#  Мعтаү入 $\omega \tau \tau \iota \sigma \tau \omega \dot{v}$ 

Lecture 11b<br>Code Generation

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## Final Stage!



## High-level Operation

- Input
- Intermediate Code (AST, DAG, TAC)
- Output
- Absolute Machine Code
- Relocatable Machine Code
- Assembly Code
- Memory management
- Mapping names (symbols) into actual memory addresses


## Instruction Selection

- Quality of Code
- Speed and size
- Machines understand specific instructions

```
MOV Y, R0 /* load y into register R0. */
ADD z, R0 /* add z to R0. */
MOV R0, x /* store R0 into x */
```

- TAC input

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{a}:=\mathrm{b}+\mathrm{c} \\
& \mathrm{~d}:=\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{e}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Machine output (not efficient)

| MOV b, R0 |
| :--- |
| ADD $c, ~ R 0$ |
| MOV $R 0, ~ a$ These instructions are redundant. <br> MOV $a, ~ R 0$  <br> ADD e, R0  <br> MOV R0, d  |

## Register Allocation

- During register allocation, we select the set of variables that will reside in registers at a point in the program.
- During a subsequent register assignment phase, we pick the specific register that a variable will reside in.
- Finding an optimal assignment of registers is NPcomplete.
- For complications: hardware/OS specific register usage.


## Register Allocation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{t}:=\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{b} \\
& \mathrm{t}:=\mathrm{t} * \mathrm{c} \\
& \mathrm{t}:=\mathrm{t} / \mathrm{d}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
t & :=a+b \\
t & :=t+c \\
t: & =t / d
\end{aligned}
$$

| $L$ | $R 1$, | $a$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $A$ | $R 1$, | $b$ |
| $M$ | $R 0$, | $C$ |
| $D$ | $R 0$, | $d$ |
| $S T$ | $R 1$, | $t$ |


| $L$ | $R 0$, | $a$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $A$ | $R 0$, | $b$ |
| $A$ | $R 0$, | $C$ |
| SRDA | $R 0$, | 32 |
| $D$ | $R 0$, | $d$ |
| $S T$ | $R 1$, | $t$ |

## The optimal choice for the register into which a is to be loaded depends on what will ultimately happen to $t$.

## Choice of Evaluation Order

- The order in which computations are performed can affect the efficiency of the target code.
- The optimal order is also a difficult, NPcomplete, problem.


## Approaches to

Code Generation

- Target code may not be optimal, but it should be correct
- Given the premium of correctness, we try to design a code generator so that
- It can be easily implemented
- It can be easily tested
- It can be easily maintained


## Basic Block

- A basic block is a sequence of consecutive statements in which flow of control enters at the beginning and leaves at the end without halt or possibility of branching except at the end:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{t} 1 & :=\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{a} \\
\mathrm{t} 2 & :=\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b} \\
\mathrm{t} 3 & :=2 * \mathrm{t} 2 \\
\mathrm{t} 4 & :=\mathrm{t} 1+\mathrm{t} 3 \\
\mathrm{t} 5 & :=\mathrm{b} * \mathrm{~b} \\
\mathrm{t} 6 & :=\mathrm{t} 4+\mathrm{t} 5
\end{aligned}
$$

- A three-address statement $\mathrm{x}:=\mathrm{y}+\mathrm{z}$ defines x and uses (or references) y and z
- A name in a basic block is said to be live at a given point if its value is used after that point in the program, perhaps in another basic block


## Partition Code into Basic Blocks

- Input
- A sequence of three-address statements
- Output
- A list of basic blocks with each three-address statement in exactly one block
- Method

1. We first determine the set of leaders, the first statements of basic blocks. The rules we use are the following.
2. The first statement is a leader.
3. Any statement that is the target of a conditional or unconditional goto is a leader.
4. Any statement that immediately follows a goto or conditional goto statement is a leader.
5. 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.

## Example

```
begin
    prod := 0;
    i := 1;
    do begin
        prod := prod + a[i] * b[i];
        i:=i+1;
    end
    while i <= 20
end
```

Statement (1) is a leader by Rule 1. Statement (3) is a leader by Rule 2. Statement (13) is a leader by Rule 3.


## Transformations on Basic Blocks

- Two basic blocks are said to be equivalent if they compute the same set of expressions
- Transformation can improve the quality of the produced code, without changing the set of expressions computed by a particular block
- Structure-preserving Transformations
- Algebraic Transformations


## Structure-preserving Transformations

- Common subexpression elimination

$$
\begin{array}{|l}
\hline \mathrm{a}:=\mathrm{b}+\mathrm{c} \\
\mathrm{~b}:=\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{d} \\
\mathrm{c}:=\mathrm{b}+\mathrm{c} \\
\mathrm{~d}:=\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{d}
\end{array} \left\lvert\, \quad \square \quad \begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{a}:=\mathrm{b}+\mathrm{c} \\
& \mathrm{~b}:=\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{d} \\
& \mathrm{c}:=\mathrm{b}+\mathrm{c} \\
& \mathrm{~d}:=\mathrm{b} \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

- Dead-code elimination
- Suppose that x is dead, that is, never subsequently used, at the point where the statement $\mathrm{x}:=\mathrm{y}+\mathrm{z}$ appears in a basic block. Then this statement may be safely removed.


## Structure-preserving Transformations

- Renaming temporary variables
t := b + c can become u := b + c
- Interchange of statements

$$
\begin{array}{|lll|}
\hline \mathrm{t} 1 & :=\mathrm{b}+\mathrm{c} \\
\mathrm{t} 2 & :=\mathrm{x}+\mathrm{y} \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{|ll|}
\hline \mathrm{t} 2 & :=\mathrm{x}+\mathrm{y} \\
\mathrm{t} 1 & :=\mathrm{b}+\mathrm{c} \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

## Algebraic Transformations

- Statements can be eliminated

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{x}:=\mathrm{x}+0 \\
& \mathrm{x}:=\mathrm{x} * 1
\end{aligned}
$$

- Statements can be replaced

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{x}:=\mathrm{y} * * 2 \\
& \text { to } \\
& \mathrm{x}:=\mathrm{y} * \mathrm{y}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Flow graphs

- We can add the flow-of-control information to the set of basic blocks making up a program by constructing a directed graph called a flow graph
- The initial node is the basic block whose leader is the first statement of the program
- There is a directed edge from block B1 to block B2:
- Conditional or unconditional jump from last statement of B1 to first statement of B2
- B2 immediately follows B1 in the order of the program and B1 does not end in an unconditional jump
- B1 is predecessor of B2 and B2 successor of B1


## Flow Graph



## Next-Use Information

- Next-use information dictates if a name in a basic block is going to be used again
- If the name is not going to be used again in the block, then the register holding the name can be released and used for holding other names


## Computing next uses

- Suppose we reach three-address statement $i: x:=y$ op $z$, in our backward scan. We then do the following

1. Attach to statement $i$ the information currently found in the symbol table regarding the next use and liveness of $x, y$, and $z$.
2. In the symbol table, set $x$ to "not live" and "no next use"
3. In the symbol table, set $y$ and $z$ to "live" and the next uses of $y$ and $z$ to $i$. Note that the order of steps (2) and (3) may not be interchanged because x may be $y$ or $z$.

## Example

| Code | Live/Dead |  |  | Next Use |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | x | y | $z$ | x | y | z |
| (4) $\mathrm{x}:=\mathrm{z}+\mathrm{y}$ | F | T | T |  | 4 | 4 |
| (3) $y:=z-7$ | F | F | T |  |  | 3 |
| (2) $\mathrm{z}:=\mathrm{x}$ * 5 | T | F | F | 2 |  |  |
| (1) $x:=y+z$ | F | T | T |  | 1 | 1 |

