

Code Generation

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Spring 2024

Columbia University

* Course website: <https://verigu.github.io/4115Spring2024/>

The Final Exam

The Final Exam

75 minutes

Closed book

One double-sided sheet of notes of your own devising

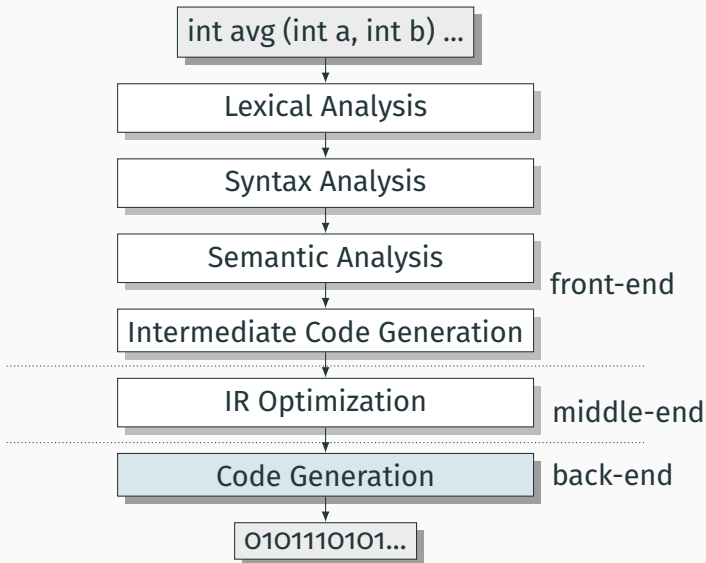
Anything discussed in class is fair game

Little, if any, programming

Details of OCaml/C/C++/Java syntax not required

Code Generation

Code Generation



Code Generation

- Choose the appropriate machine instructions for each IR instruction.
- Manage **finite** machine resources (e.g., registers).
- Implement runtime environment.

The Memory Hierarchy

Memory tradeoffs: there is an enormous tradeoff between **speed** and **size** in memory.

- Registers: 1 ns, 1 KB
- Per-CPU cache: 5 ns, 128 KB
- Shared cache: 25 ns, 6 MB
- Main memory: 100 ns, 16 GB
- Disk: 10 ms, 1 TB
- Network: 100 ms, huge

The Challenges of Code Generation

Goal: Try to get the best of all worlds by using multiple types of memory.

Challenges:

- All variables in TAC live in **memory**.
- Position objects in a way that takes maximum advantage of the memory hierarchy.
- Do so **without** hints from the programmer.

Register Allocation

Using registers intelligently is a **critical** step in any compiler.

Register allocation is the process of assigning variables to registers and managing data transfer in and out of registers.

Challenges:

- In TAC, there are an **unlimited** number of variables.
- On a physical machine there are a **small** number of registers.

Register Allocation

Explore three algorithms for register allocation:

- Naive (“no”) register allocation.
- **Linear scan** register allocation.
- **Graph-coloring** register allocation.

Naive Register Allocation

Naive Register Allocation

Idea: store every value in main memory, loading values only when they're needed.

- Insert **load** to pull the values from memory into registers before access.
- Insert **store** to store the values back into memory after access.

Naive Register Allocation

`a = b + c;`

`d = a;`

Naive Register Allocation

`a = b + c;`

`lw $t0, -12(fp)`

`lw $t1, -16(fp)`

`add $t2, $t0, $t1`

`sw $t2, -8(fp)`

`d = a;`

Naive Register Allocation

a = b + c;

lw \$t0, -12(fp)

lw \$t1, -16(fp)

add \$t2, \$t0, \$t1

sw \$t2, -8(fp)

d = a;

lw \$t0, -8(fp)

sw \$t0, -20(fp)

Naive Register Allocation

Advantages:

Disadvantages:

Naive Register Allocation

Advantages:

- Can easily translate IR to assembly.
- Never need to worry about running out of registers.

Disadvantages:

Naive Register Allocation

Advantages:

- Can easily translate IR to assembly.
- Never need to worry about running out of registers.

Disadvantages:

- Unnecessary loads and stores.
- Wastes space.
- Too slow.

Linear Scan Register Allocation

A Better Allocator

Goal: try to hold as many variables in registers as possible.

Register consistency:

- At each program point, each variable must be in the **same** location.
- At each program point, each register holds at most one **live** variable.

Live Intervals

Live interval: the smallest subrange of the IR code containing all a variable's live ranges.

`e = d + a;`

`f = b + c;`

`f = f + b;`

`d = e + f;`

`g = d;`

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`{ g }`

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f = f + b;
```

```
{ e, f }
```

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d = e + f;
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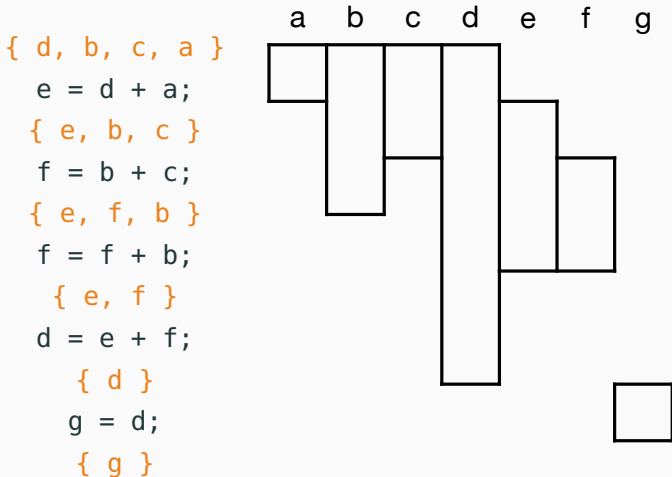
{ d }

g = d;

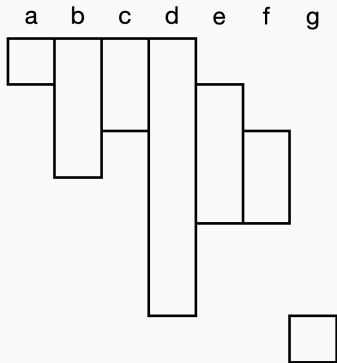
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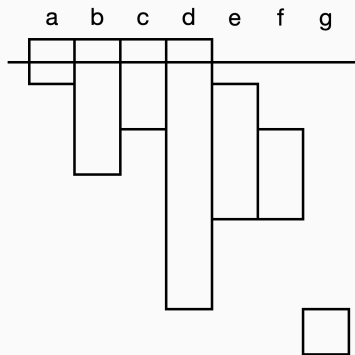
Linear Scan



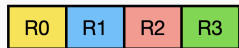
Free Registers



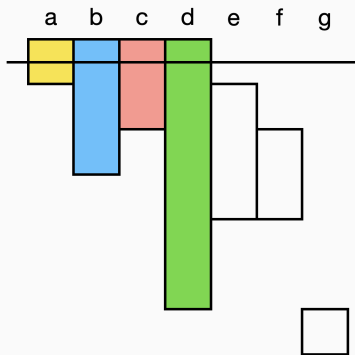
Linear Scan



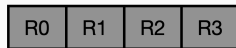
Free Registers



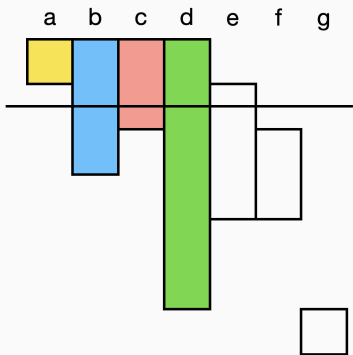
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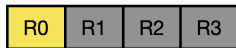
Free Registers



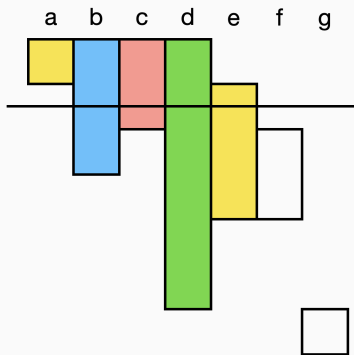
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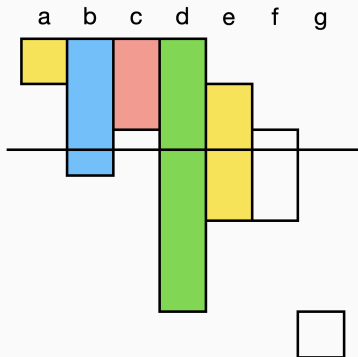
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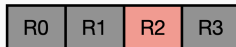
Free Registers

R0	R1	R2	R3
----	----	----	----

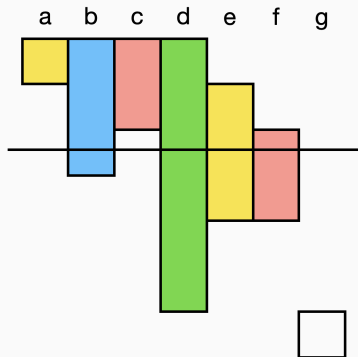
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Free Registers



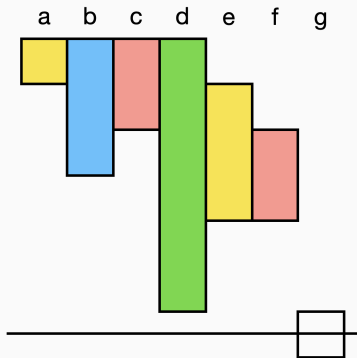
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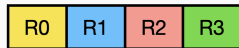
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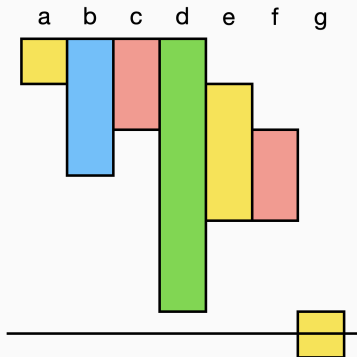
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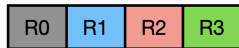
Free Registers



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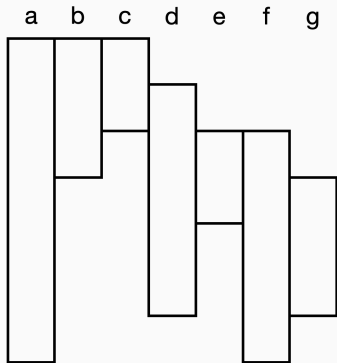


Free Registers



Another Example

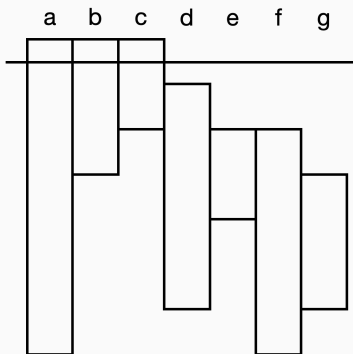
Another Example



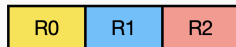
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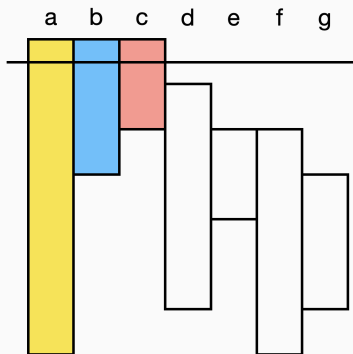
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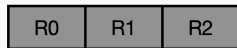
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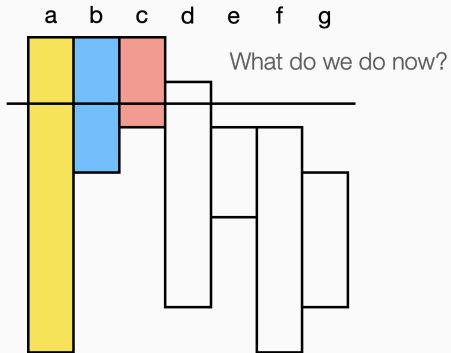
Another Example



Free Registers



Another Example



Free Registers

R0	R1	R2
----	----	----

Register Spilling

If a register cannot be found for a variable v , we may need to **spill** a variable.

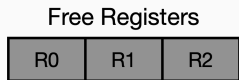
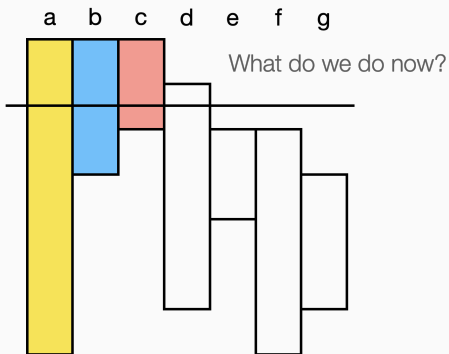
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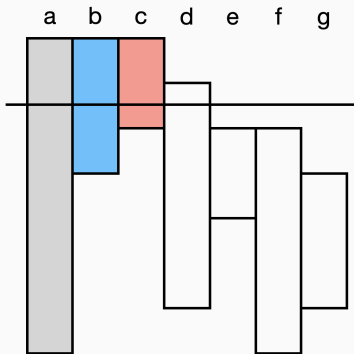
When a variable is spilled, it is stored in **memory** rather than a register.

Spilling is slow, but sometimes necessary.

Another Example



Another Example

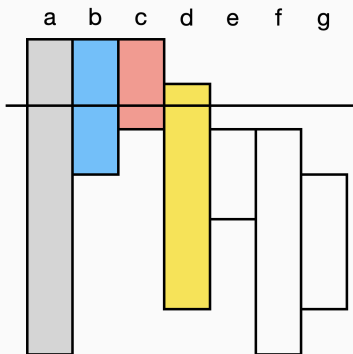


Free Registers



Spilling

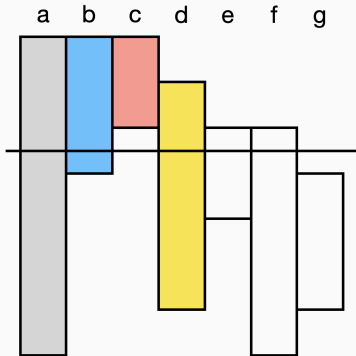
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Free Registers

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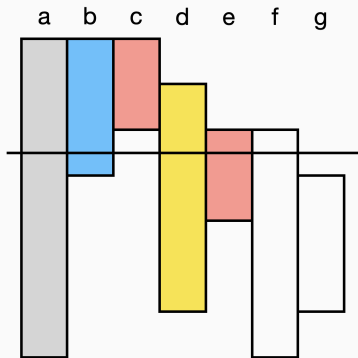
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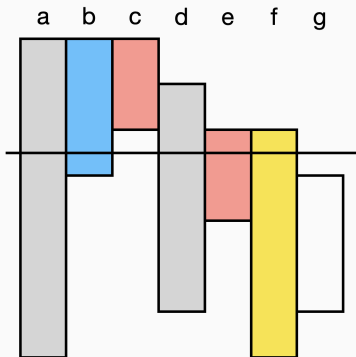
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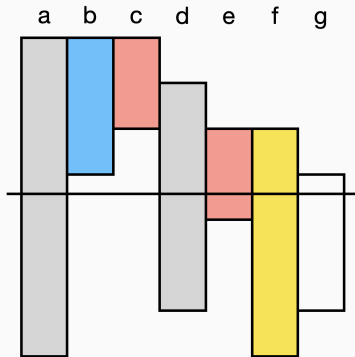
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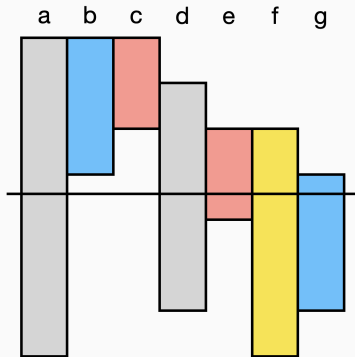
Another Example



Free Registers



Another Example



Free Registers



Linear Scan Algorithm

Advantages

Disadvantages

Linear Scan Algorithm

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- Very **efficient**.
- Produce good code in many instances.
- Can generate code during iteration.

Disadvantages

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Advantages

- Very **efficient**.
- Produce good code in many instances.
- Can generate code during iteration.

Disadvantages

- **Imprecise** due to use of live intervals.
- Many techniques can be better.

Correctness Proof

At each program point, each variable must be in the **same** location.

At each program point, each register holds at most one **live** variable.

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At each program point, each variable must be in the **same** location.

- All variables assigned a **unique** location.

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Correctness Proof

At each program point, each variable must be in the **same** location.

- All variables assigned a **unique** location.

At each program point, each register holds at most one **live** variable.

- No two variables with **overlapping** live intervals placed in the same register.

Graph-coloring Register Allocation

The Register Interference Graph (RIG)

{ d, b, c, a }

e = d + a;

{ e, b, c }

f = b + c;

{ e, f, b }

f = f + b;

{ e, f }

d = e + f;

{ d }

g = d;

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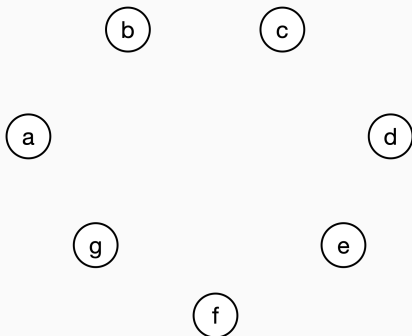
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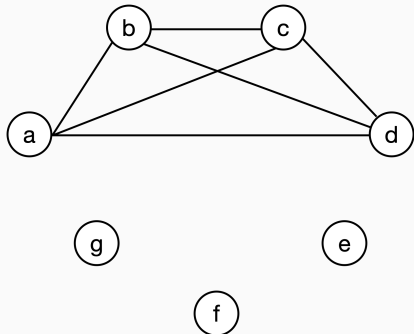
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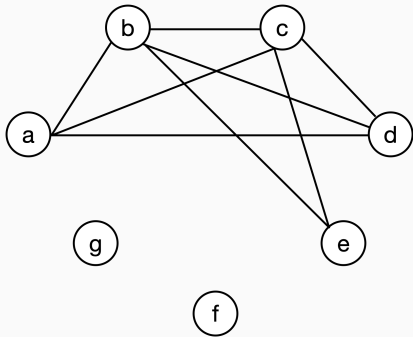
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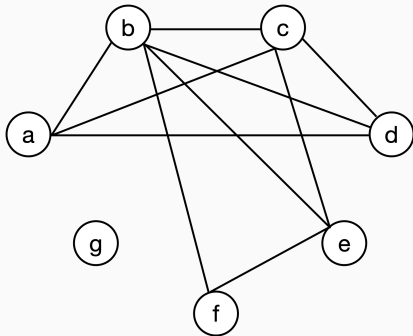
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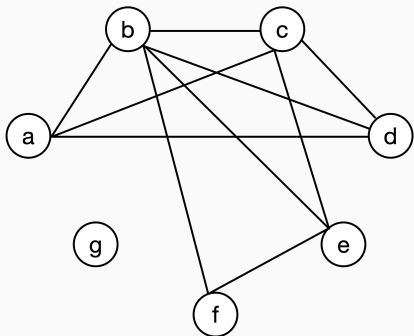
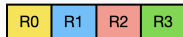
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Free Registers



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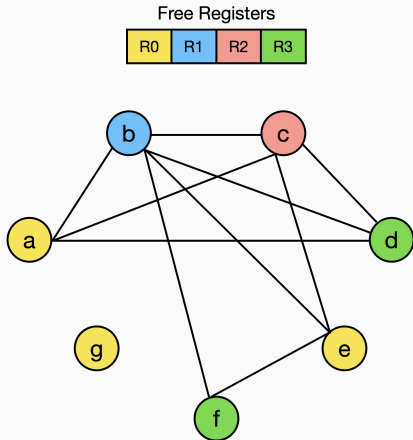
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The Register Interference Graph

The **register interference graph** (RIG) of a control-flow graph is an undirected graph where

- Each node is a variable
- There is an edge between two variables that are **live** at the same point

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Perform register allocation by assigning each variable a different register from all of its neighbors.

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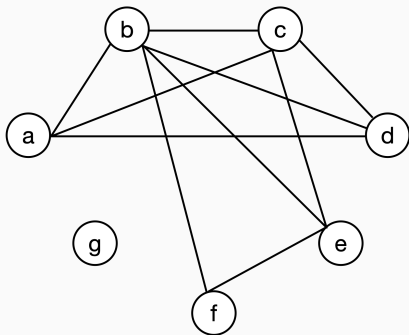
This problem is equivalent to **graph-coloring**.

Graph Coloring

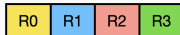
Graph coloring is **NP-complete** if there are at least three registers.

Chaitin's Algorithm: we can delete the node with fewer than k edges from the graph and color what remains with k colors.

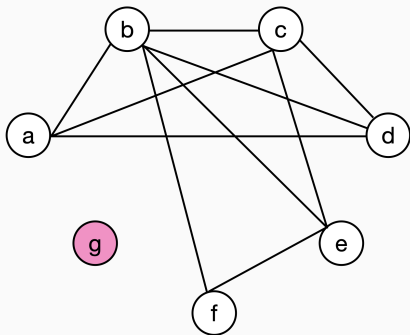
Chaitin's Algorithm



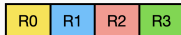
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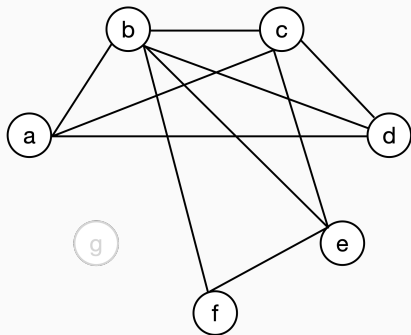
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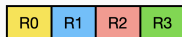


Chaitin's Algorithm

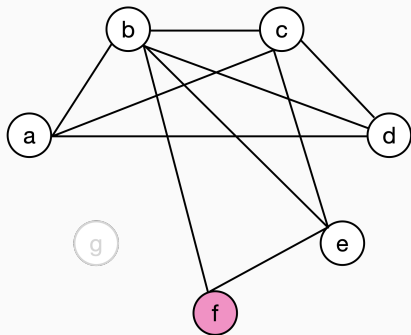


g

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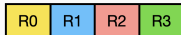


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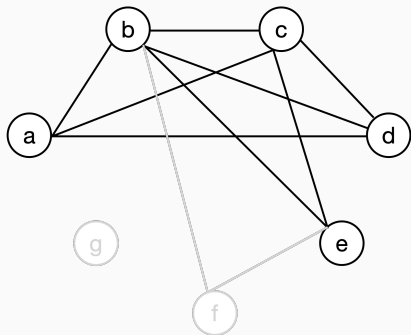


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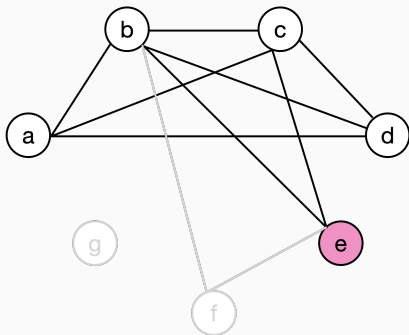
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Free Registers



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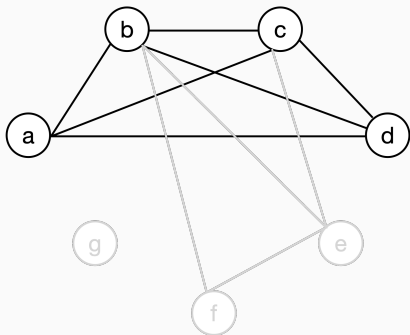
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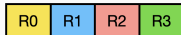
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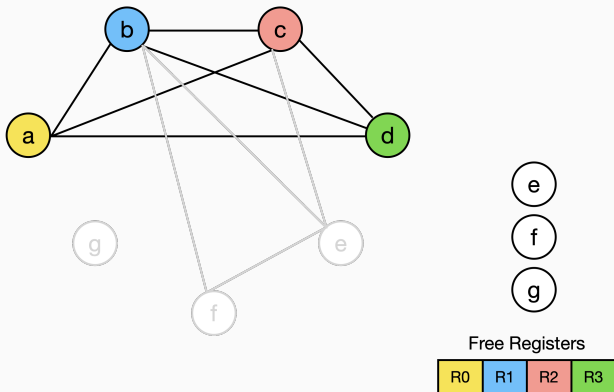
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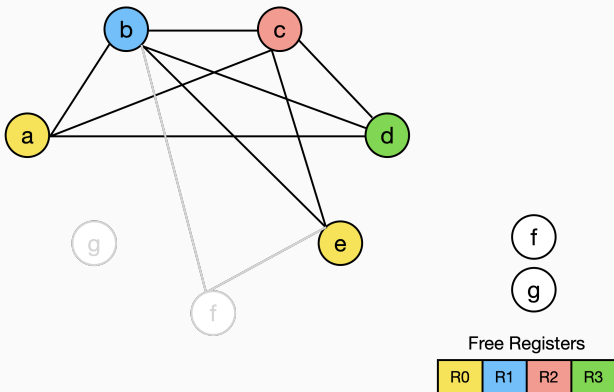
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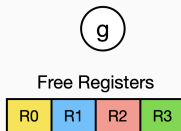
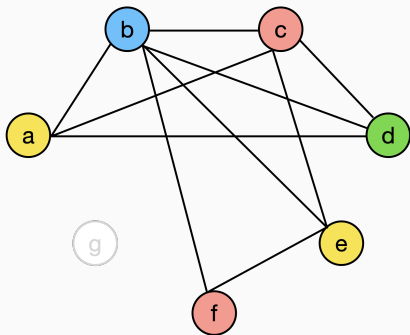
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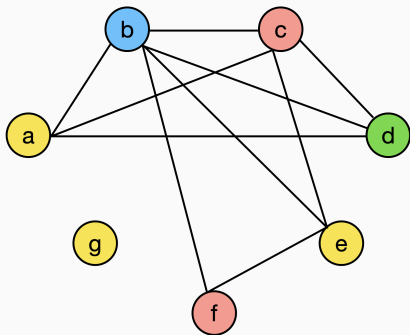
Chaitin's Algorithm



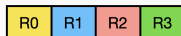
Chaitin's Algorithm



Chaitin's Algorithm



Free Registers



One Problem

What if we can't find a node with fewer than k neighbors?

One Problem

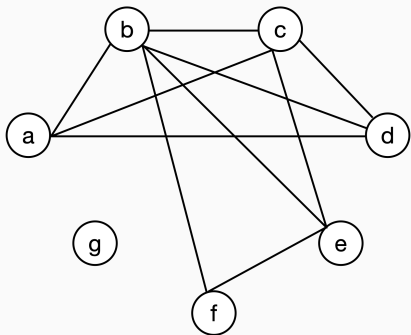
What if we can't find a node with fewer than k neighbors?

Choose and remove an arbitrary node, marking it **troublesome**.

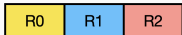
When adding node back in, it may be possible to find a valid color.

Otherwise, we have to **spill** that node.

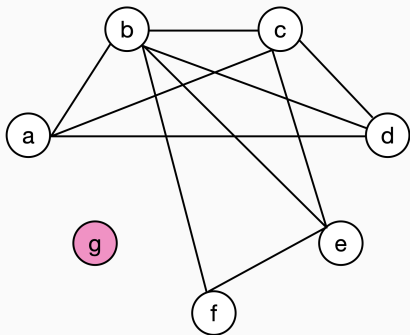
Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



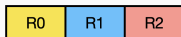
Free Registers



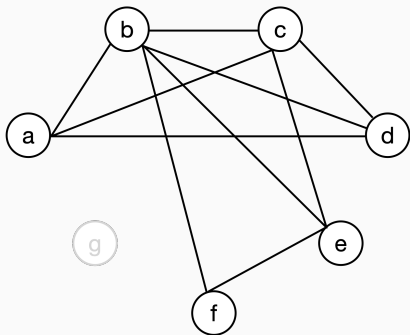
Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



Free Registers

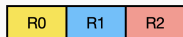


Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded

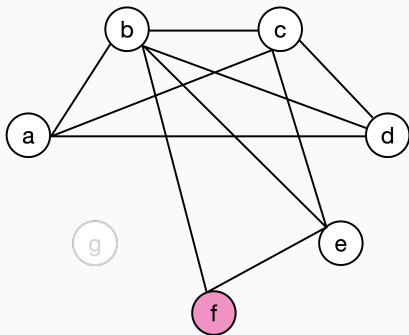


g

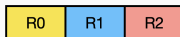
Free Registers



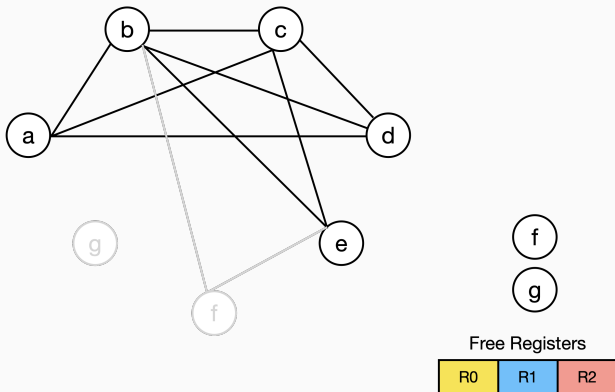
Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



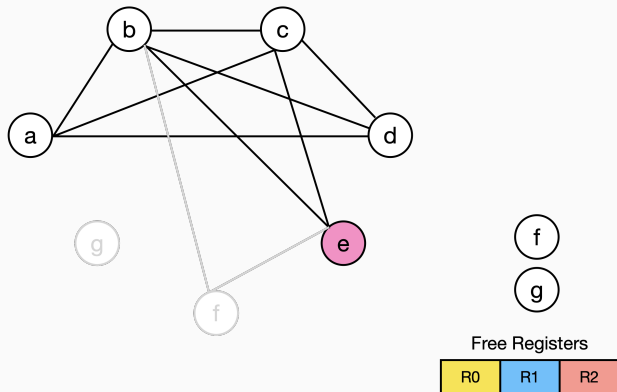
Free Registers



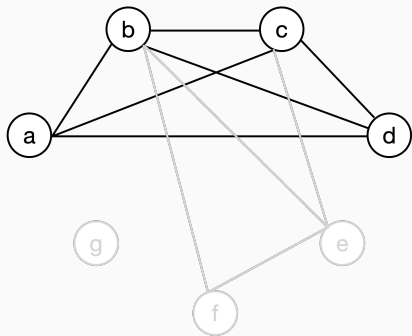
Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



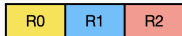
Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



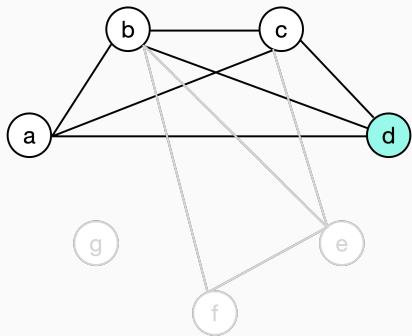
Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



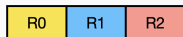
Free Registers



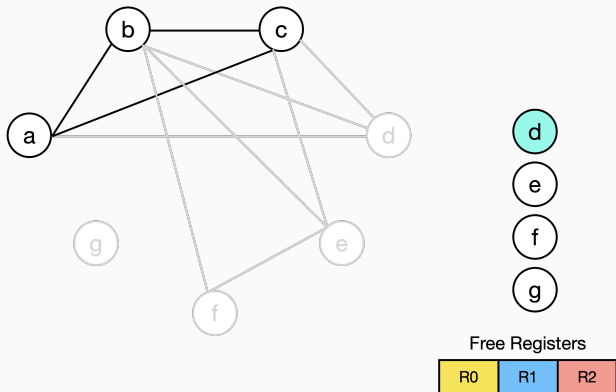
Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



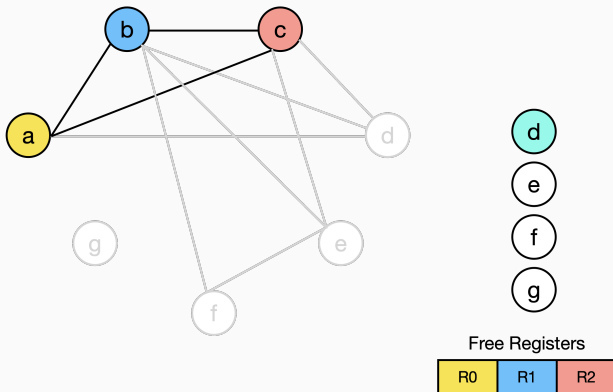
Free Registers



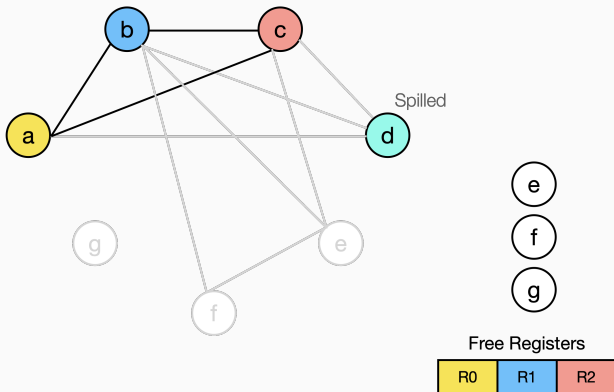
Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



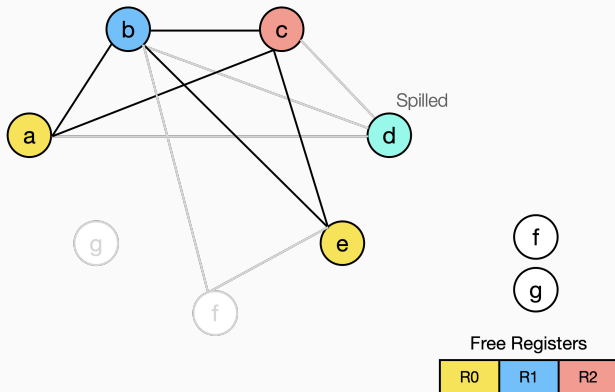
Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



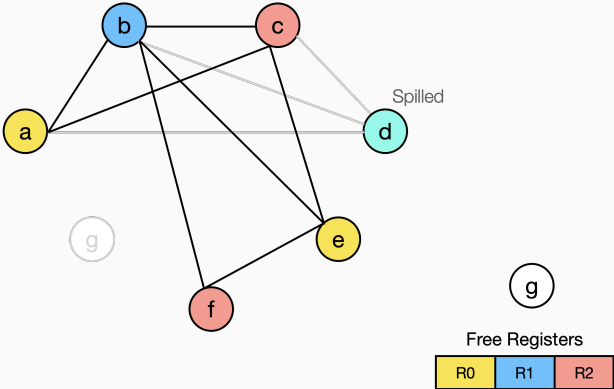
Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



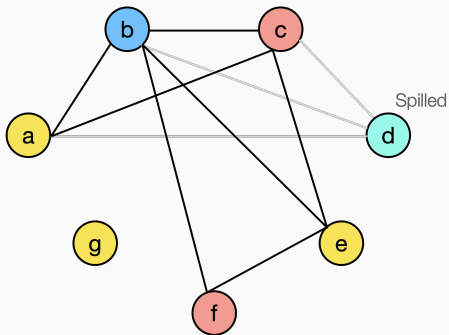
Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



Chaitin's Algorithm Reloaded



Free Registers

