

For some compiler, the intermediate code is a pseudo-code of a virtual machine.

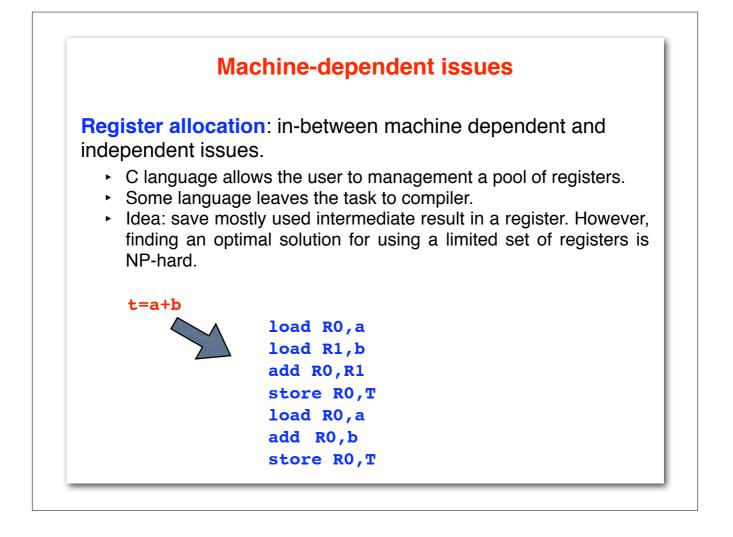
- Interpreter of the virtual machine is invoked to execute the intermediate.
- No machine-dependent generation is needed.
- Usually with great overhead.

Examples:

- ✓ Pascal: P-code for the virtual P machine.
- ✓ JAVA: Bytecode for the virtual JAVA machine.

Description of the intermediate and the target program. Input and output formats: The formats of the intermediate 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-independent issues

Techniques

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

The Target Program

- RISC (reduced instruction set computer)
- Many registers, three address instructions, simple addressing modes, simple instruction set arch
- CISC (complex instruction set computer) few registers, two address instructions, various

addressing modes, variable length instruction set

- Stack based Machine
- Pushing operands onto a stack
- Almost disappeared, then revived with Java Virtual Machine (JVM)

Machine-dependent issues

Choice of the target language: RISC

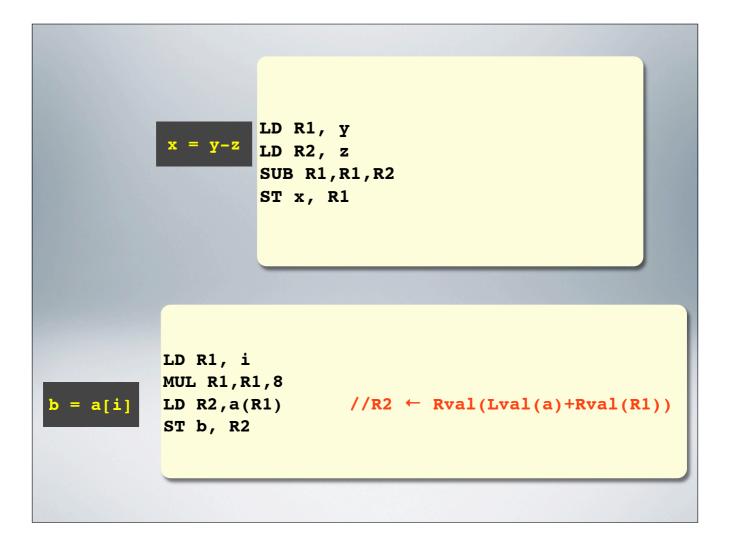
LD RO, Y //RO = Y ADD RO, R1, R2 //RO = RO=R1+R2 ST x, RO // x = RO

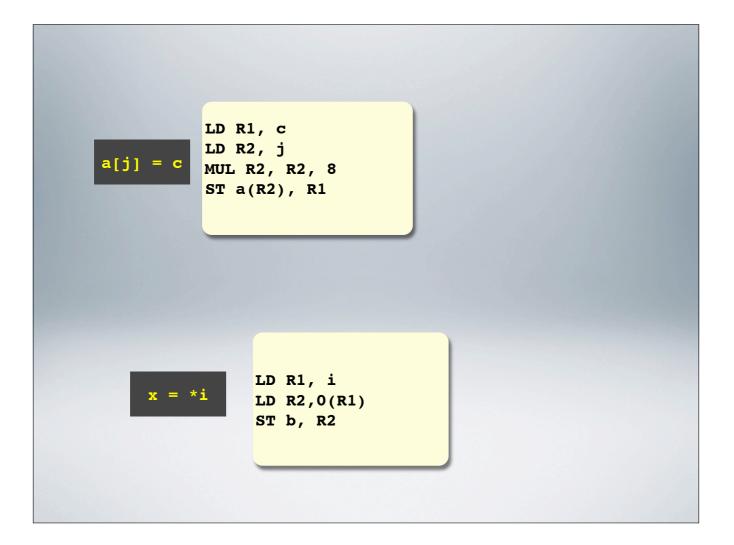
A Simple Target Machine Model

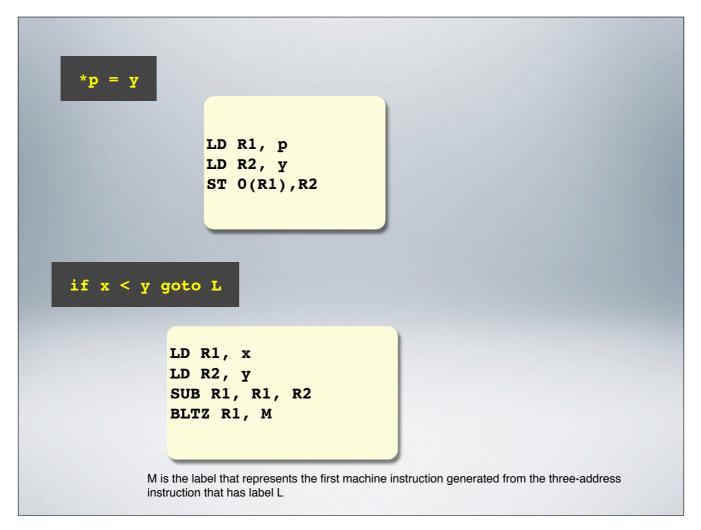
Byte-addressable machine with *n* general-purpose registers, R₀, R₁, ..., R_{n-1}

OPERATIONS	FORMAT
Load	LD $r, x (r=x)$
Store	ST x,r (x=r)
Computation	OP r1, r2,r3 (SUB r1, r2,r3 // r1=r2-r3)
Unconditional jumps	BR L
Conditional jump	Bcond r, L (BLTZ r, L)

Addressing modes				
format	addr	examples		
x	Lval(x)	name		
a(r)	Lval(a)+ Rval(r)	LD R1 a(R2)		
const(r)	const+Rval(r)	LD R1, 100(R2)		
*r	Rval(Rval(r))	LD R1, *(R2)		
*const(r)	Rval(const+Rval(r))	LD R1, *100(R2)		
#const // immediate op	nil	LD R1, #100		







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. 			
Finding an optimal solution for using a limited set of registers is NP-hard.			
t=a+b			
load R0,a			
load R1,b			
add RO,R1			
store R0,T			

Basic blocks

Maximal sequences of consecutive three-address instructions s.t.:

- The flow of control can only enter the basic block through the first instruction in the block (no jumps into the middle of the block)
- Control will leave the block without halting or branching, except possibly at the last instruction in the block.

• Partition the intermediate code into basic blocks

• The basic blocks become the nodes of a *flow graph,* whose edges indicate which blocks can follow which other blocks.

Partitioning three-address instructions into basic blocks.

Algorithm 8.5:

INPUT:

A sequence of three-address instructions.

OUTPUT:

A list of the basic blocks for that sequence in which each instruction is assigned to exactly one basic block.

METHOD:

a) determine the leaders:

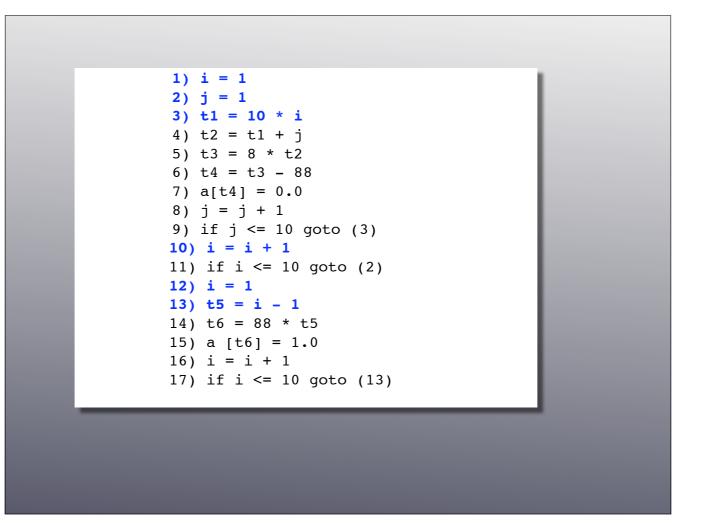
1. The first three-address instruction in the intermediate is a leader.

2. Any instruction that is the target of a conditional or unconditional jump is a leader.

3. Any instruction that immediately follows a conditional or unconditional jump is a leader.

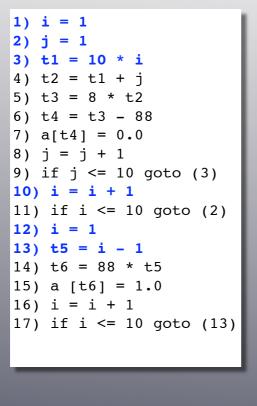
b) for each leader, its basic block consists of itself and all instructions up to but not including the next leader or the end of the intermediate program.

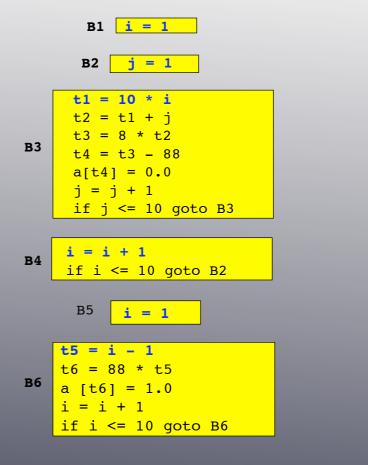
```
1) i = 1
2) j = 1
3) t1 = 10 * i
4) t^2 = t^1 + j
5) t3 = 8 * t2
6) t4 = t3 - 88
7) a[t4] = 0.0
8) j = j + 1
9) if j <= 10 goto (3)
                                          Leaders ?
10) i = i + 1
11) if i <= 10 goto (2)
12) i = 1
13) t5 = i - 1
14) t6 = 88 * t5
15) a [t6] = 1.0
16) i = i + 1
17) if i <= 10 goto (13)
```



```
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1) i = 12) j = 1 3) t1 = 10 * i4) $t^2 = t^1 + j$ 5) t3 = 8 * t26) t4 = t3 - 887) a[t4] = 0.08) j = j + 19) if j <= 10 goto (3) 10) i = i + 111) if i <= 10 goto (2) 12) i = 113) t5 = i - 114) t6 = 88 * t515) a [t6] = 1.016) i = i + 117) if i <= 10 goto (13)





Optimization of Basic Blocks

- Local optimization within each basic block
- Global optimization

We will focus on the former.

DAG Representation of Basic Blocks

Target: Construct a DAG for a basic block

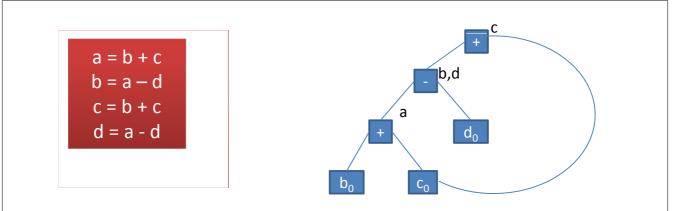
1. There is a node in the DAG for each of the initial values of the variables appearing in the basic block.

2. \forall statement **s** we associate a node N_s .

The **children** of N_s are those nodes corresponding to statements that are the last definitions, prior to s, of the operands used by s.

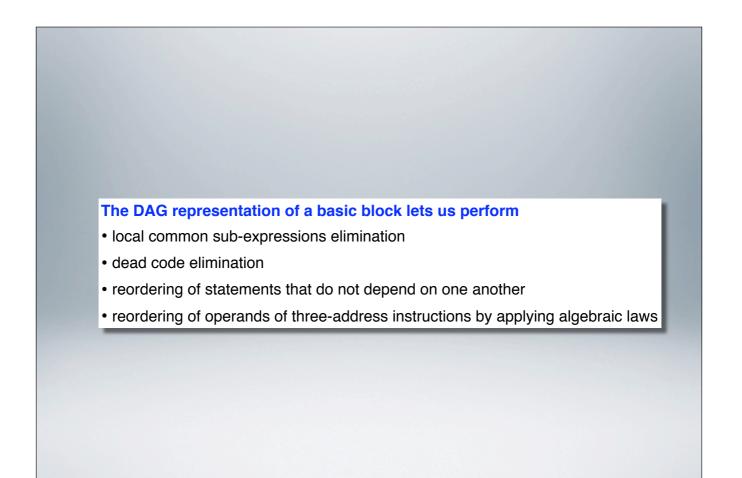
each node N_s is labeled by the operator applied at s.
 Attached to N_s is the list of variables for which it is the last definition within the block.

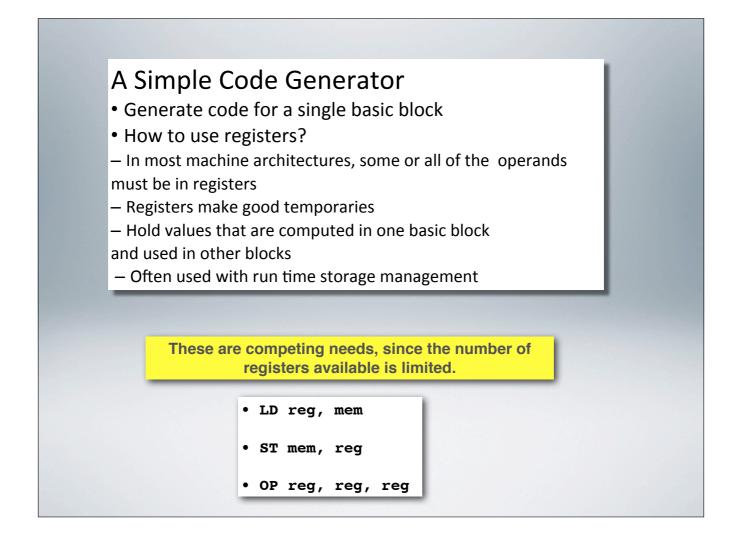
4. Certain nodes are designated *output nodes*. These are the nodes whose variables are live on exit from the block; that is, their values may be used later, in another block of the flow graph.

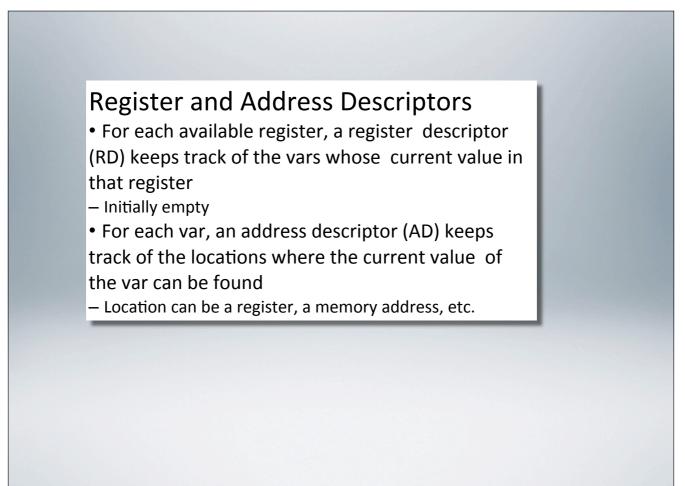


When we construct the node for the third statement c=b+c, we know that the use of **b** in b+c refers to the node labeled –, because that is the most recent definition of **b**. Thus, we do not confuse the values computed at statements one and three.

However, the node corresponding to the fourth statement d=a-d has the operator – and the nodes with attached variables a and d_0 as children. Since the operator and the children are the same as those for the node corresponding to statement two, we do not create this node, but add d to the list of definitions for the node labeled







Generation Algorithm

• For a three address instruction, e.g. x=y+z, do:

- Use getReg(x=y+z) to select registers Rx, Ry, Rz for x, y, z

- If y is not in R_y , issue an instruction **LD** R_y , y' (y' is a location for y)

• Similarly for z

- Issue the instruction ADD Rx, Ry, Rz

Copy statement x=y

We assume that **getReg()** will always choose the same register for both x and y

- If y is not already in register, generate **LD** $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{y}}, \mathbf{y}'$ (y' is a location for y)

– Adjust RD for Ry so it includes x

- change the AD for x so that its only location is Ry

Ending the basic block

– for each variable x whose location descriptor does not say that its value is located in the memory location for x and if x is used at other blocks, issue

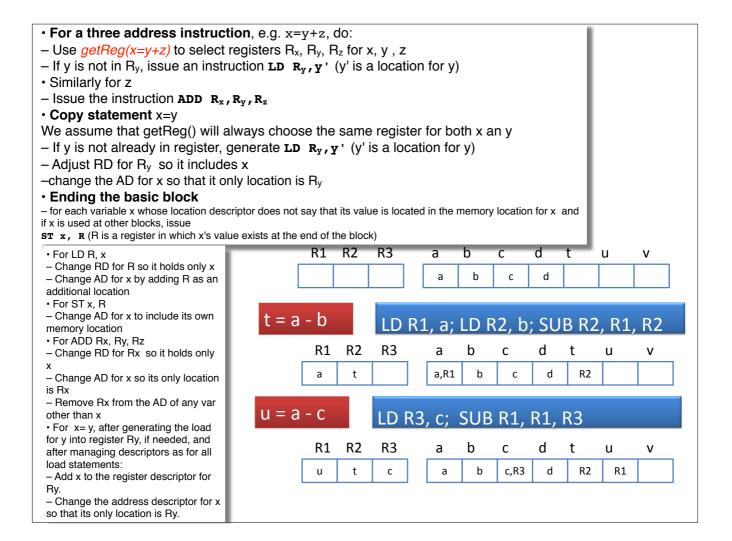
ST \mathbf{x} , **R** (R is a register in which x's value exists at the end of the block)

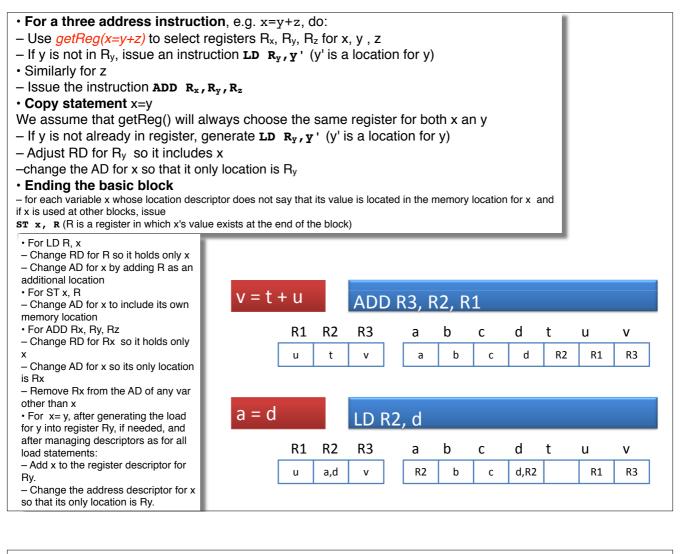
Managing Register and Address Descriptors (RD and AD)

- For LD R, x
- Change RD for R so it holds only x
- Change AD for x by adding R as an additional location
- For ST x, R
- Change AD for x to include its own memory location
- For ADD Rx, Ry, Rz
- Change RD for Rx so it holds only x
- Change AD for x so its only location is Rx
- Remove Rx from the AD of any var other than x
- For x = y, after generating the load for y into register Ry, if needed, and after managing descriptors as for all load statements:
- Add x to the register descriptor for Ry.
- Change the address descriptor for x so that its only location is Ry.

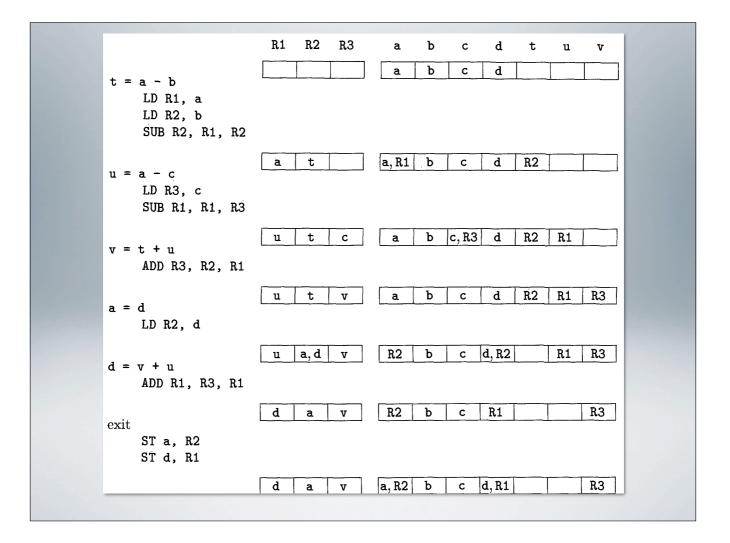
Example

- t = a b u = a - c v = t + u a = dd = v + u
- t, u, v are temp vars, while a, b, c, d are global
- Assume registers are enough
 - Reuse registers whenever possible





 Similarly for z Issue the instruction ADD R_x, Copy statement x=y We assume that getReg() will a If y is not already in register, a Adjust RD for R_y so it include Ending the basic block 	registers R_x , R_y , R_z for x, y, z ruction LD R_y , y' (y' is a location for y) , R_y , R_z always choose the same register for both x an y generate LD R_y , y' (y' is a location for y) es x criptor does not say that its value is located in the memory location for x and	
 For LD R, x Change RD for R so it holds only x Change AD for x by adding R as an additional location For ST x, R Change AD for x to include its own memory location For ADD Rx, Ry, Rz Change RD for Rx so it holds only 	d = v + u ADD R1, R3, R1	
x – Change AD for x so its only location is Rx	R1 R2 R3 a b c d t	u v
 Remove Rx from the AD of any var other than x 	d a v R2 b c R1	R3
 For x= y, after generating the load for y into register Ry, if needed, and after managing descriptors as for all 	ST a, R2; ST d, R1	
load statements: – Add x to the register descriptor for	R1 R2 R3 a b c d t	u v
Ry. – Change the address descriptor for x so that its only location is Ry.	d a v a,R2 b c d,R1	R3



getReg(I): selects registers for each memory location associated with the three-address instruction I

Function getReg()

- Consider picking Ry for y in x = y + z
- If y is in a register, do nothing

If y is not in a register and there is a empty one, choose it as Ry
 PROBLEM: y is not in a register, and there are no empty registers
 we proceed in the following way:

Let v be one of the var in R

- We are OK if v is somewhere else besides R
- We are OK if v is x
- We are OK if v is not used later
- if we are not OK perform Spill, namely ST v, R

Selection of the register *Rx*. The issues and options are almost as for *y*, so we shall only mention the differences.

- Since a new value of *x* is being computed, a register that holds only *x* is always an acceptable choice for *Rx*. This statement holds even if *x* is one of *y* and *z*, since our machine instructions allows two registers to be the same in one instruction.
- If y is not used after instruction I and Ry holds only y after being loaded, if necessary, and, if y is not a temporary,
 AD(y) contains y, then Ry can also be used as Rx. A similar option holds regarding z and Rz.

- Case when *I* is a copy instruction x = y.

We pick the register Ry as above. Then, we always choose Rx = Ry.