

# Code Generation and Optimization

ALSU Textbook Chapters 8.4, 8.5, 8.7, 8.8, 9.1

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# Introduction

- For some compiler, the intermediate code is a pseudo code of a virtual machine.
  - Interpreter of the virtual machine is invoked to execute the intermediate code.
  - No machine-dependent code generation is needed.
  - Usually with great overhead.
  - Example:
    - ▷ *Pascal: P-code for the virtual P machine.*
    - ▷ *JAVA: Byte code for the virtual JAVA machine.*
- Motivation:
  - Statement by statement translation might generate redundant codes.
  - Locally improve the target code performance by examine a short sequence of target instructions (called a **peephole**) and do optimization on this sequence.
  - Note: Complexity depends on the “window size.”
- Optimization.
  - Machine-dependent issues.
  - Machine-independent issues.

# Machine-dependent issues (1/2)

- **Input and output formats:**
  - The formats of the intermediate code and the target program.
- **Memory management:**
  - Alignment, indirect addressing, paging, segment, ...
  - Those you learned from your assembly language class.
- **Instruction cost:**
  - Special machine instructions to speed up execution.
  - Example:
    - ▷ *Increment by 1.*
    - ▷ *Multiplying or dividing by 2.*
    - ▷ *Bit-wise manipulation.*
    - ▷ *Operators applied on a continuous block of memory space.*
  - Pick a fastest instruction combination for a certain target machine.

# Machine-dependent issues (2/2)

## ■ Register allocation: in-between machine dependent and independent issues.

- C language allows the user to management a pool of registers.
- Some language leaves the task to compiler.
- Idea: save mostly used intermediate result in a register. However, finding an optimal solution for using a limited set of registers is NP-hard.

- Example:

t := a + b

```
load  R0,a
load  R1,b
add   R0,R1
store R0,T
```

```
load  R0,a
add   R0,b
store R0,T
```

- Heuristic solutions: similar to the ones used for the swapping problem.

# Machine-independent issues

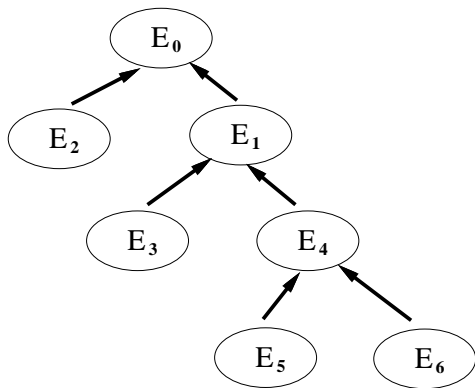
- **Techniques.**
  - **Analysis of dependence graphs.**
  - **Analysis of basic blocks and flow graphs.**
  - **Semantics-preserving transformations.**
  - **Algebraic transformations.**

# Dependence graphs

## ■ Issues:

- In an expression, assume its **dependence graph** is given.
- We can evaluate this expression using any topological ordering.
- There are many legal topological orderings.
- Pick one to increase its efficiency.

## ■ Example:



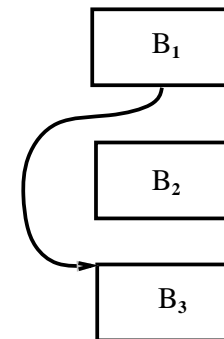
order#1	reg#	order#2	reg#
E2	1	E6	1
E3	2	E5	2
E5	3	E4	1
E6	4	E3	2
E4	3	E1	1
E1	2	E2	2
E0	1	E0	1

- On a machine with only 2 free registers, some of the intermediate results in order#1 must be stored in the temporary space.
  - STORE/LOAD takes time.

# Basic blocks and flow graphs

- **Basic block** : a sequence of code such that
  - jump statements, if any, are at the end of the sequence;
  - codes in other basic block can only jump to the beginning of this sequence, but not in the middle.
  - Example:
    - ▷  $t_1 := a * a$
    - ▷  $t_2 := a * b$
    - ▷  $t_3 := 2 * t_2$
    - ▷ *goto outter*
  - Single entry, single exit.

- **Flow graph** : Using a flow chart-like graph to represent a program where nodes are basic blocks and edges are flow of control.



# How to find basic blocks

- How to find **leaders**, which are the first statements of basic blocks?
  - The first statement of a program is a leader.
  - For each conditional and unconditional goto,
    - ▷ *its target is a leader;*
    - ▷ *its next statement is also a leader.*
- Using leaders to partition the program into basic blocks.
- Ideas for optimization:
  - Two basic blocks are equivalent if they compute the same expression.
  - Use transformation techniques below to perform machine-independent optimization.



# Finding basic blocks — examples

- **Example: Three-address code for computing the dot product of two vectors  $a$  and  $b$ .**
  - ▷  $prod := 0$
  - ▷  $i := 1$
  - ▷ **loop:**
  - ▷  $t_1 := 4 * i$
  - ▷  $t_2 := a[t_1]$
  - ▷  $t_3 := 4 * i$
  - ▷  $t_4 := b[t_3]$
  - ▷  $t_5 := t_2 * t_4$
  - ▷  $t_6 := prod + t_5$
  - ▷  $prod := t_6$
  - ▷  $t_7 := i + 1$
  - ▷  $i := t_7$
  - ▷ **if  $i \leq 20$  goto loop**
  - ▷ ...
- **There are three blocks in the above example.**

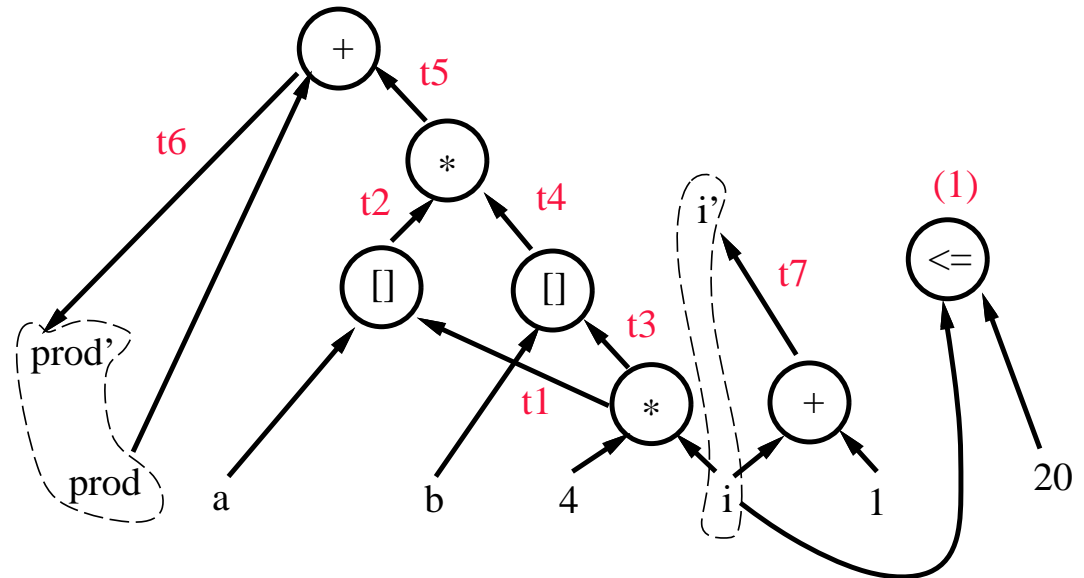
# DAG representation of a basic block

## ■ Inside a basic block:

- Expressions can be expressed using a DAG that is similar to the idea of a dependence graph.
- Graph might not be connected.

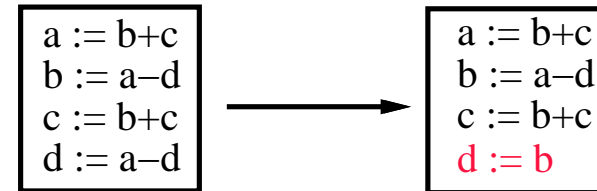
## ■ Example:

- (1)  $t_1 := 4 * i$
- (2)  $t_2 := a[t_1]$
- (3)  $t_3 := 4 * i$
- (4)  $t_4 := b[t_3]$
- (5)  $t_5 := t_2 * t_4$
- (6)  $t_6 := prod + t_5$
- (7)  $prod := t_6$
- (8)  $t_7 := i + 1$
- (9)  $i := t_7$
- (10) if  $i \leq 20$  goto (1)



# Semantics-preserving transformations (1/3)

- Techniques: using the information contained in the flow graph and DAG representation of basic blocks to do optimization.



- Common sub-expression elimination.
- Dead-code elimination: remove unreachable codes.
- Remove redundant codes such as loads and stores.
  - ▷ *MOV R<sub>0</sub>, a*
  - ▷ *MOV a, R<sub>0</sub>*
- Code motion.
  - ▷ Find **loop-invariants** inside a loop.
  - ▷ Obtain the values of loop-invariants outside the loop.
  - ▷ Example:

```
while(i <= limit - 2)
    ...
```

```
t = limit - 2
while (i <= t)
    ...
```

- Renaming temporary variables: better usage of registers and avoiding using unneeded temporary variables.

# Semantics-preserving transformations (2/3)

## ■ More techniques:

### ● Copy propagation:

▷ *De-reference a chain of variable copies.*

▷ *Example:*

```
a = x;  
y = a;  
b = y;
```

```
a = x;  
y = x;  
b = x;
```

### ● Flow of control simplification:

▷ *De-reference a chain of goto's.*

▷ *Example:*

```
goto L1
```

```
...
```

```
L1: goto L2
```

```
goto L2
```

```
...
```

```
L1: goto L2
```

# Semantics-preserving transformations (3/3)

- Interchange of two independent adjacent statements, which might be useful in discovering the above transformations.

- Same expressions that are too far away to store  $E_1$  into a register.

▶ *Example:*

t1 := E1	t1 := E1
t2 := const	tn := E1 // swap t2 and tn
... // value of tn is not used	...
tn := E1	t2 := const

▶ *In the example above, we can swap t2 and tn since there is no dependence between t2 and tn.*

▶ *After the swapping, we can use the register stroing E1 twice.*

- **Note:** The order of dependence cannot be altered after the exchange.

▶ *Example:*

t1 := E1
t2 := t1 + tn // cannot swap t2 and tn
...
tn := E1

▶ *In the example above, we cannot swap t2 and tn because t2 needs to be executed before tn.*

# Algebraic transformations

## ■ Algebraic identities:

- $x + 0 \equiv 0 + x \equiv x$
- $x - 0 \equiv x$
- $x * 1 \equiv 1 * x \equiv x$
- $x/1 \equiv x$

## ■ Reduction in strength:

- $x^2 \equiv x * x$
- $2.0 * x \equiv x + x$
- $x/2 \equiv x * 0.5$

## ■ Constant folding:

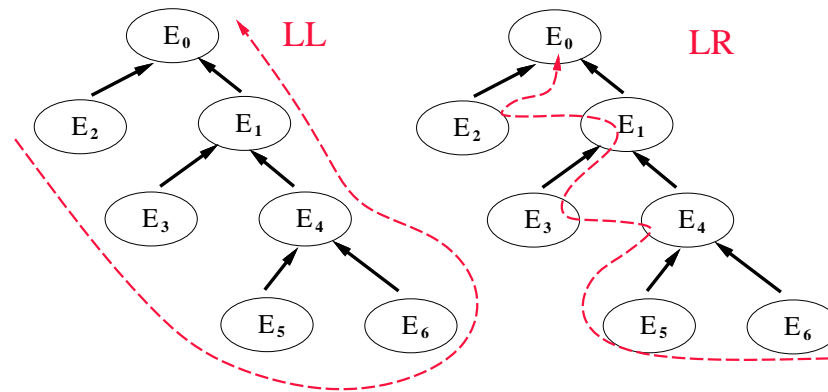
- $2 * 3.14 \equiv 6.28$

## ■ Standard representation for subexpression by commutativity and associativity:

- $n * m \equiv m * n.$
- $b < a \equiv a > b.$

# Correctness after optimization

- When side effects are expected, different evaluation orders may produce different results for expressions.



- Assume  $E_5$  is a procedure call with the side effect of changing some values in  $E_6$ .
- *LL* and *LR* parsing produce different results.
- Watch out precisions when doing algebraic transformations.
  - if  $(x = 321.00000123456789 - 321.00000123456788) > 0$  then  $\dots$
- Need to make sure code before and after optimization produce the same result.
- Complications arise when debugger is involved.