - d$ $c = c + d$ $e = b + c$

No common subexpression

If c and e are not live...

Dead Code Elimination

- Remove roots with no live variables attached
- If possible, repeat

Example:

 $a = b + c$ $b = b - d$ $c = c + d$ $e = b + c$ $a = b + c$ $b = b - d$

No common subexpression

If c and e are not live...

Algebraic Transformations

(see assignment 3)

Algebraic identities:

Reduction in strength:

$$
x2 = x * x
$$
 (cheaper)
2 * x = x + x (cheaper)

$$
x/2 = x * 0.5
$$
 (cheaper)

Constant folding:

$$
2 * 3.14 = 6.28
$$

Algebraic Transformations

Common subexpressions resulting from commutativity / asso ciativity of operators:

$$
x * y = y * x
$$

$$
c + d + b = (b + c) + d
$$

Common subexpressions generated by relational operators:

$$
x > y \Leftrightarrow x - y > 0
$$

8.7 Peephole Optimization

- Examines short sequence of instructions in ^a window (peephole) and replace them by faster/shorter sequence
- Applied to intermediate code or target code
- Typical optimizations
	- Redundant instruction elimination
	- Eliminating unreachable code
	- Flow-of-control optimization
	- Algebraic simplification
	- Use of machine idioms

Redundant Instruction Elimination

Example:

ST a, R0

LD R0, a

Eliminating Unreachable Code

Example:

```
if debug == 1 goto L1goto L2
L1: print debugging information
L2:
```
Eliminating Unreachable Code

Example:

if debug != 1 goto L2 L1: print debugging information L2:

If debug is set to 0 at beginning of program, . . .

Flow-of-Control Optimizations

Example:

goto L1 ... L1: goto L2

Compiler constructie

college 7 Code Generation

Chapters for reading: 8.intro, 8.1, 8.2, 8.4, 8.5–8.5.4, 8.6–8.8