

CS 335: Code Generation

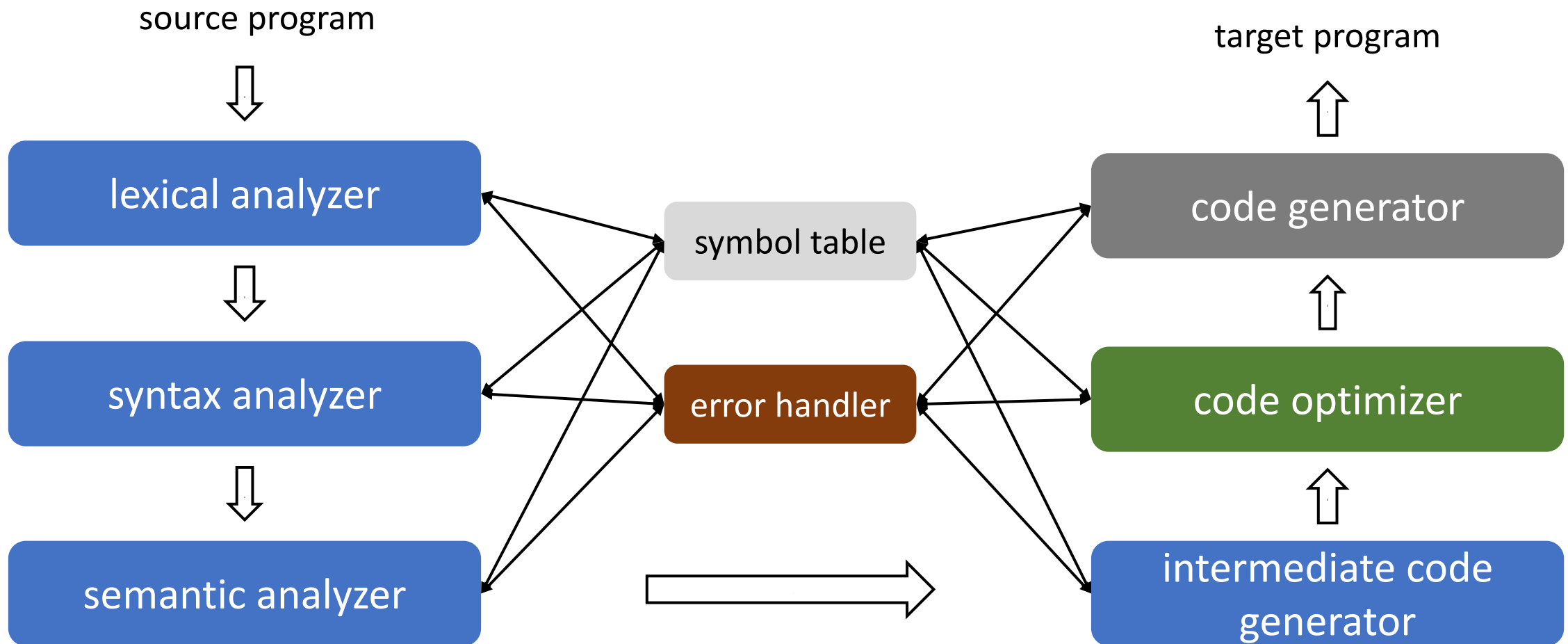
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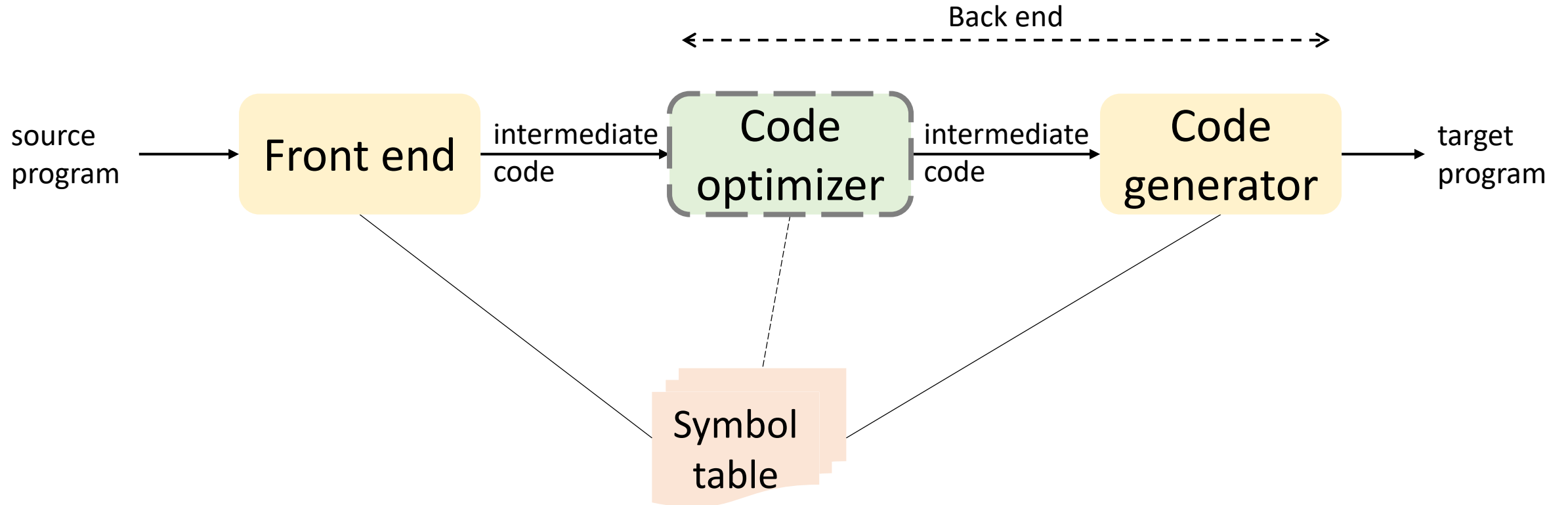
CSE, IIT Kanpur

Content influenced by many excellent references, see References slide for acknowledgements.

An Overview of Compilation



Code Generation



Code Generation

- i. Generated output code must be correct
 - ii. Generated code must be of “good” quality
 - Should make efficient use of resources on the target machine
 - Notion of good can be vary
 - iii. Code generation should be efficient
-
- Generating optimal code is undecidable, compilers make use of well-designed heuristics

Code Generation

- **Input**

- Intermediate representation (IR) generated by the front end
 - Linear IRs like 3AC or stack machine representations
 - Graphical IRs also work
- Symbol table information

- **Assumptions**

- Code generation does not bother with any error checking
- Code generation assumes that types in the IR can be operated on by target machine instructions
 - For example, bits, integers, and floats

Code Generation

- **Output**

- Absolute machine code
 - Generated **addresses are fixed** and works when loaded at fixed locations in memory
 - Efficient to execute, now primarily used in embedded systems
- Relocatable machine code
 - Code can be broken down into separate sections and loaded anywhere in memory that meets size requirements
 - Allows for separate compilation, but requires a **separate linking and loading** phase
- Assembly language
 - Simplifies code generation, but **requires assembling** the generated code

Steps in Code Generation

- Compiler backend performs three steps to translate IR to executable code
 - Instruction selection – Choose appropriate target machine instructions while generating code
 - Register allocation – Decide what values to keep in which registers
 - Instruction scheduling – Decide in what order to schedule the execution of instructions
- Manage memory during execution

Instruction Selection

- Complexity arises because each IR instruction can be translated in several ways, combinatorial problem

$a = a + 1$

```
1. LD R0, a
   ADD R0, R0, #1
   ST a, R0
```

```
2. INC a
```

- Target ISA influences instruction selection
 - Scalar RISC machine – simple mapping from IR to assembly
 - CISC machine – may need to fuse multiple IR operations for effectively using CISC instructions
 - Stack machine – need to translate implicit names and destructive instructions to assembly

Instruction Selection

- Possible idea
 - Devise a target code skeleton for every 3AC IR instruction
 - Replace every 3AC instruction with the skeleton
- Need a cost model and heuristics for selection
 - Other factors are level of abstraction of the IR, speed of instructions, energy consumption, and space overhead

$x = y + z$

```
LD R0, y
ADD R0, R0, z
ST x, R0
```

$a = b + c$

$d = a + e$

```
LD R0, b
ADD R0, R0, c
ST a, R0
LD R0, a
ADD R0, R0, e
ST d, R0
```

redundant

Register Allocation

- Instructions operating on register operands are more efficient
 - **Register allocation** – Choose which variables will reside in registers
 - **Register assignment** – Choose which registers to assign to each variable
- Architectures may impose restrictions on usage of registers
- Finding an optimal assignment of registers to variables is NP-complete

- Architectures such as IBM 370 may require register pairs to be used for some instructions

MUL x, y	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• x is in the even register, y is in the odd register• Product occupies the entire even/odd register pair
DIV x, y	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• 64-bit dividend occupies the even/odd register pair• Even register holds the remainder, odd register the quotient

Instruction Scheduling

- Order of evaluating the instructions also affect the efficiency of the target code
- Selecting the best order across inputs is a NP-complete problem

Example Target Machine

- Efficient code generation requires good understanding of the target ISA
- **Assumptions**
 - Three-address machine, byte-addressable with four-byte words
 - n general-purpose registers
 - `OP dst, src1, src2; LD dst addr; ST dst, src; BR L; Bcondr L;`

Addressing Modes

- Specifies how to **interpret the operands** of an instruction

Mode	Form	Address	Example
absolute	M	M	LD R0, M
register	R	R	ADD R0, R1, R2
indexed	c(R)	c + contents(R)	LD R1, 4(R0)
indirect register	*R	contents(R)	LD R1, *R0
indirect indexed	*c(R)	contents(c + contents(R))	LD R1, *100(R0)
literal	#c	c	LD R1, #1

Few Examples

$x = y - z$	LD R1, y LD R2, z SUB R1, R1, R2 ST x, R1	// R1 = y // R2 = z // R1 = R1 - R2 // x = R1
-------------	--	--

if $x < y$ goto L	LD R1, x LD R2, y SUB R1, R1, R2 BLTZ R1, M	// R1 = x // R2 = y // R1 = R1 - R2 // if R1 < 0 JMP M
-------------------	--	---

$b = a[i]$	LD R1, i MUL R1, R1, 8 LD R2, a(R1) ST b, R2	// R1 = i // R1 = R1 * 8 // R2 = c(a + c(R1))
------------	---	---

$a[j] = c$	LD R1, c LD R2, j MUL R2, R2, 8 ST a(R2), R1	// R1 = c // R2 = j // R2 = R2 * 8 // c(a + c(R2)) = R1
------------	---	--

$x = *p$	LD R1, p LD R2, 0(R1) ST x, R2	// R1 = p // R2 = c(0+c(R1)) // x = R2
----------	--------------------------------------	--

$*p = y$	LD R1, p LD R2, y ST 0(R1), R2	// R1 = p // R2 = y // c(0+c(R1)) = R2
----------	--------------------------------------	--

Runtime Storage Management

- Let us consider the following 3AC: call callee, return, halt, action
- Assume that the first location in the activation record (given by *staticArea*) of the callee stores the return address of the caller

Static Allocation	
<i>ST callee.staticArea, #here + 20</i>	Store return address in the first slot in the callee's activation record, assume 2 opcodes and 3 constants are each of 4 bytes
<i>BR callee.codeArea</i>	Transfer control to callee
...	
<i>BR *callee.staticArea</i>	Return transfer to caller
...	

return
address →

Determine Addresses in Target Code

- Need to generate code to manage activation records at runtime

3AC
<pre>// code for func c action₁ call p action₂ halt</pre>
<pre>// code for func p action₃ return</pre>

Activation record for c (64 Bytes)	
0:	return address
4:	arr
56:	i
60:	j

Activation record for p (88 Bytes)	
0:	return address
4:	buf
84:	n

Target Code for Static Allocation

text area

		// code for c
100:	ACTION ₁	// assume takes 20 bytes
120:	ST 364, #140	// save return address 140
132:	BR 200	// call p
140:	ACTION ₂	
160:	HALT	// Terminate, return to OS
		// code for p
200:	ACTION ₃	
220:	BR *364	// return to address saved in location 364

stack area with activation records

		// 300-363 hold activation record for c
300:		// return address
304:		// local data for c
		// 364-451 hold activation record for p
364:	140	// return address
368:		// local data for p

Stack Allocation

Code for first procedure	
LD SP, # <i>stackStart</i> code	// initialize the stack
HALT	// terminate execution
Code for procedure call	
ADD SP, SP, # <i>caller.recordSize</i> ST *SP, # <i>here</i> + 16	// increment stack pointer // save return address in // callee's frame
BR <i>callee.codeArea</i>	// jump to caller
Code for return sequence in the callee	
BR *0(SP)	// return to caller
Code for return sequence in the caller	
SUB SP, SP, # <i>caller.recordSize</i>	// decrement stack pointer

3AC
// code for s action ₁ call q action ₂ halt
// code for p action ₃ return
// code for q action ₄ call p action ₅ call q action ₆ call q return

Target Code for Stack Allocation

		// code for s
100:	LD SP, #600	// initialize the stack
108:	ACTION ₁	// code for action ₁
128:	ADD SP, SP, #ssize	// call sequence begins
136:	ST 0(SP), #152	// push return address
144:	BR 300	// call q
152:	SUB SP, SP, #ssize	// restore SP
160:	ACTION ₂	
180:	HALT	
		// code for p
200:	ACTION ₃	
220:	BR *0(SP)	// return to caller

		// code for q
300:	ACTION ₄	// conditional jump to 456
320:	ADD SP, SP, #qsize	
328:	ST 0(SP), #344	// push return address
336:	BR 200	// call p
344:	SUB SP, SP, #qsize	
352:	ACTION ₅	
372:	ADD SP, SP, #qsize	
380:	ST 0(SP), #396	// push return address
388:	BR 300	// call q
396:	SUB SP, SP, #qsize	
404:	ACTION ₆	
424:	ADD SP, SP, #qsize	
432:	ST 0(SP), #448	// push return address
440:	BR 300	// call q
448:	SUB SP, SP, #qsize	
456:	BR *0(SP)	// return
600:		// stack starts here

Basic Blocks and Flow Graphs

Basic Block

- Maximal sequence of consecutive statements in which flow of control enters at the beginning and leaves at the end
 - Entry is to the start of the BB, and exit is from the end of the BB
 - Only the start/leader instruction can be the target of a JUMP instruction
 - No jumps into the middle of the block
 - No branch instructions other than the end

```
t1 = a * a
t2 = a * b
t3 = 2 * t2
t4 = t1 + t3
t5 = b * b
t6 = t4 + t5
```

Identifying Basic Blocks (BBs)

- **Input**

- A sequence of 3AC

- **Output**

- List of BBs with each 3AC in exactly one BB

- **Algorithm**

- Identify the leaders which are the first statements in a BB
 1. The first statement is a leader
 2. Any statement that is the target of a conditional or unconditional goto is a leader
 3. Any statement that immediately follows a conditional or unconditional goto is a leader
- For each leader, its BB consists of the leader and all instructions up to but not including the next leader or the end of the program

Identifying BBs

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

Statements (1), (2), (3), (10), (12), and (13) are leaders

There are six BBs: (1), (2), (3)-(9), (10)-(11), (12), (13)-(17)

(1) $i = 1$

(2) $j = 1$

(3) $t_1 = 10 \times i$

target

(4) $t_2 = t_1 + j$

(5) $t_3 = 8 \times t_2$

(6) $t_4 = t_3 - 88$

(7) $a[t_4] = 0.0$

(8) $j = j + 1$

(9) if $j \leq 10$ goto (3)

(10) $i = i + 1$

(11) if $i \leq 10$ goto (2)

(12) $i = 1$

follows a
conditional

(13) $t_5 = i - 1$

(14) $t_6 = 88 \times t_5$

(15) $a[t_6] = 1.0$

(16) $i = i + 1$

(17) if $i \leq 10$ goto (13)

Next Use and Liveness

- Knowing when the value of a variable will be **used next** is important for generating good code
 - Remove variables from registers if not used
- Consider the 3AC instruction $I: x = y + z$; we say I defines x and uses y and z
- Suppose a statement I defines x . If a statement J uses x as an operand, and control can flow from I to J along a path where x is not redefined, then J uses the value of x defined at I
- A name in a BB is live at a given point if its value is used after that point
 - We say x is live at statement I

no further
use

```
X = Y + Z
Z = Z * 5
t7 = Z + 1
Y = Z - t7
X = Z + Y
```

X is live at (5), X's next
use at (5) is (15)

```
(5) X = ...
      (no redefinition of X)
(15) ... = ... X ...
(25) X = ...
```

X is dead at (15)
because there is no
further use

Example of Next Use and Liveness

Intermediate Code	Live/Dead			Next use		
	x	y	z	x	y	z
(1) $x=y+z$	L	D	D	(2)	-	-
(2) $z=x*5$	D		L	-		(3)
(3) $y=z-7$		L	L		(5)	(5)
(4) $x=z+y$	D	D	D	-	-	-

Determining Next Use and Liveness Information

- **Input**

- A BB (say B) of 3AC
- Assume symbol table shows all non-temporary variables in B as live on exit and all temporaries are dead on exit

- **Output**

- Liveness and next use information for each statement $I: x = y \text{ op } z$ in B

- **Algorithm**

- i. Scan forward over B to find the last statement.
 - For each variable x used in B , create fields $x.live$ and $x.next_use$ in the symbol table. Initialize $x.live = FALSE$ and $x.next_use = NONE$.
 - Each tuple $I: x = y \text{ op } z$ stores next use and liveness information. Initialize tuple.
- ii. Scan backward over B . For each statement $I: x = y \text{ op } z$ in B , do
 - Copy the next use and liveness information for x , y , and z from the symbol table to tuple I
 - Update x , y , and z 's symbol table entries.
 - Set $x.live = FALSE$, $x.next_use = NONE$
 - Set $y.live=z.live = TRUE$ and $y.next_use = z.next_use = I$

Example Computation of Next Use and Liveness Information

Intermediate Code	Symbol Table Information						Instruction Information					
	Live			Next use			Live			Next use		
	x	y	z	x	y	z	x	y	z	x	y	z
(1) $x=y+z$	F	F	F	N	N	N	F	F	F	N	N	N
(2) $z=x*5$	F	F	F	N	N	N	F	F	F	N	N	N
(3) $y=z-7$	F	F	F	N	N	N	F	F	F	N	N	N
(4) $x=z+y$	F	F	F	N	N	N	F	F	F	N	N	N

after the forward pass

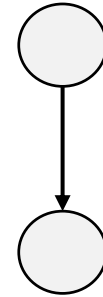
Example Computation of Next Use and Liveness Information

Intermediate Code	Symbol Table Information						Instruction Information					
	Live			Next use			Live			Next use		
	x	y	z	x	y	z	x	y	z	x	y	z
(4) $x = z + y$	F	T	T	N	(4)	(4)	F	F	F	N	N	N
(3) $y = z - 7$	F	F	T	N	N	(3)	F	T	T	N	(4)	(4)
(2) $z = x * 5$	T	F	F	(2)	N	N	F	F	T	N	N	(3)
(1) $x = y + z$	F	T	T	N	(1)	(1)	T	F	F	(2)	N	N

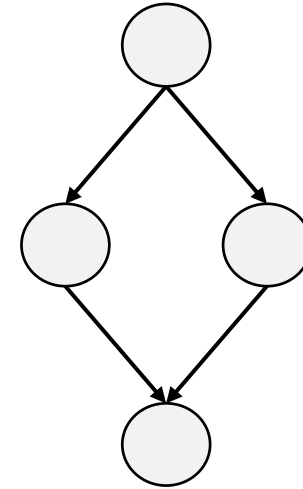
after the backward pass

Control Flow Graph (CFG)

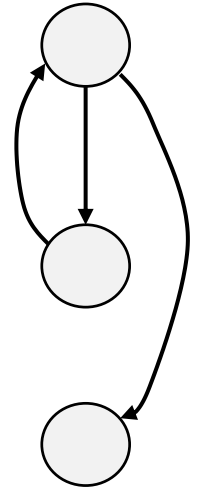
- Graphical representation of control flow during execution
 - Each node represents a statement or a BB
 - An entry and an exit node are often added to a CFG for a function
 - An edge represents possible transfer of control between nodes
- Used for compiler optimizations and static analysis (e.g., instruction scheduling and global register allocation)



straight-line
code



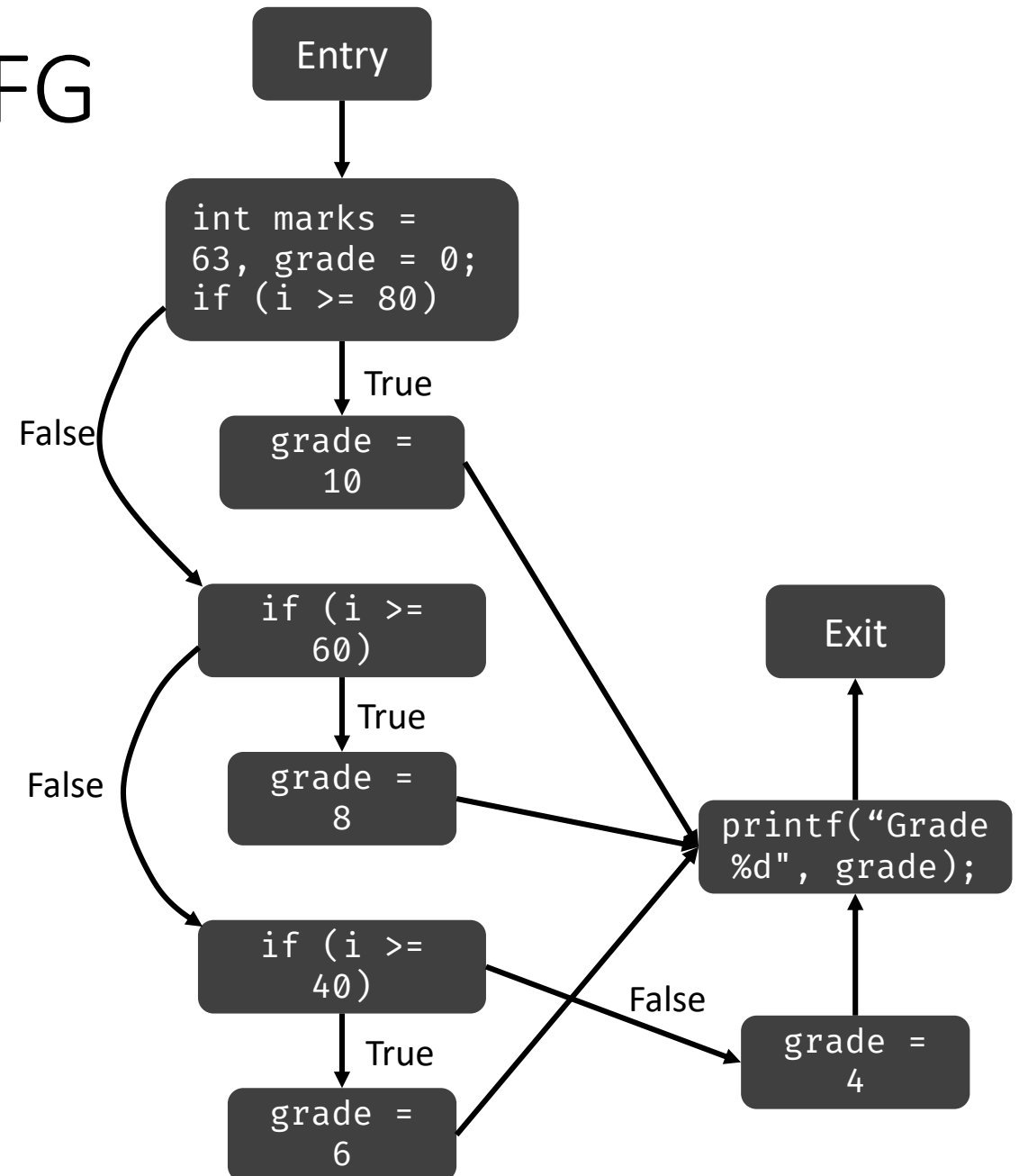
predicate



loop iteration

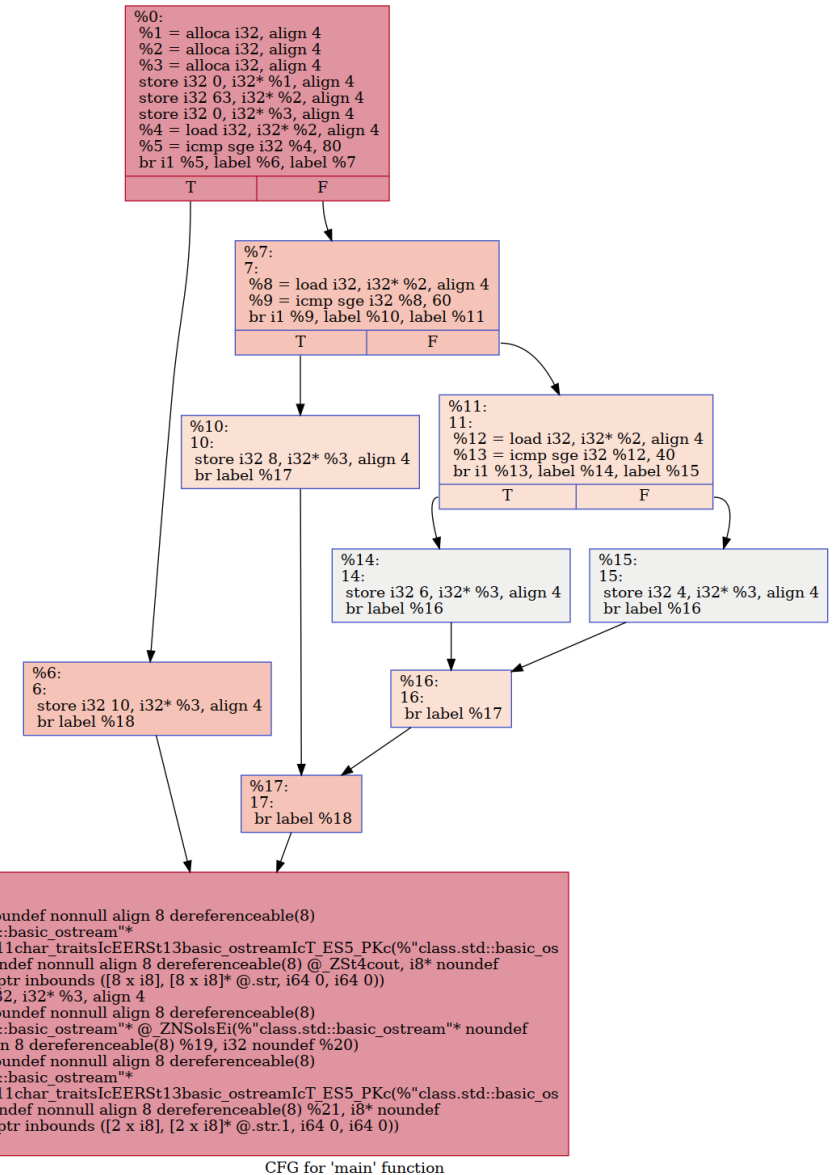
Example of BBs and a CFG

```
int main() {  
    int marks = 63, grade = 0;  
    if (marks >= 80)  
        grade = 10;  
    else if (marks >= 60)  
        grade = 8;  
    else if (marks >= 40)  
        grade = 6;  
    else  
        grade = 4;  
    printf("Grade %d", grade);  
    return 0;  
}
```



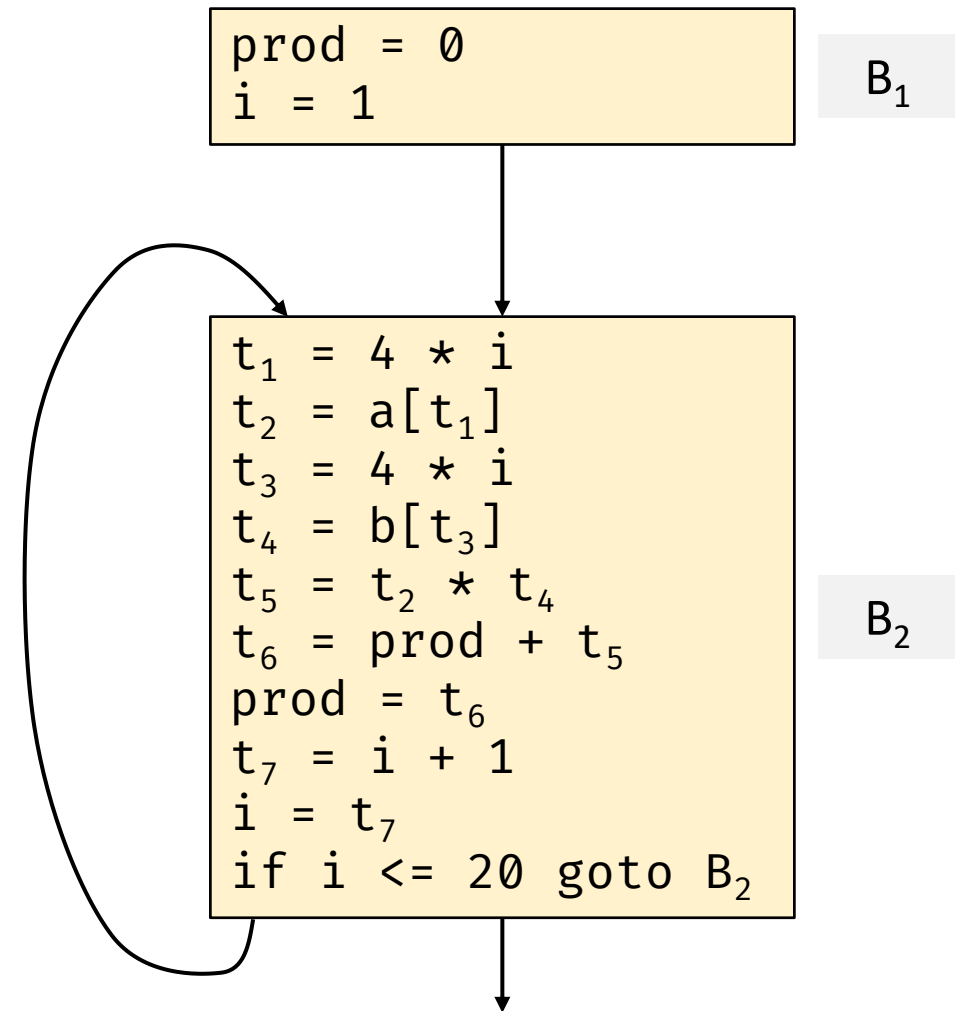
Example CFG Generated with LLVM

```
int main() {  
    int marks = 63, grade = 0;  
    if (marks >= 80)  
        grade = 10;  
    else if (marks >= 60)  
        grade = 8;  
    else if (marks >= 40)  
        grade = 6;  
    else  
        grade = 4;  
    printf("Grade %d", grade);  
    return 0;  
}
```



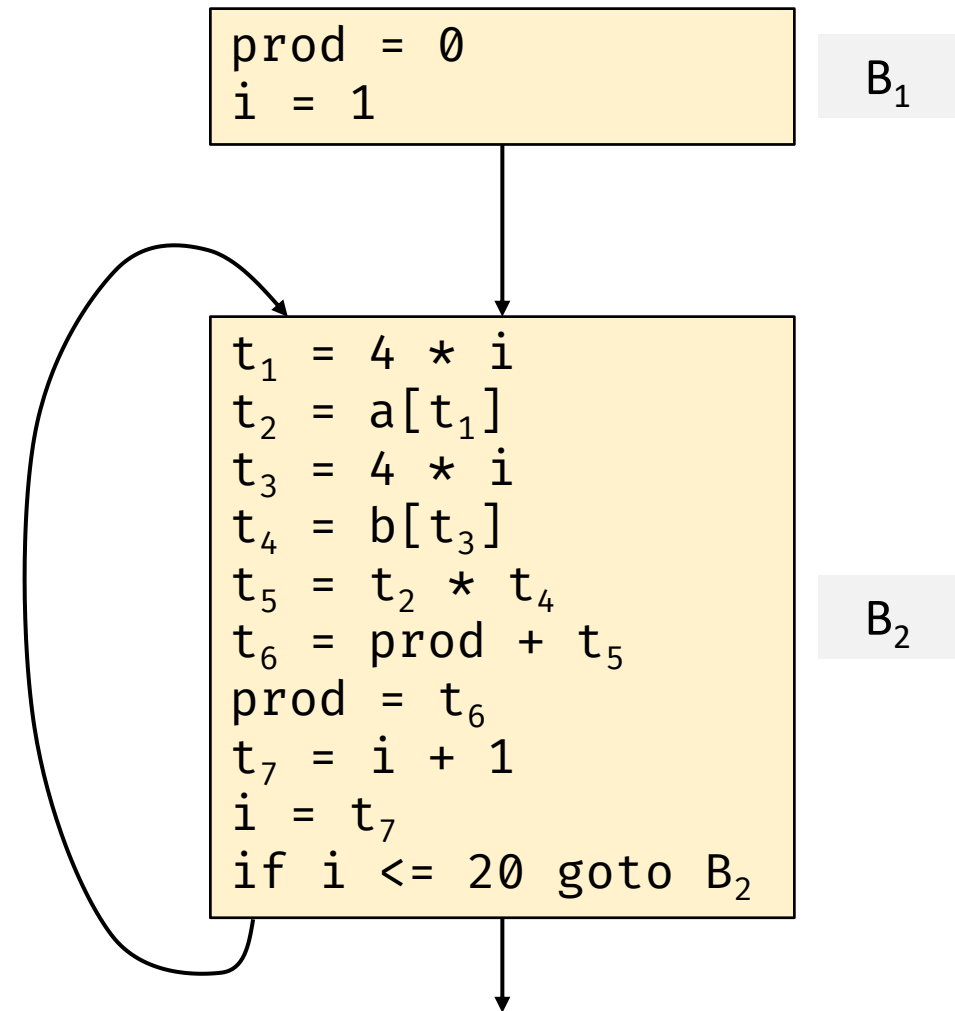
Control Flow Graph (CFG)

1.	prod = 0
2.	i = 1
3.	t ₁ = 4 * i
4.	t ₂ = a[t ₁]
5.	t ₃ = 4 * i
6.	t ₄ = b[t ₃]
7.	t ₅ = t ₂ * t ₄
8.	t ₆ = prod + t ₅
9.	prod = t ₆
10.	t ₇ = i + 1
11.	i = t ₇
12.	if i <= 20 goto (3)



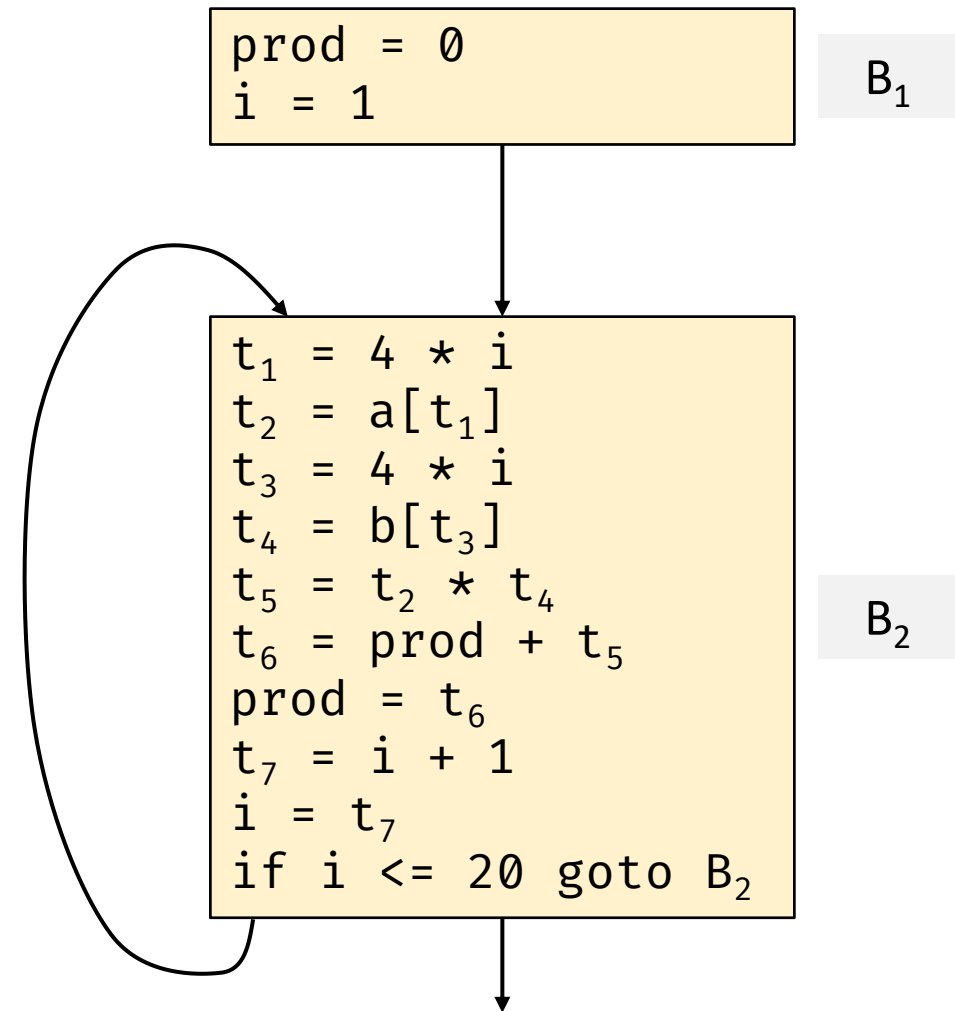
Loops in a CFG

- A set of CFG nodes L form a loop if that L contains a node e called loop entry such that
 - e is not the Entry node,
 - No node in L besides e has a predecessor outside L
 - Every node in L has a nonempty path to e that is completely within L



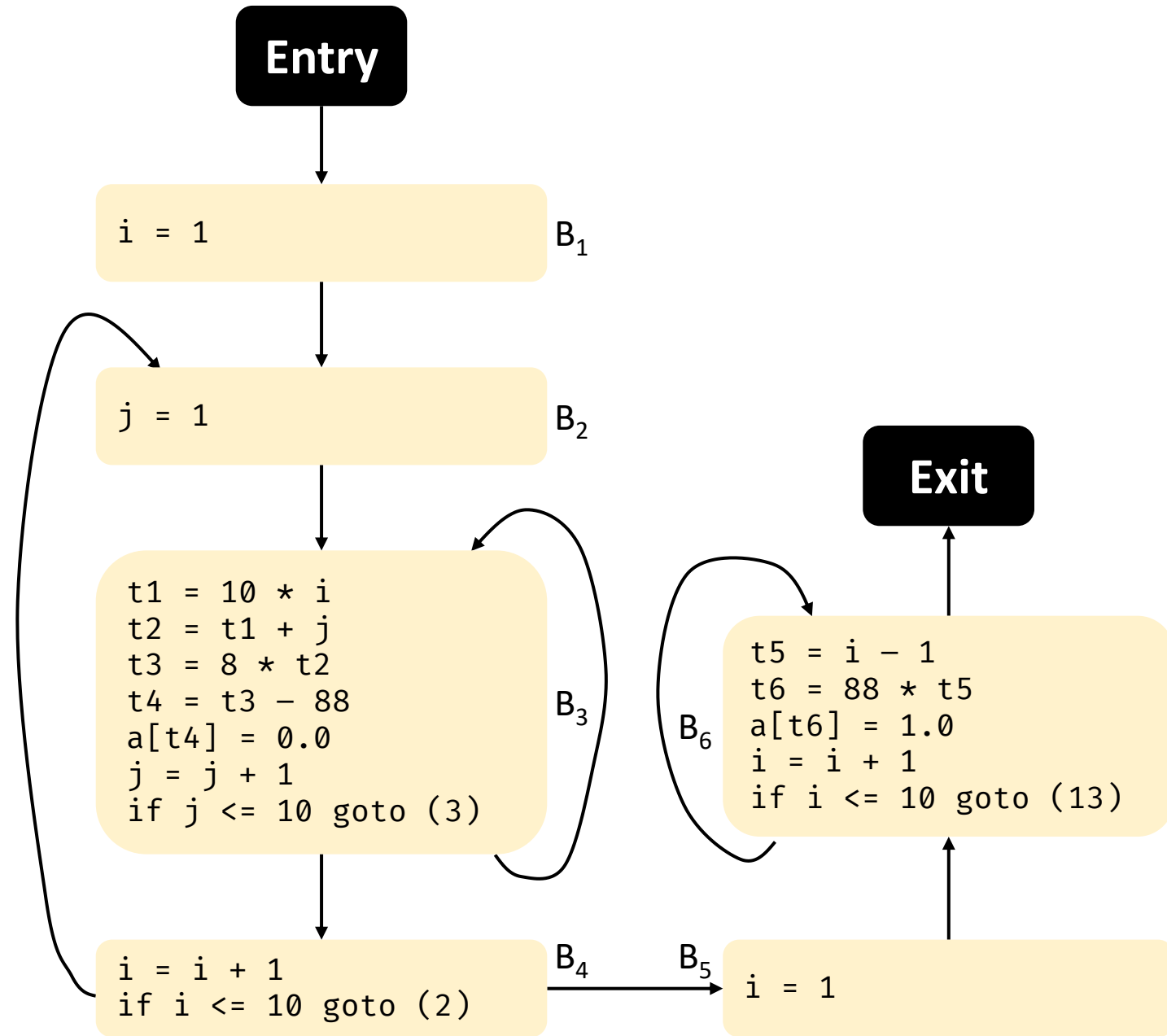
Loops in a CFG

- There is a unique entry
 - Only way to reach a node in L from outside the loop is through e
- All nodes in the group are strongly connected
 - There is a path from any node in the loop to any other loop
 - Path is wholly-contained within the loop



Example CFG

```
1) i = 1 // Leader
2) j = 1
3) t1 = 10 * i
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 goto (3)
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)
```



Optimizing BBs

Local optimizations

Optimization of BBs

- Code optimizations can lead to substantial improvement in running time and/or energy consumption
- Global optimization analyzes control and data flow **among BBs**
 - E.g., performs control flow, data flow, and data dependence analysis
- Local or intra-BB optimizations can also provide significant improvements
- DAG is a useful data structure for implementing transformations on BBs
 - Allows detecting common sub-expressions

Intra-Block Transformations

- Expressions are values of names that are live on exit from a BB
- Two BBs are equivalent if they compute the same set of expressions
- Local transformations on BBs to improve code quality
 - Structure-preserving and algebraic transformations
 - Should not change the set of expressions computed by a block

Structure-Preserving Transformations

i. Common subexpression elimination

- Instructions compute a value that has been computed

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

ii. Dead code elimination

- Remove Instructions that define variables that are never used

iii. Renaming temporary variables

- Can always transform a BB into an equivalent block where each statement that defines a temporary uses a new name
 - Such a BB is called a normal-form block

iv. Reordering of dependence-free statements

- Normal-form blocks permits statement interchanges without affecting the value of the block
- May improve latency of accesses and register usage

t ₁	=	b	+	c
t ₂	=	x	+	y

Algebraic Transformations

- Apply algebraic laws to simplify computation

Strength Reduction	
Expensive	Cheaper
x^2	$x \times x$
$2 \times x$	$x + x$
$x \div 2$	$x \gg 1$

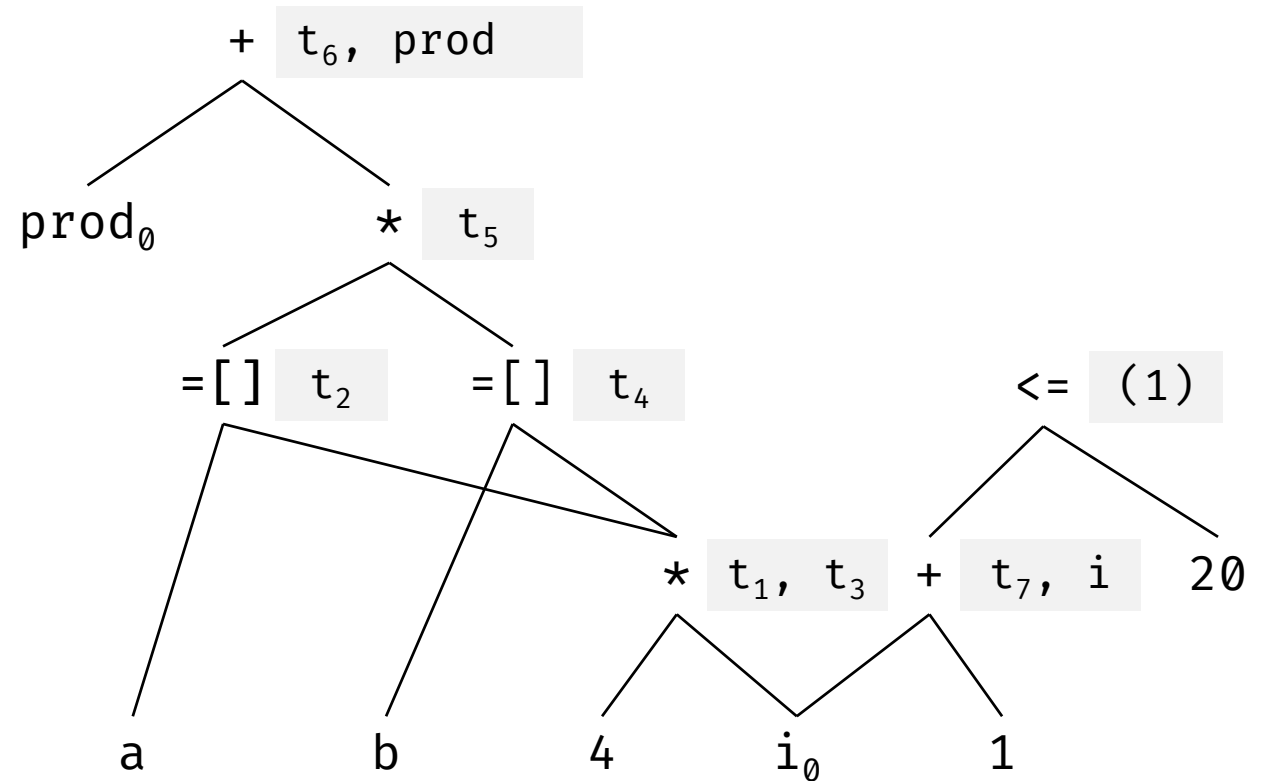
$$\begin{aligned}x + 0 &= 0 + x = x \\x \times 1 &= 1 \times x = x \\x - 0 &= x \\x \div 1 &= 1\end{aligned}$$

- Constant folding – evaluate constants during compilation
 - E.g., $i = 2 * 3.14 * 300 * 300$;
- Relational operators can generate common sub-expressions (e.g., $x > y$ and $x - y$)

DAG Representation of BBs

Many optimizations are easier to perform on a DAG representation of BBs

```
(1)  t1 = 4 * i
(2)  t2 = a[t1]
(3)  t3 = 4 * i
(4)  t4 = b[t3]
(5)  t5 = t2 * t4
(6)  t6 = prod + t5
(7)  prod = t6
(8)  t7 = i + 1
(9)  i = t7
(10) if i <= 20 goto (1)
```



Representing BBs with DAGs

- Rules on the DAG structure
 - Leave nodes are labeled with variable names or constants
 - Initial values for each variable is represented by a node
 - A node N is associated with each statement s in a BB
 - Children of N correspond to statements that last define the operands used in s
 - Inner nodes are labeled by an operator symbol
 - Node N is labeled by the operator applied at s
 - Nodes optionally have a sequence of identifiers for labels
 - Output nodes are those variables that are live on exit
- Each BB node in a CFG can be represented with a DAG

Constructing a DAG

- **Input**

- A basic block (BB)

- **Output**

- A DAG for the BB with the following information
 - a label for each node (id for leaf nodes and operator symbols for interior nodes)
 - a list of identifiers (not constants) for each node

- **Assumptions**

- Three kinds of 3AC: (i) $x = y \text{ op } z$, (ii) $x = \text{op } y$, and (iii) $x = y$
- Relational operators like “if $i \leq 20$ goto (1)” are treated like case (i)

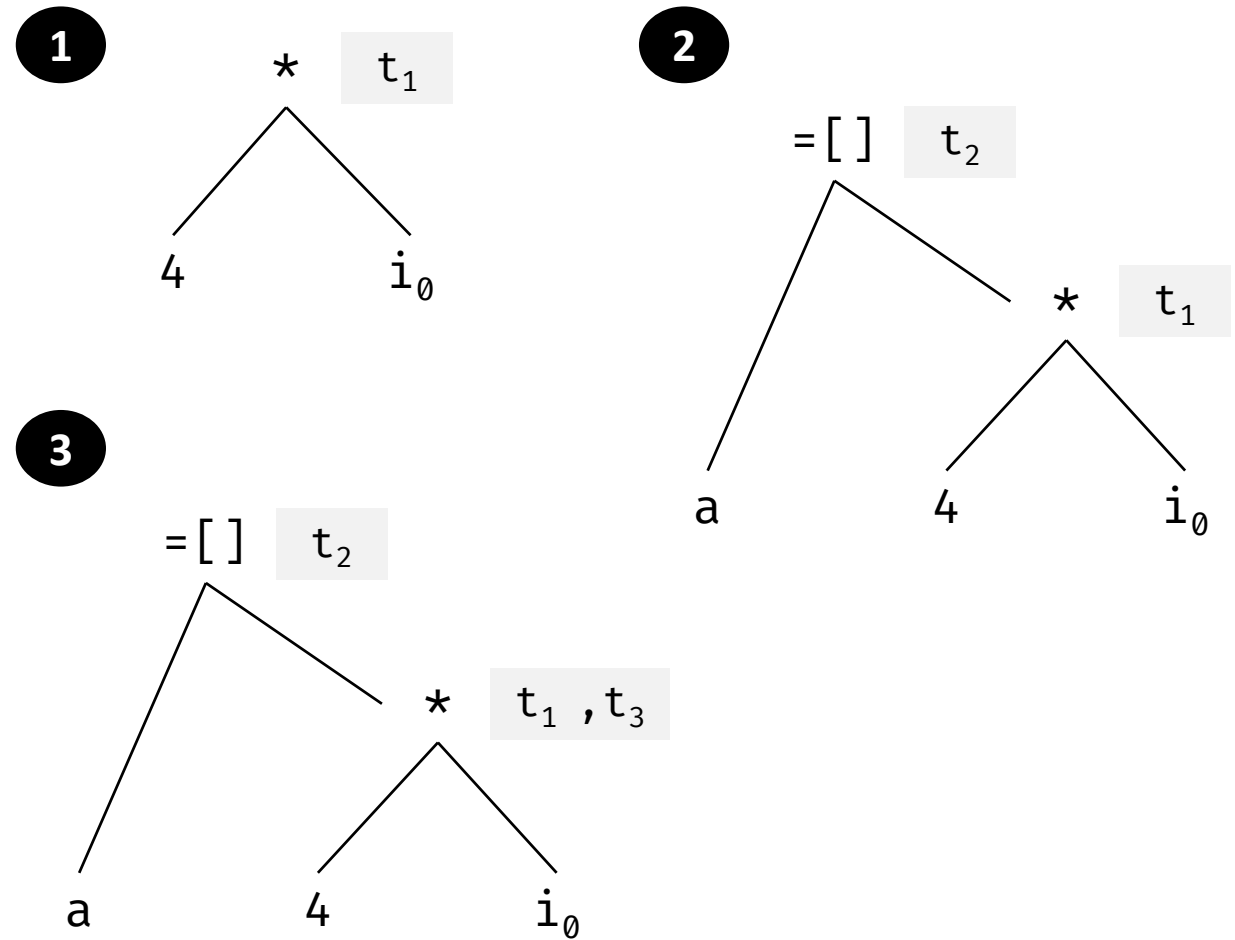
Constructing a DAG

- **Steps**

- For each statement in the BB,
 1. If $node(y)$ is undefined, create a leaf labeled y and set $node(y)$ to the new node
 2. For case (i), check if there is a node in the DAG labeled op with left child $node(y)$ and right child $node(z)$. If not, then create a node (denoted by n).
 3. For case (ii), check if there is a node labeled op with $node(y)$ as the only child. If not, then create a node (denoted by n).
 4. Delete x from the list of identifiers for $node(x)$. Append x to the list of identifiers for the node and set $node(x)$ to n .

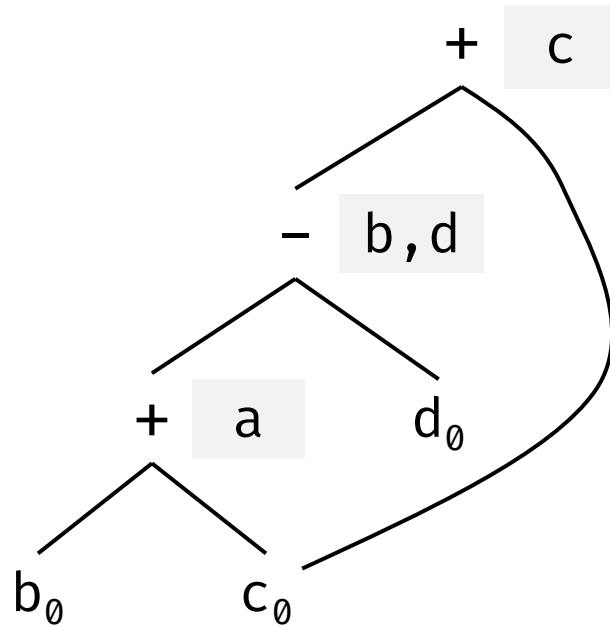
DAG Representation of BBs

```
(1) t1 = 4 * i
(2) t2 = a[t1]
(3) t3 = 4 * i
(4) t4 = b[t3]
(5) t5 = t2 * t4
(6) t6 = prod + t5
(7) prod = t6
(8) t7 = i + 1
(9) i = t7
(10) if i <= 20 goto (1)
```



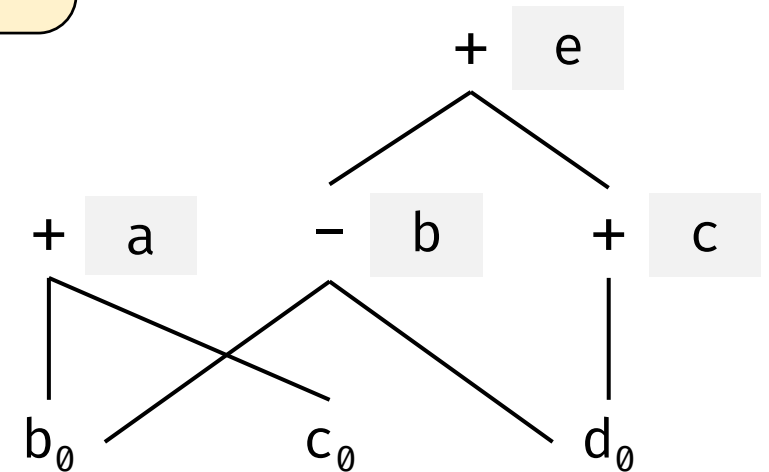
Local Common Subexpressions

```
a = b + c  
b = a - d  
c = b + c  
d = a - d
```



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

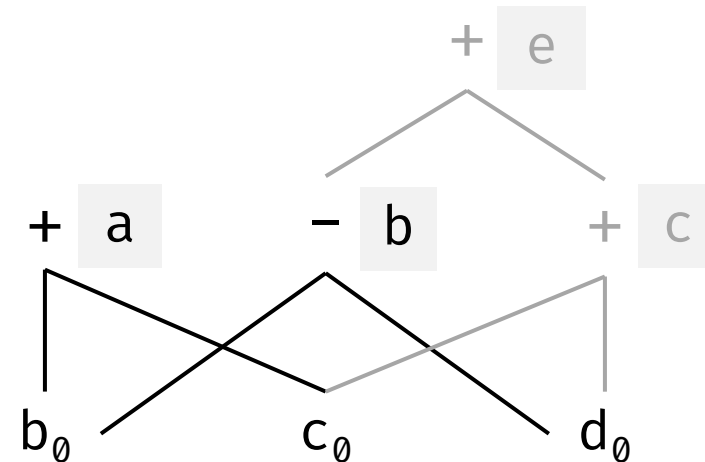
DAG fails to capture that the 1st and 4th statements compute the same values



Dead Code Elimination

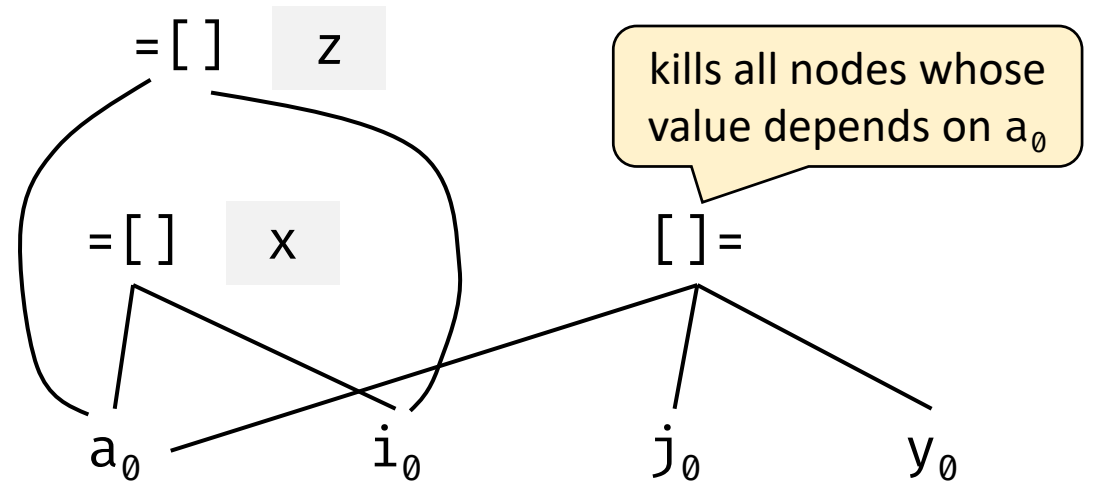
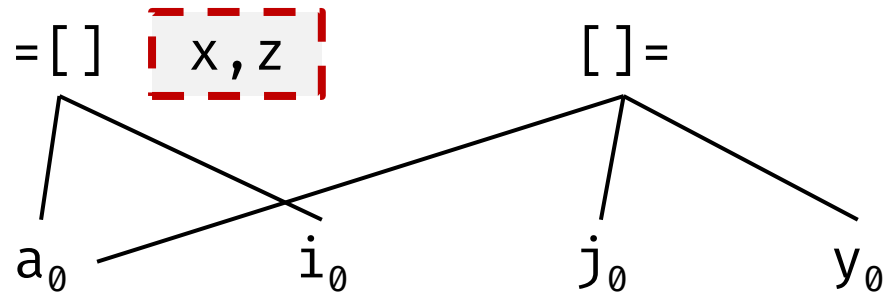
- Delete a root node from the DAG if it has no live variables
 - Repeat till there are no such nodes
- Assume only a and b are live on exit

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



Representing Array References

```
x = a[i]  
a[j] = y  
z = a[i]
```

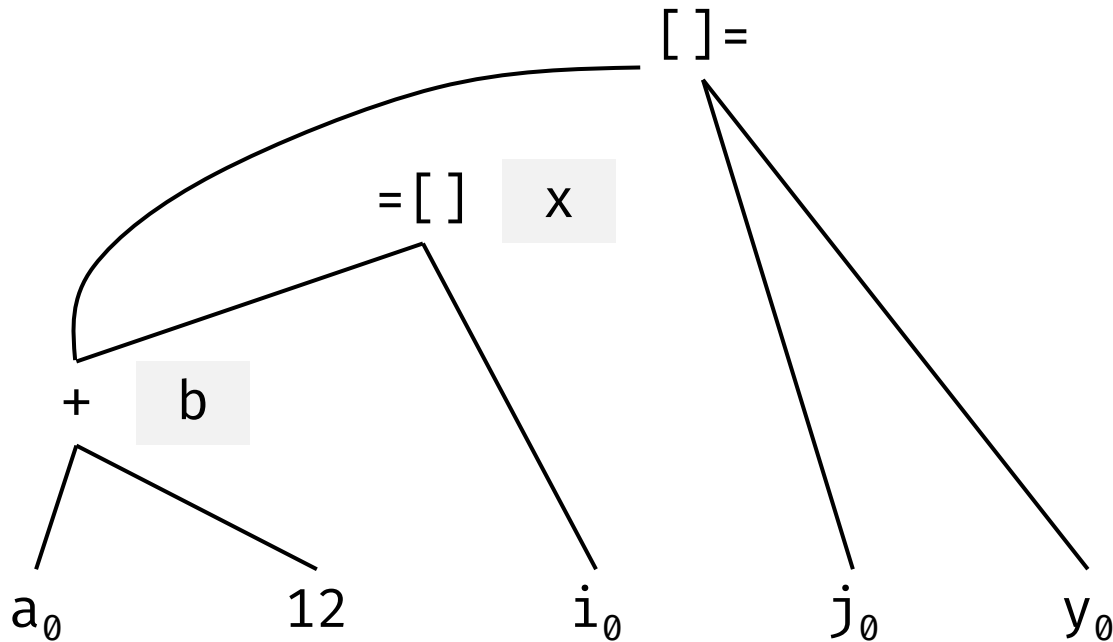


Consider Other Sources of Possible Aliasing

```
b = a + 12
x = b[i]
b[j] = y
```

$x = *p$ // Use of every possible variable
 $*q = y$ // Possible assignment to every variable

- $=*$ must include all nodes for optimization analysis
- $*=$ kills all other nodes
- Possible to use pointer analysis to be more precise
- Assume that procedures use variables attached to a node and kills that node



Code Generation Algorithm

Single Basic Blocks

Code Generation Strategy

- **Goal:** Generate target code for a sequence of 3AC within a BB
- **Assumptions**
 - Every 3AC operator has an equivalent operator in the target language
 - Computed values can reside in registers and only needs to be saved when
 1. The register is required for another computation, or
 2. Just before a procedure call, jump, or a labelled statement
 - Implies every register must be saved before the end of a BB
- **Steps:** For each 3AC,
 - Identify variables that need to be loaded into registers
 - Load the variables into registers
 - Generate code for the instruction
 - Generate a store if the result needs to be saved into memory

Challenges in Code Generation

Different Possibilities		
a = b + c	ADD Rj, Ri	b is in Ri, c is in Rj, b is no longer live on exit
	ADD c, Ri	b is in Ri, b is no longer live on exit
	MOV c, Rj ADD Rj, Ri	b is in Ri, b is no longer live on exit

Usually there will be numerous cases to consider

- An efficient choice depends on a number of factors (e.g., frequency of use of b and c later)
- Properties of the operator (e.g., commutativity) can add to the complexity

A Simple Code Generator

- Treat each IR quadruple as a “macro”
- Replace the macro with pre-existing code templates

a = b + c



```
LD R1, b
LD R2, c
ADD R1, R2
ST A, R1
```

or

```
LD R1, b
ADD R1, c
ST A, R1
```

- Simple to implement but makes inefficient use of registers
- **Goal:** Track values in registers and reuse them

Register and Address Descriptors

Register descriptor

- Keeps track of **what name is stored in each register**, consulted whenever a new register is needed
- Each register holds the value of zero or more names at any time during execution

Address descriptor

- Keeps track of the **location(s) where the current value of a name** can be found at runtime
 - Location can be a register, a stack location, a memory address, or some combination of these (data can get copied)
- Information can be stored in the symbol table

Code Generation Algorithm

- For each 3AC instruction I of the form $x = y \text{ op } z$,
 - Invoke function $getreg(I)$ to select registers R_x, R_y , and R_z
 - If y is not in R_y according to the address descriptor, then generate instruction $LD R_y, y'$
 - y' is one of the memory locations for y
 - Perform the same steps for z
 - Generate the instruction $OP R_x, R_y, R_z$
- For a 3AC copy instruction $x = y$,
 - If y is not in R_y according to the address descriptor, then generate instruction $LD R_y, y'$
 - Adjust the register descriptor for R_y to include x

Managing Register and Address Descriptors

- For an instruction $LD\ R, x$,
 - Change the register descriptor for R so it holds only x
 - Change the address descriptor for x by adding register R as an additional location
- For instruction $ST\ x, R$, change the address descriptor for x to include its own memory location

Managing Register and Address Descriptors

- For an instruction such as $\text{ADD } R_x, R_y, R_z$, implementing a 3AC $x = y + z$,
 - Change the register descriptor for R_x so that it holds only x
 - Change the address descriptor for x so that its only location is R_x
 - The memory location for x is no longer in the address descriptor for x
 - Remove R_x from the address descriptor of any variable other than x
- For a copy instruction $x = y$, remember to
 - Process the load from y into a register (if needed)
 - Add x to the register descriptor for R_y
 - Change the address descriptor for x so that its only location is R_y

Usage of Registers

- Leave the computed result in a register for as long as possible
- Store the result only at the end of a BB or when the register is needed for another computation
 - A variable is live at a point if it is used (possibly in later BBs) later, requires global dataflow analysis
 - On exit from a BB, store only live variables which are not already in their memory locations (use address descriptors to identify)
 - If liveness information is not available, then assume that all variables are live at all times

Defining Function *getreg()*

- **Input**

- 3AC $I: x = y \text{ op } z$

- **Output**

- Returns registers to hold the value of x , y , and z

- We assume that there is no global register allocation

getreg(): Choosing R_y for y

- i. If y is in a register, then return the register containing y as R_y
- ii. If y is not in a register, but there is an empty register available, then pick one such register as R_y
- iii. If y is not in a register and there are no empty registers, then
 - Let R be a candidate register and suppose v is one of the variables stored in R
 - Heuristic for candidate selection can be based on farthest references or fewest next use
 - If the address descriptor for v says that v is somewhere else beside R , then choose R
 - If v is x , and x is not an operand of I (i.e., $x \neq z$), then choose R
 - If v is not used later, then choose R
 - Else, generate $ST\ v, R$ (called a register spill)
 - R may hold several variables, so we need to repeat the previous steps for each variable
 - Compute the number of store instructions generated for R (i.e., score) for each variable
 - Pick the register with the lowest score
- iv. Selecting R_z for z is similar

getreg(): Choosing R_x for x

- Consider selection of a register R_x for x . In addition to the previous checks, try the following.
 - A register that holds only x is always an acceptable choice for R_x
 - If y is not used after instruction I , and R_y holds only y after being loaded, then R_y can also be used for R_x
 - Perform similar checks with R_z if required
- If I is a copy instruction, then always choose R_y

Code Generation Example

3AC	Generated Code	Register Descriptor			Address Descriptor						
		R1	R2	R3	a	b	c	d	t	u	v
					a	b	c	d	t	u	v
$t = a - b$	LD R1, a LD R2, b SUB R2, R1, R2				a	b	c	d	t	u	v
		a	t		a, R1	b	c	d	R2		
$u = a - c$	LD R3, c SUB R1 R1, R3										
		u	t	c	a	b	c, R3	d	R2	R1	
$v = t + u$	ADD R3, R2, R1										
		u	t	v	a	b	c	d	R2	R1	R3
$a = d$	LD R2, d										
		u	a, d	v	R2	b	c	d, R2		R1	R3

R2 is reused since there is no next use of b

in memory, live at the end of BB

temporaries, not live at the end of BB

Code Generation Example

3AC	Generated Code	Register Descriptor			Address Descriptor						
		R1	R2	R3	a	b	c	d	t	u	v
		<i>u</i>	<i>a, d</i>	<i>v</i>	<i>R2</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>d, R2</i>		<i>R1</i>	<i>R3</i>
$d = v + u$	ADD <i>R1, R3, R1</i>										
		<i>d</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>v</i>	<i>R2</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>R1</i>			<i>R3</i>
exit	ST <i>a, R2</i> ST <i>d, R1</i>										
		<i>d</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>v</i>	<i>a, R2</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>d, R1</i>			<i>R3</i>

Code Sequences for Indexed and Pointer Assignments

3AC	<i>i</i> in register <i>Ri</i>	<i>i</i> in memory <i>Mi</i>	<i>i</i> in Stack
$a = b[i]$	MOV $b(Ri), R$	MOV Mi, R MOV $b(R), R$	MOV $Si(A), R$ MOV $b(R), R$
$a[i] = b$	MOV $b, a(Ri)$	MOV Mi, R MOV $b, a(R)$	MOV $Si(A), R$ MOV $b, a(R)$

3AC	<i>p</i> in register <i>Rp</i>	<i>p</i> in memory <i>Mp</i>	<i>p</i> in Stack
$a = *p$	MOV $*Rp, a$	MOV Mp, R MOV $*R, R$	MOV $Sp(A), R$ MOV $*R, R$
$*p = b$	MOV $a, *Rp$	MOV Mp, R MOV $a, *R$	MOV a, R MOV $R, *Sp(A)$

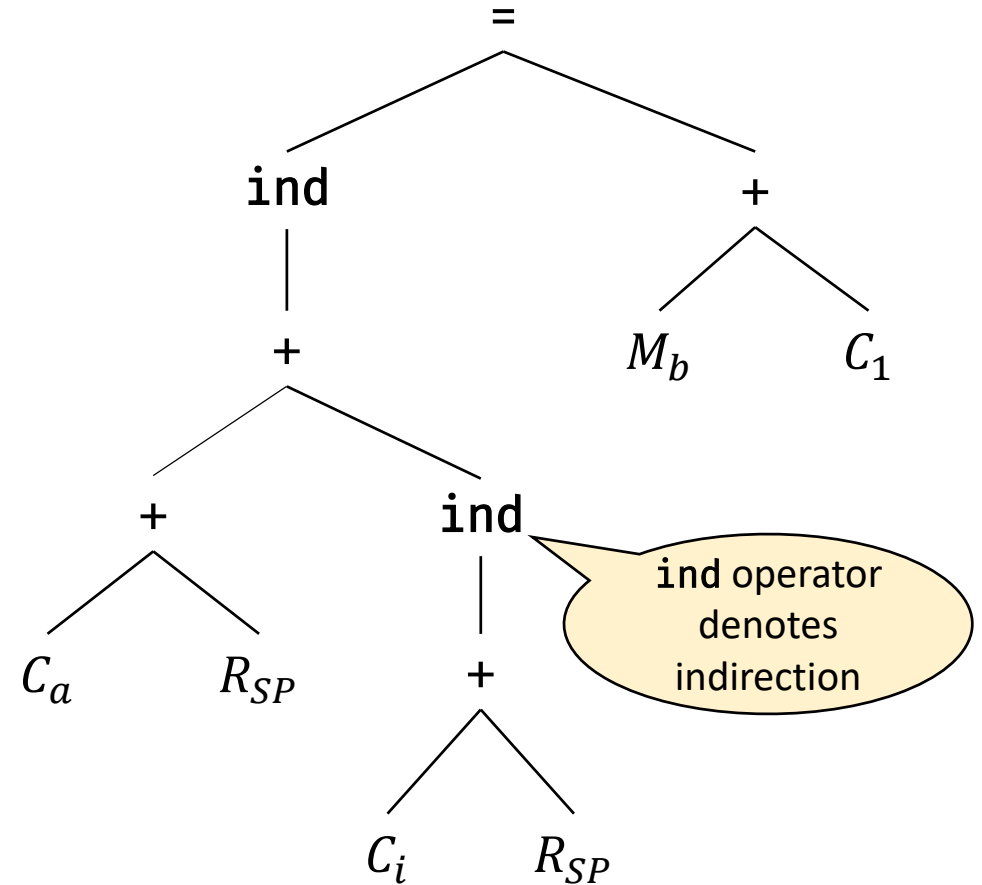
Instruction Selection by Tree Rewriting

Tree Representation

- Consider the statement

$$a[i] = b + 1$$

- Assume b is in memory location M_b
- Array of chars a is a local and is stored on the stack
- SP points to the beginning of the current activation record
- Addresses of locals a and i are given as constant offsets C_a and C_i from the SP



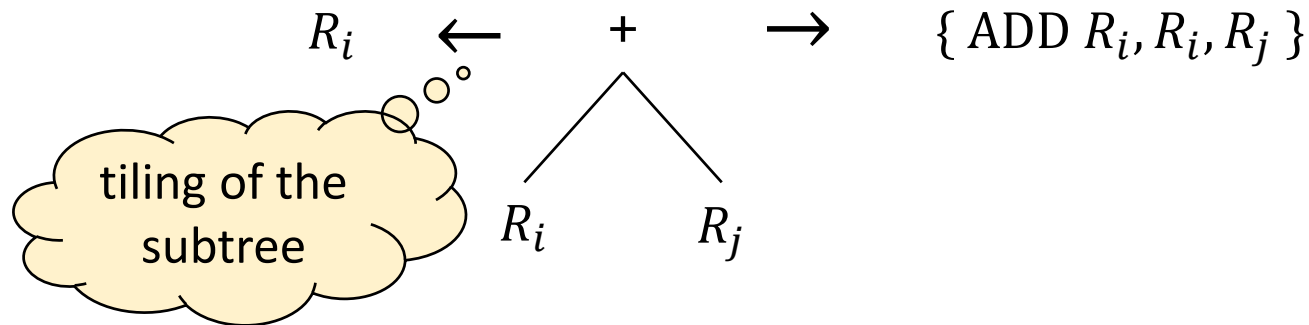
Tree Rewriting

- Target code can be generated by applying a sequence of tree-rewriting rules to reduce the input tree to a single node
- Each rewrite rule is of the form

$$\textit{replacement} \leftarrow \textit{template} \{ \textit{action} \}$$

where *replacement* is a single node, *template* is a tree, and *action* is a code fragment like in a SDT

- A set of tree rewriting rules is called a tree-translation scheme



Tree Rewriting Rules

1 $R_i \leftarrow C_a \quad \{LD R_i, \#a\}$

2 $R_i \leftarrow M_x \quad \{LD R_i, x\}$

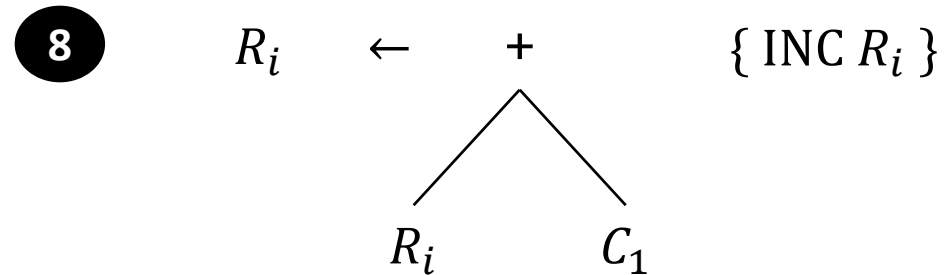
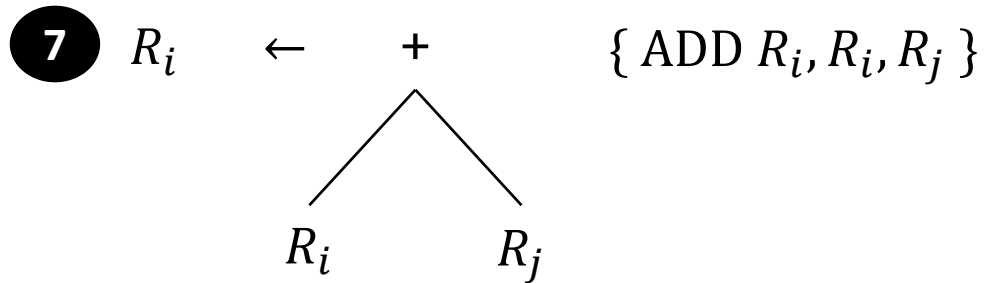
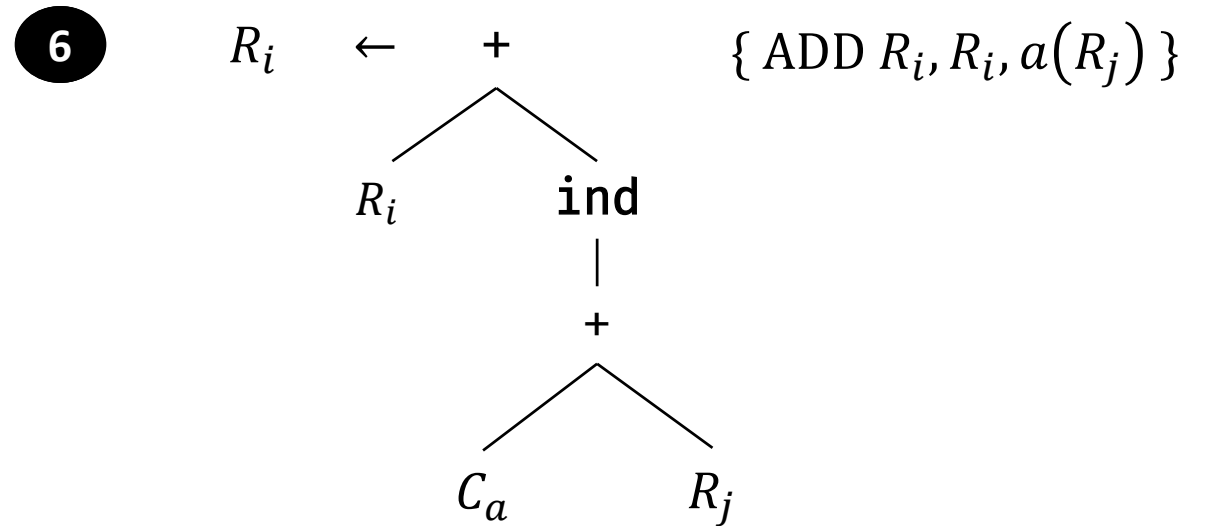
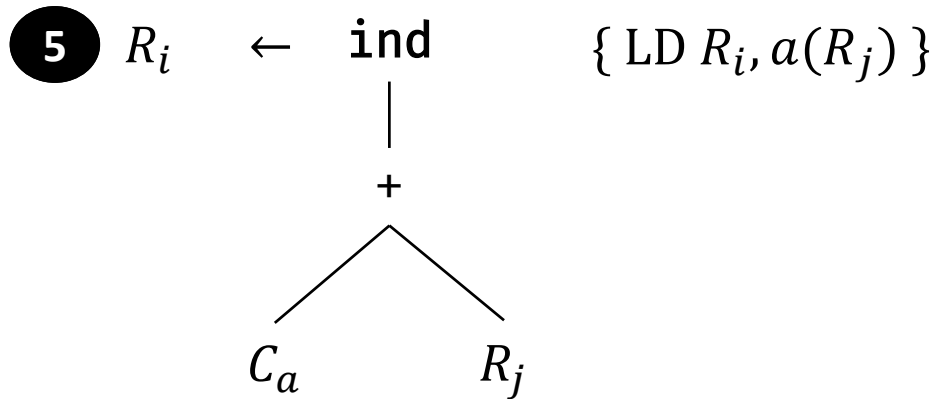
3 $M \leftarrow = \quad \{ST x, R_i\}$

```
graph TD; A["="] --- B["M_x"]; A --- C["R_i"]
```

4 $M \leftarrow = \quad \{ST *R_i, R_i\}$

```
graph TD; A["="] --- B["ind"]; A --- C["R_j"]; B --- D["R_i"]
```

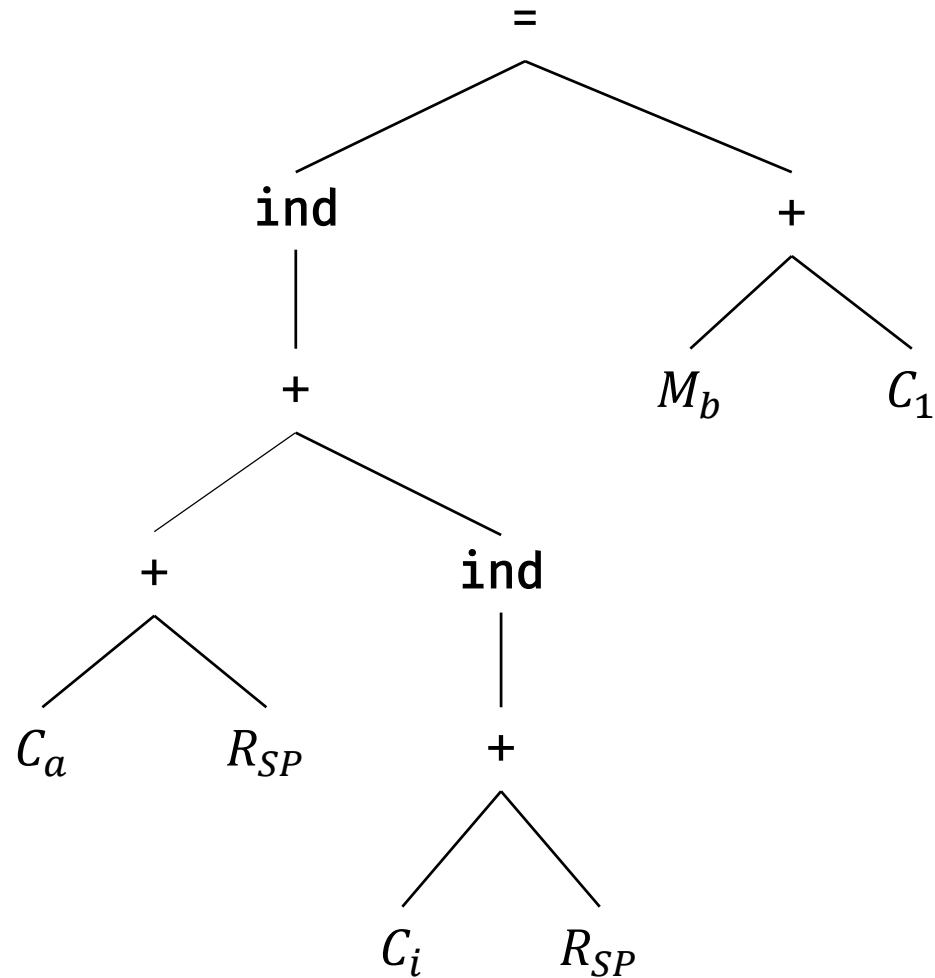
Tree Rewriting Rules



Code Generation by Tiling an Input Tree

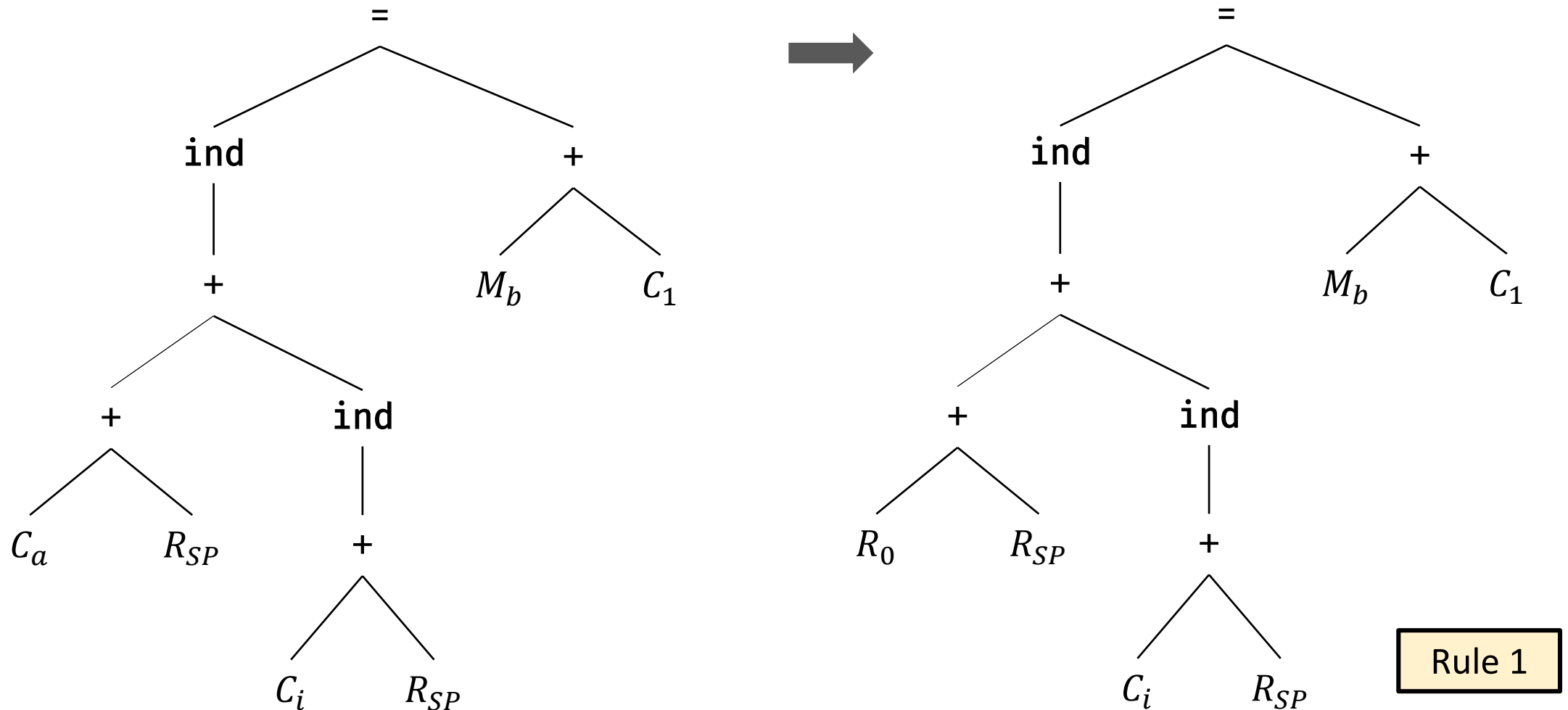
- High-level steps in a tree-translation scheme
 - Given an input tree, the templates in the tree-rewriting rules are applied to tile its subtrees
 - If a template matches, replace the matching subtree with the replacement node of the rule
 - Execute the action associated with the rule
 - If the action contains a sequence of instructions, the instructions are emitted
 - Repeat the above steps until the tree is reduced to a single node, or until no more templates match
- Output of the tree-translation scheme is the instruction sequence generated as the input tree is reduced to a single node

Example of Code Generation with Tree Rewriting

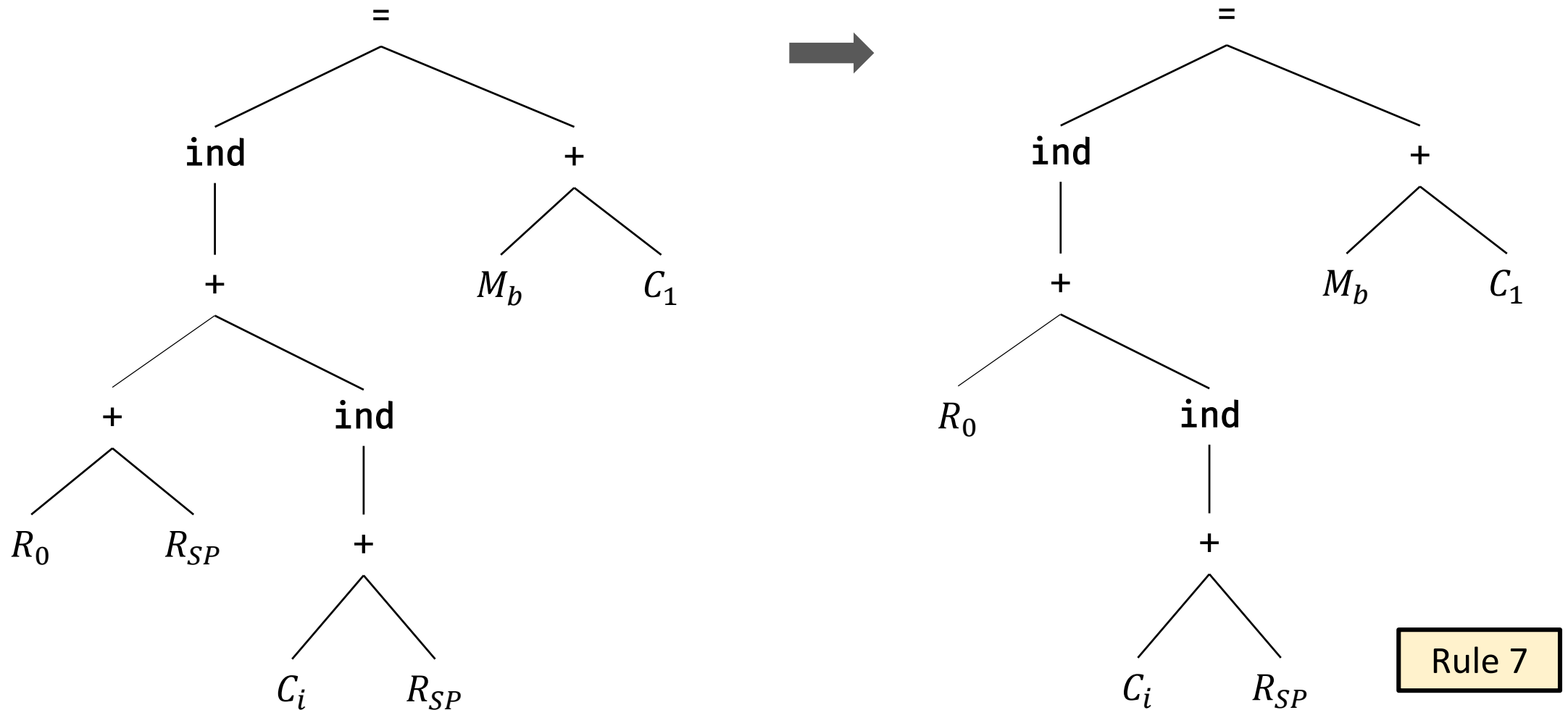


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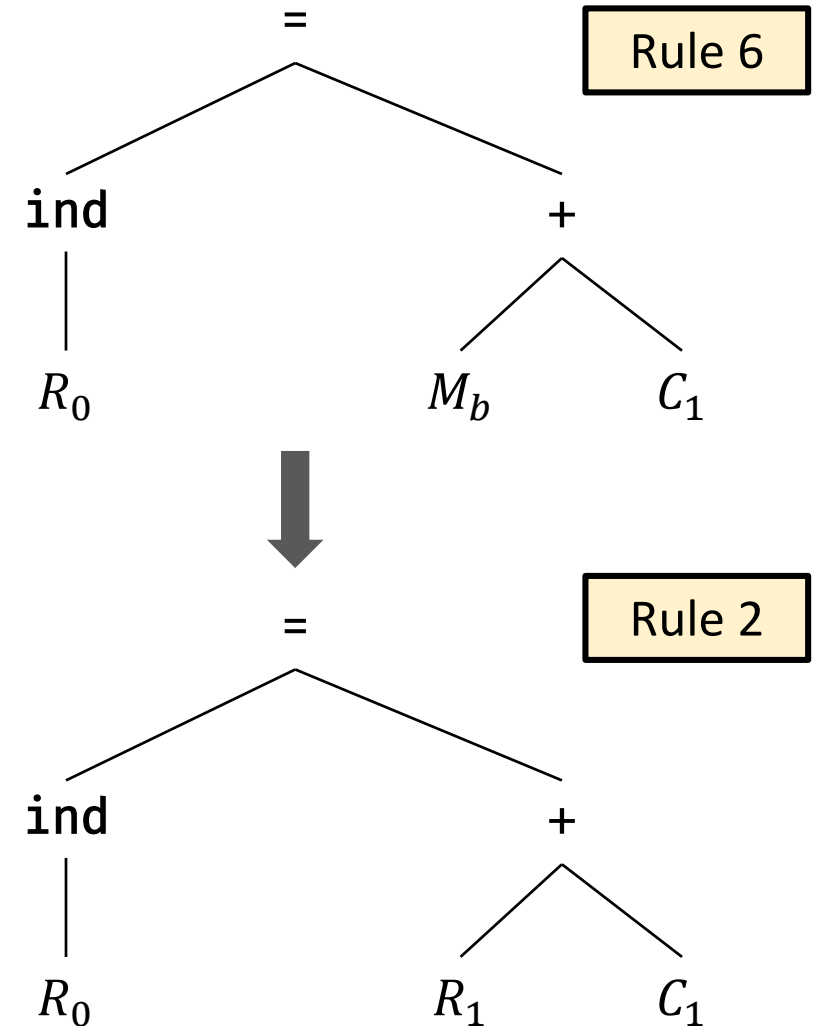
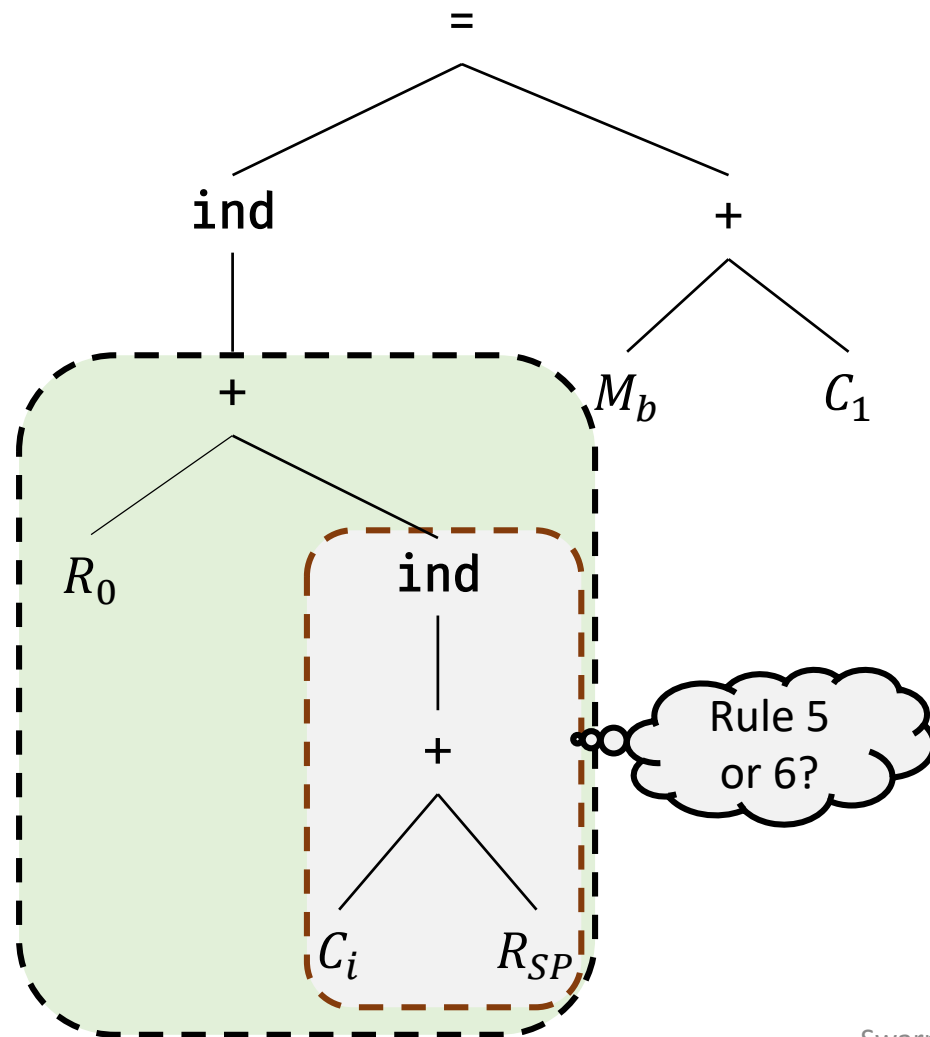
Example of Code Generation with Tree Rewriting



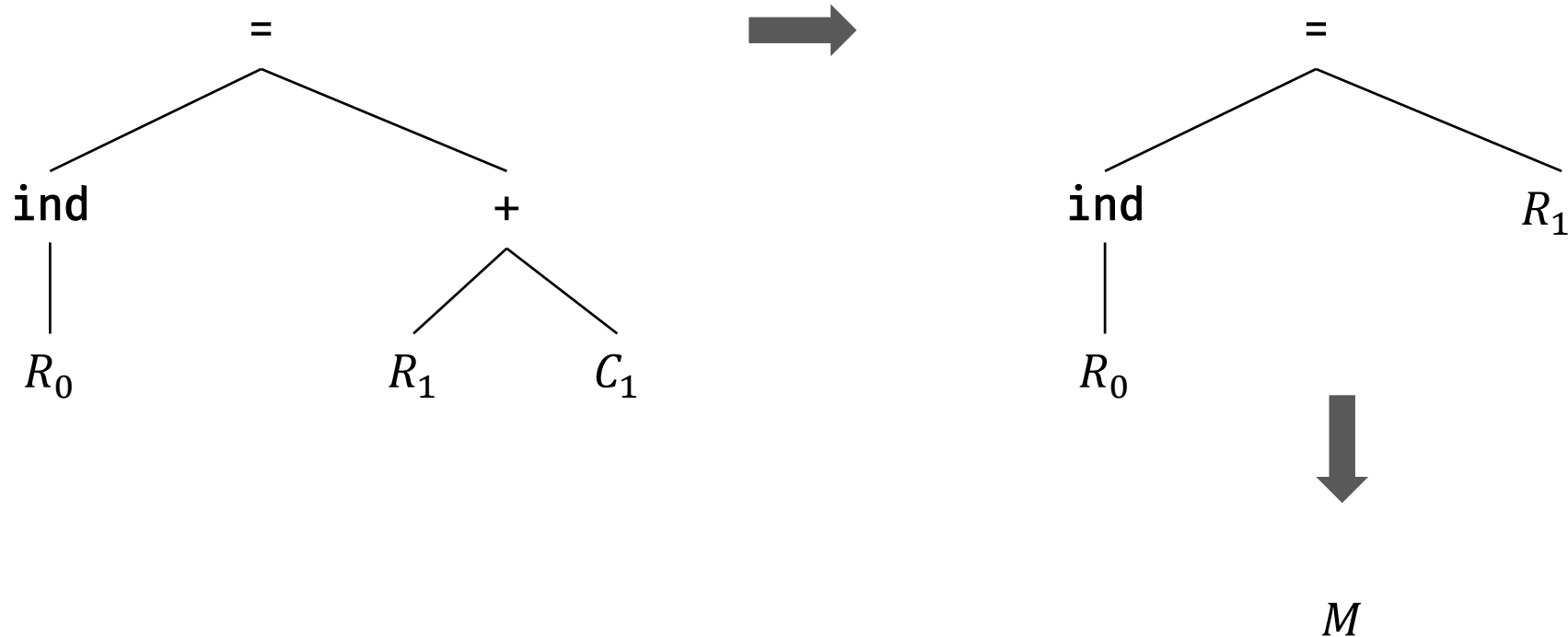
Example of Code Generation with Tree Rewriting



Example of Code Generation with Tree Rewriting



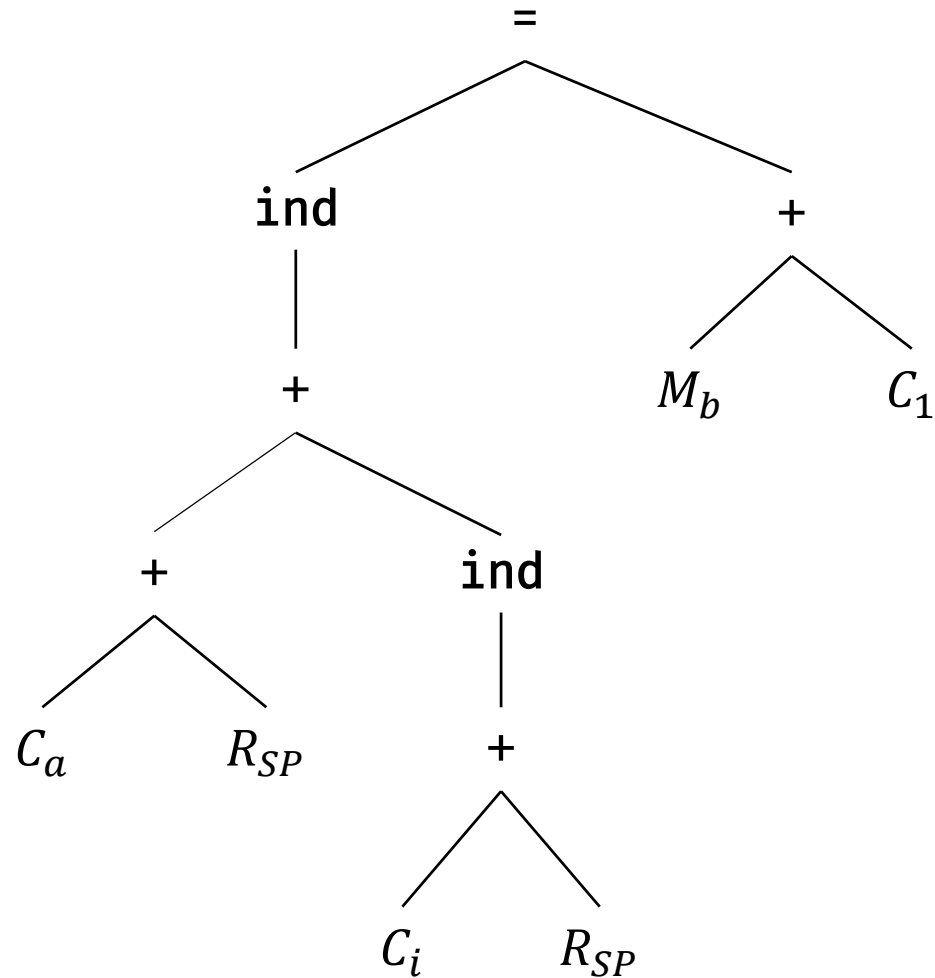
Example of Code Generation with Tree Rewriting



Rule 8

Rule 4

Example of Code Generation with Tree Rewriting



```
LD R0, #a
ADD R0, R0, SP
ADD R0, R0, i(SP)
LD R1, b
INC R1
ST *R0, R1
```

Considerations during Tree Reduction

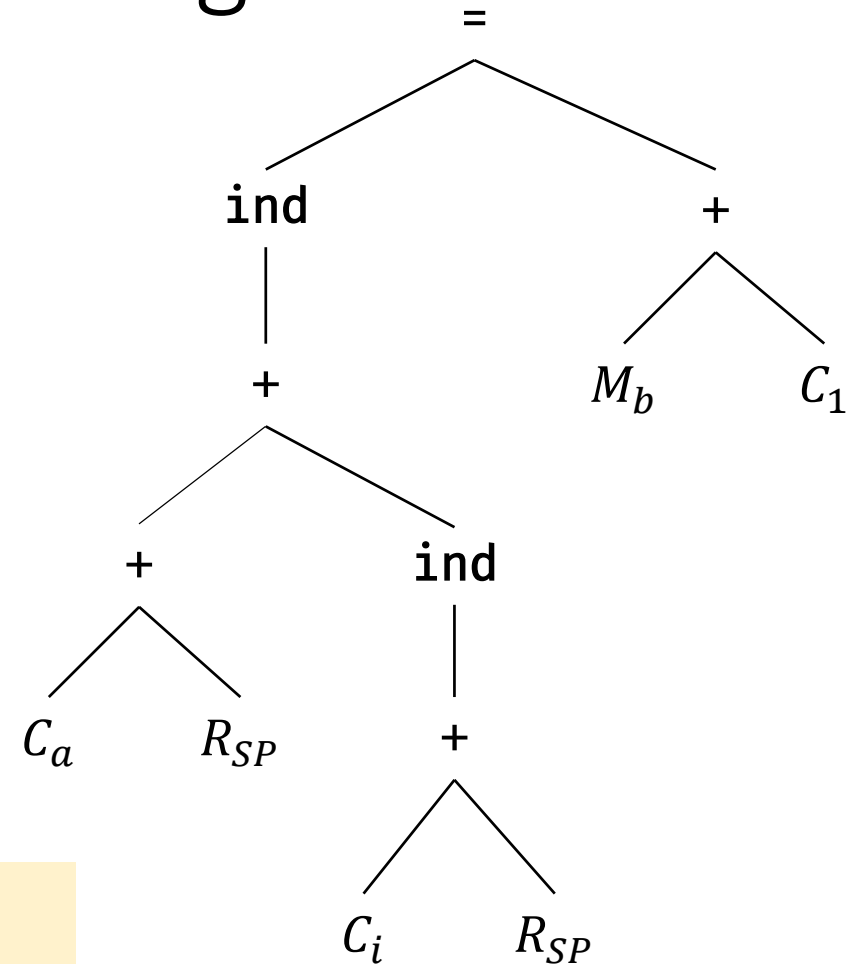
- i. Performance of tree matching impacts the efficiency of code generation at compile time
- ii. Multiple templates may match during code generation
- iii. Different match sequences of templates will lead to different code being generated which can impact efficiency
- iv. If no template matches, then the code-generation process blocks
 - Assume each operator in the intermediate code can be implemented by one or more target-machine instructions
 - Assume there are sufficient registers to compute each tree node by itself

Pattern Matching with LR Parsing

- Idea
 - Convert the input tree to a string using prefix form for comparison
 - Use a parsing mechanism for pattern matching
 - Come up with a syntax-directed translation (SDT) as an alternate for tree rewriting rules

Prefix representation

$= \mathbf{ind} + + C_a R_{SP} \mathbf{ind} + C_i R_{SP} + M_b C_1$



SDT for Tree Rewriting

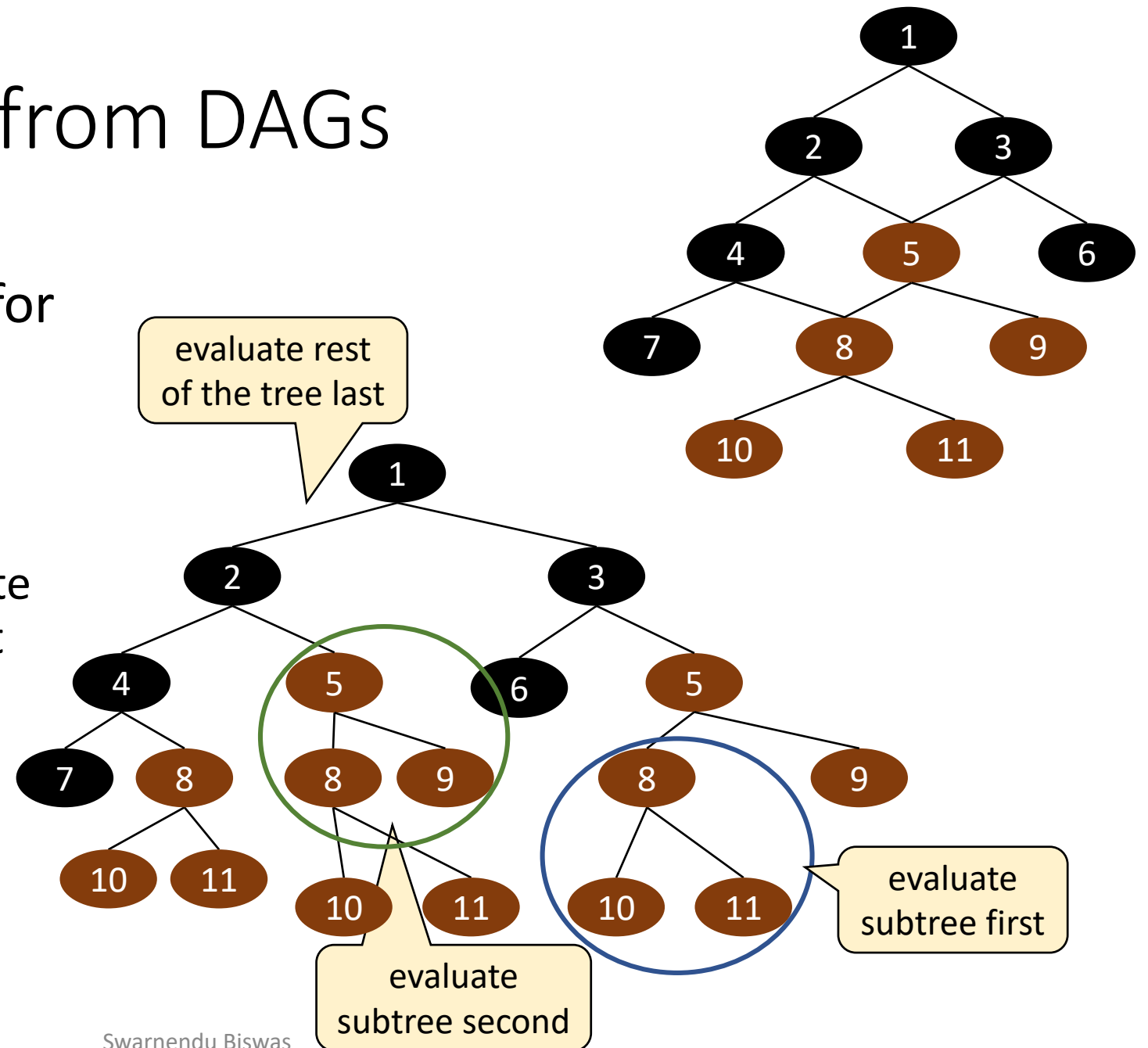
- Terminal **m** represents a memory location
- Terminal **sp** represents register SP
- Terminal **c** represents a constant
- Design a code generator for a different architecture by rewriting the grammar
- Resolve conflicts using estimates of instruction costs, favoring larger reductions, and favoring shifts over reductions

Production	Semantic Action
$R_i \rightarrow \mathbf{c}_a$	{ LD $R_i, \#a$ }
$R_i \rightarrow M_x$	{ LD R_i, x }
$M \rightarrow = M_x R_i$	{ ST x, R_i }
$M \rightarrow = \mathbf{ind} R_i R_j$	{ ST $*R_i, R_j$ }
$R_i \rightarrow \mathbf{ind} + \mathbf{c}_a R_j$	{ LD $R_i, a(R_j)$ }
$R_i \rightarrow + R_i \mathbf{ind} + \mathbf{c}_a R_j$	{ ADD $R_i, R_i, a(R_j)$ }
$R_i \rightarrow + R_i R_j$	{ ADD R_i, R_i, R_j }
$R_i \rightarrow + R_i \mathbf{c}_1$	{ INC R_i }
$R \rightarrow \mathbf{sp}$	
$M \rightarrow \mathbf{m}$	

Dynamic Programming Based Optimal Code Generation

Code Generation from DAGs

- Optimal code generation for DAGs is NP-complete
- So, DAGs are divided into trees and processed
 - An alternative is to replicate shared trees in DAGs but it increases the code size

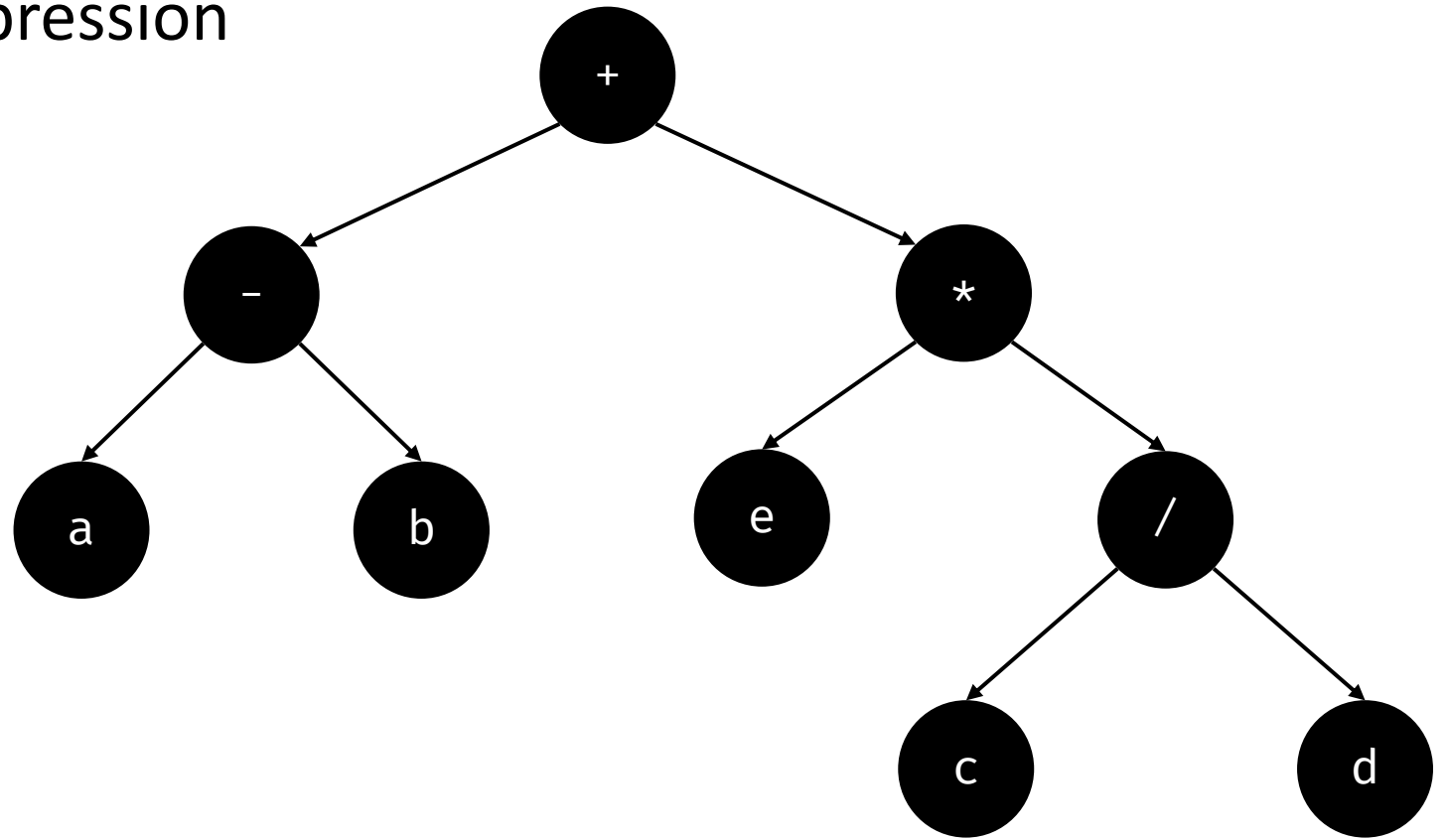


Expression Trees

- A syntax tree for an expression

$(a-b)+e*(c/d)$

$t_1 = a - b$
 $t_2 = c / d$
 $t_3 = e * t_2$
 $t_4 = t_1 + t_3$



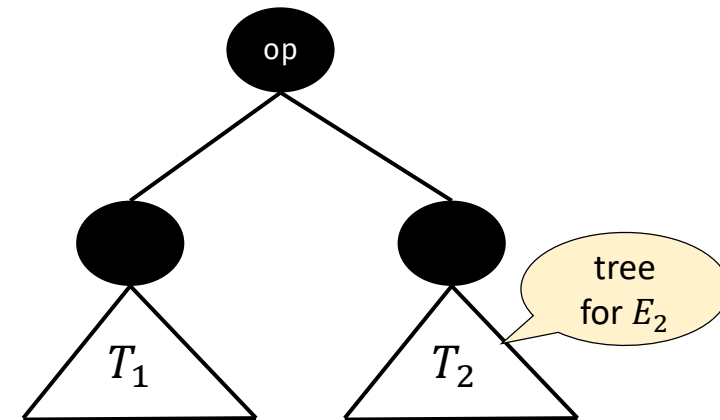
Dynamic Programming Based Optimal Code Generation

- Generates optimal code from an **expression tree** for a BB
 - Optimality is in terms of number of instructions generated
- Machine model – register machines with complex instruction sets
 - Assume there are r interchangeable registers R_0, \dots, R_{r-1}
 - Instructions are of form: $R_i = E$
 - If E involves registers, then R_i must be one of them (i.e., 2-address instructions)
 - Variants: $R_i = M_j$, $R_i = R_i \text{ op } R_j$, $R_i = R_i \text{ op } M_j$
 - Other variants: $R_i = R_j$, $M_i = R_j$

Contiguous Evaluation

- The optimality criterion requires contiguous evaluation of an expression tree
 - No higher costs and no more registers
- A program P evaluates a tree T **contiguously** if
 - it first evaluates those subtrees of T that need to be computed into memory,
 - it then evaluates T_1, T_2 , and then root, in order, or T_2, T_1 , and then root, in order
- Evaluating part of T_1 leaving the result in a register, evaluating T_2 , and then evaluating rest of T_1 is not contiguous evaluation

Assume E is $E_1 + E_2$



syntax tree for E

Dynamic Programming Algorithm

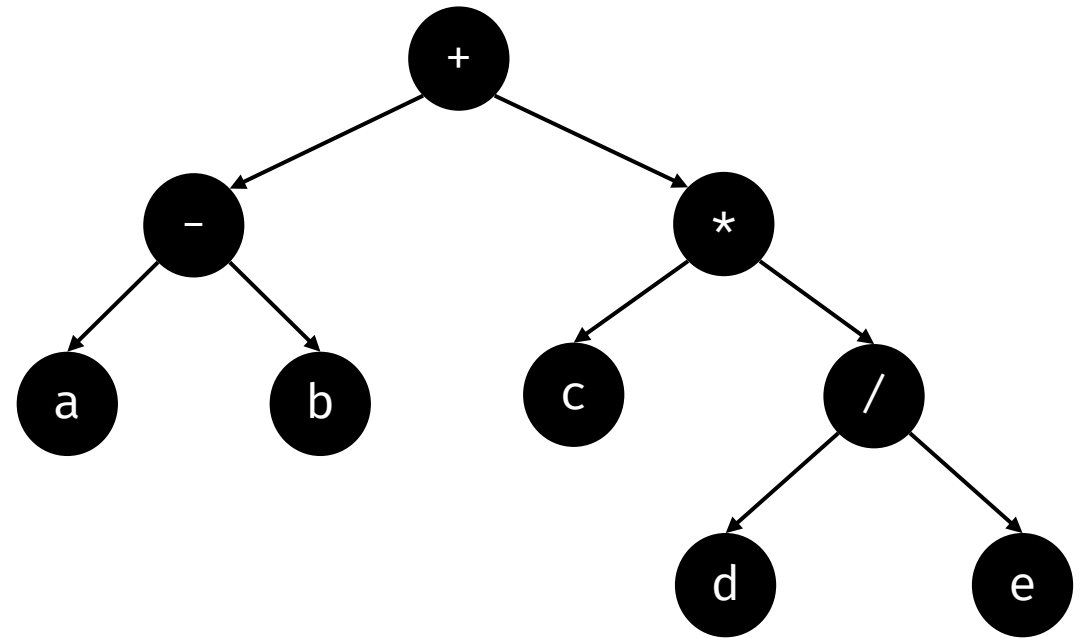
- **Assumption:** target has r registers
1. Compute bottom-up for each node n of the expression tree T an array C of costs
 - $C[i]$ is the minimum cost of computing the subtree S rooted at n into a register, assuming i registers are available for the computation, for $1 < i < r$
 - The cost of computing a node n includes the count of loads and stores necessary to evaluate S in the given number of registers plus the cost of computing the operator at the root of S
 2. Traverse T , using the cost vectors to determine which subtrees of T must be computed into memory
 3. Traverse each tree using the cost vectors and associated instructions to generate the final target code
 - Code for the subtrees computed into memory locations is generated first, then code for other subtrees, and then code for the root

Example

- Consider a machine having two registers R_0 and R_1
- Assume the available instructions are

LD R_i, M_j
op R_i, R_i, R_j
op R_i, R_i, M_j
LD R_i, R_j
ST M_i, R_j

- Furthermore, assume all instructions are of unit cost
 - Can be extended to cases where instructions have varying costs



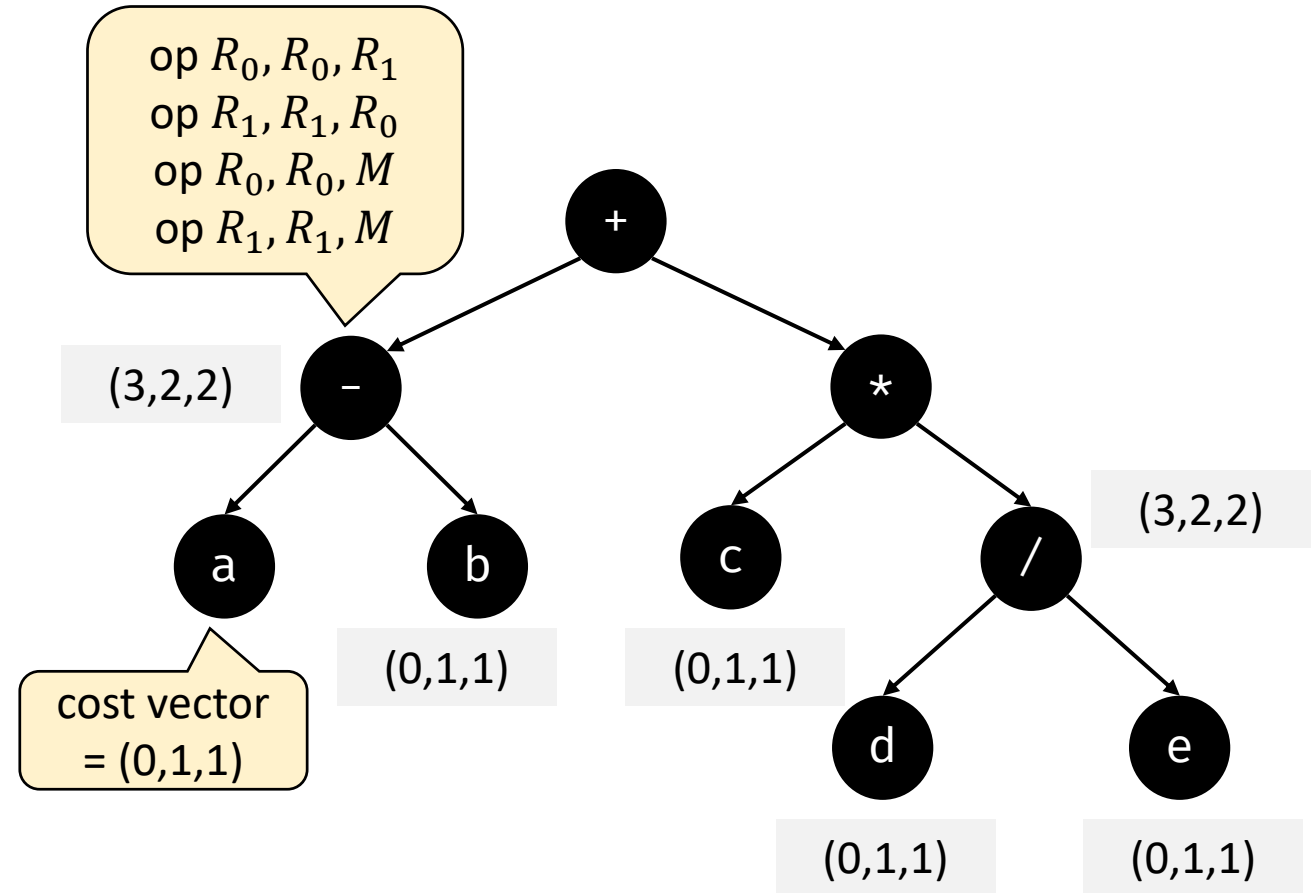
Expression tree

Expression Tree with Cost Vectors

$C_a[0] = 0$	Cost of computing a in memory
$C_a[1] = 1$	Cost of computing a in a register
$C_a[2] = 1$	Cost of computing a in a register, with two registers available

LD R_0, a
ADD R_0, R_0, b

- $C_{-}[1] = C_a[1] + C_b[0] + 1 = 1 + 0 + 1 = 2$
- $C_{-}[2] = \min \begin{pmatrix} C_a[2] + C_b[1] + 1, \\ C_a[2] + C_b[0] + 1, \\ C_a[1] + C_b[2] + 1, \\ C_a[1] + C_b[1] + 1, \\ C_a[1] + C_b[0] + 1 \end{pmatrix}$
 $= \min(3, 2, 3, 3, 2) = 2$
- $C_{-}[0] = C_{-}[2] + 1 = 3$



Expression Tree with Cost Vectors

- $C_*[1] = C_c[1] + C_/[0] + 1 = 1 + 3 + 1 = 5$

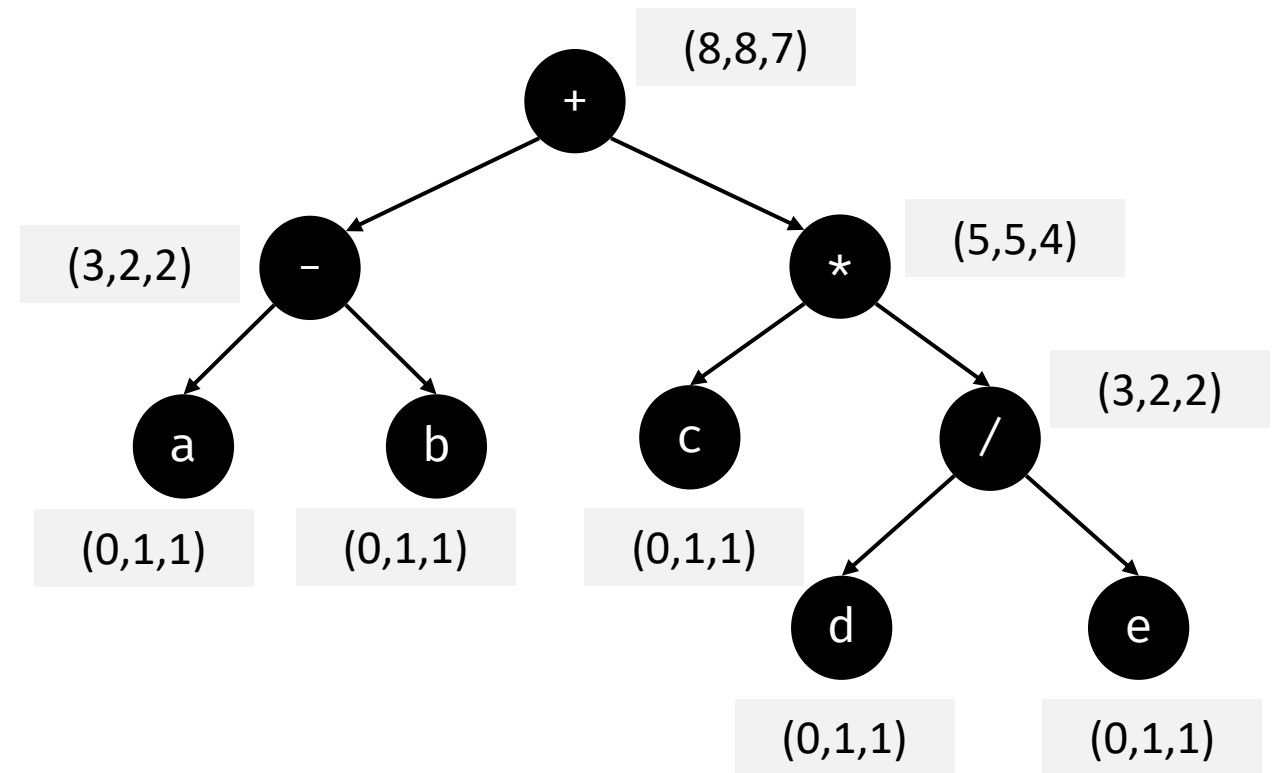
- $C_*[2] = \min \begin{pmatrix} C_c[2] + C_/[1] + 1, \\ C_c[2] + C_/[0] + 1, \\ C_c[1] + C_/[2] + 1, \\ C_c[1] + C_/[1] + 1, \\ C_c[1] + C_/[0] + 1 \end{pmatrix}$
 $= \min(4, 5, 4, 4, 5) = 4$

- $C_*[0] = C_*[2] + 1 = 5$

- $C_+[1] = C_-[1] + C_*[0] + 1 = 2 + 5 + 1 = 8$

- $C_+[2] = \min \begin{pmatrix} C_-[2] + C_*[1] + 1, \\ C_-[2] + C_*[0] + 1, \\ C_-[1] + C_*[2] + 1, \\ C_-[1] + C_*[1] + 1, \\ C_-[1] + C_*[0] + 1 \end{pmatrix}$
 $= \min(8, 8, 7, 8, 8) = 7$

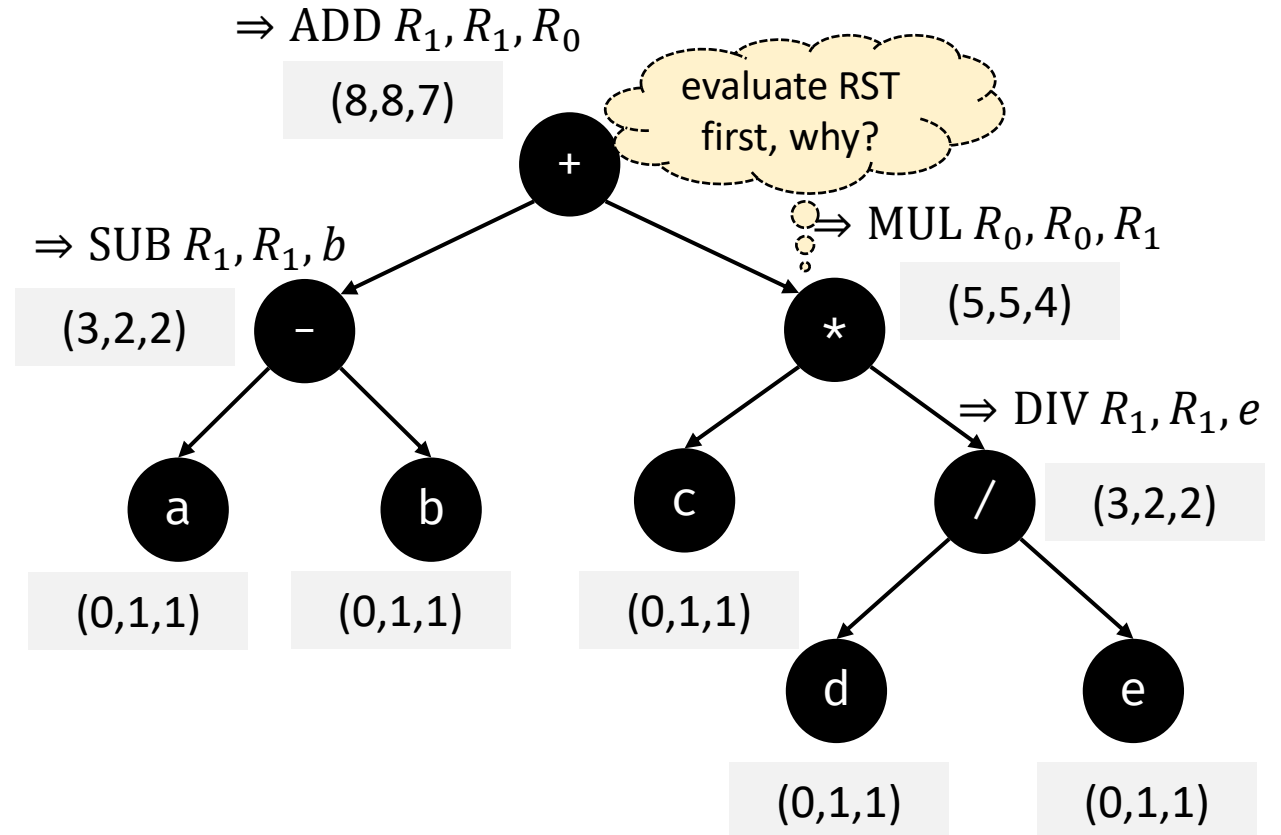
- $C_+[0] = C_+[2] + 1 = 8$



Tree Traversal to Generate Code

- Min cost at node $+$ is 7, which implies right subtree (RST) is computed with 2 registers in R_0 and left subtree (LST) is computed with 1 register into R_1
- For node $*$, compute RST with one register in R_1 and LST in R_0
- For node c , emit LD R_0, c
- For node $/$, compute RST in memory and compute LST in R_1
- For node d , emit LD R_1, d
- For node $-$, compute RST in memory and compute LST in R_1
- For node a , emit LD R_1, a

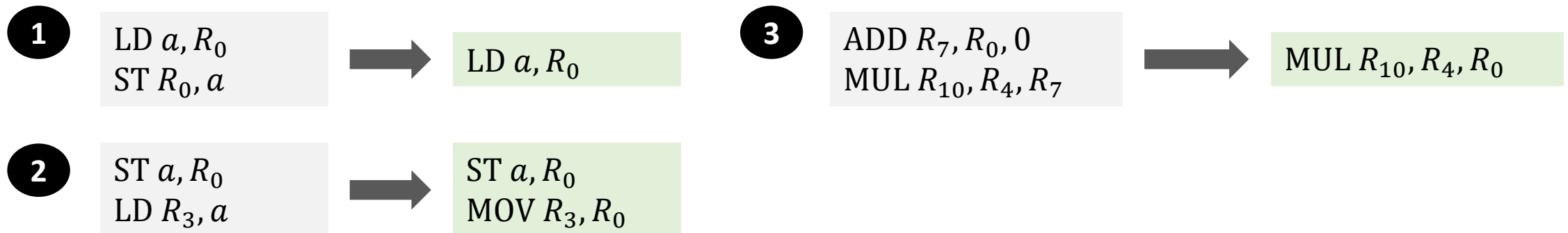
```
LD R0, c
LD R1, d
DIV R1, R1, e
MUL R0, R0, R1
LD R1, a
SUB R1, R1, b
ADD R1, R1, R0
```



Instruction Selection via Peephole Optimization

Peephole Optimization

- **Insight:** Find local optimizations by examining short sequences of adjacent operations
 - The sliding window, or the peephole, moves over code
 - Code in a peephole need not be contiguous
 - Goal is to identify code patterns that can be improved
 - Rewrite code patterns with improved sequence



Examples of Peephole Optimizations

- Eliminate redundant instructions
- Eliminate unreachable code
- Eliminate jump over jumps
- Algebraic simplification
- Strength reduction
- Use of machine idioms

```
...  
LD R0, x  
{no modifications  
to x or R0}  
ST R0, x  
...
```

BB

```
...  
if print == 1  
    goto L1  
    goto L2  
L1: print ...  
L2: ...
```



```
...  
if print != 1  
    goto L2  
    print ...  
L2: ...
```

```
...  
goto L1  
...  
L1: goto L2  
...
```



```
...  
goto L2  
...  
L1: goto L2  
...
```

no jumps
to L1

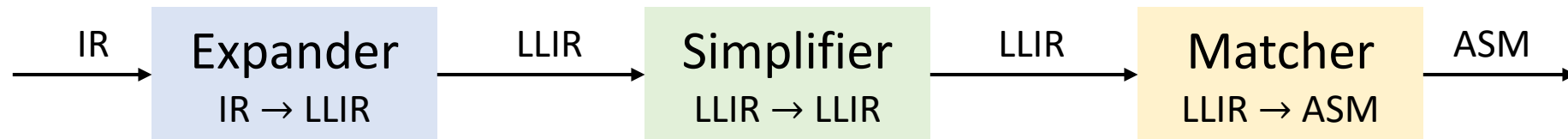


```
...  
goto L2  
...  
...  
...
```

BB beginning at L1:
... can be removed if
it is preceded by an
unconditional jump

Peephole Optimization based Code Generation

- A naïve optimization strategy can use exhaustive search to match the patterns and rewrite code
 - Can work if number of patterns and the window size are small
 - Does not work for modern complex ISAs
- Workflow in a modern peephole optimizer



- In an optimizer, the input and output languages are the same
- With a different output language (e.g., ASM), the optimizer can be used for code generation

Peephole Optimization based Code Generation

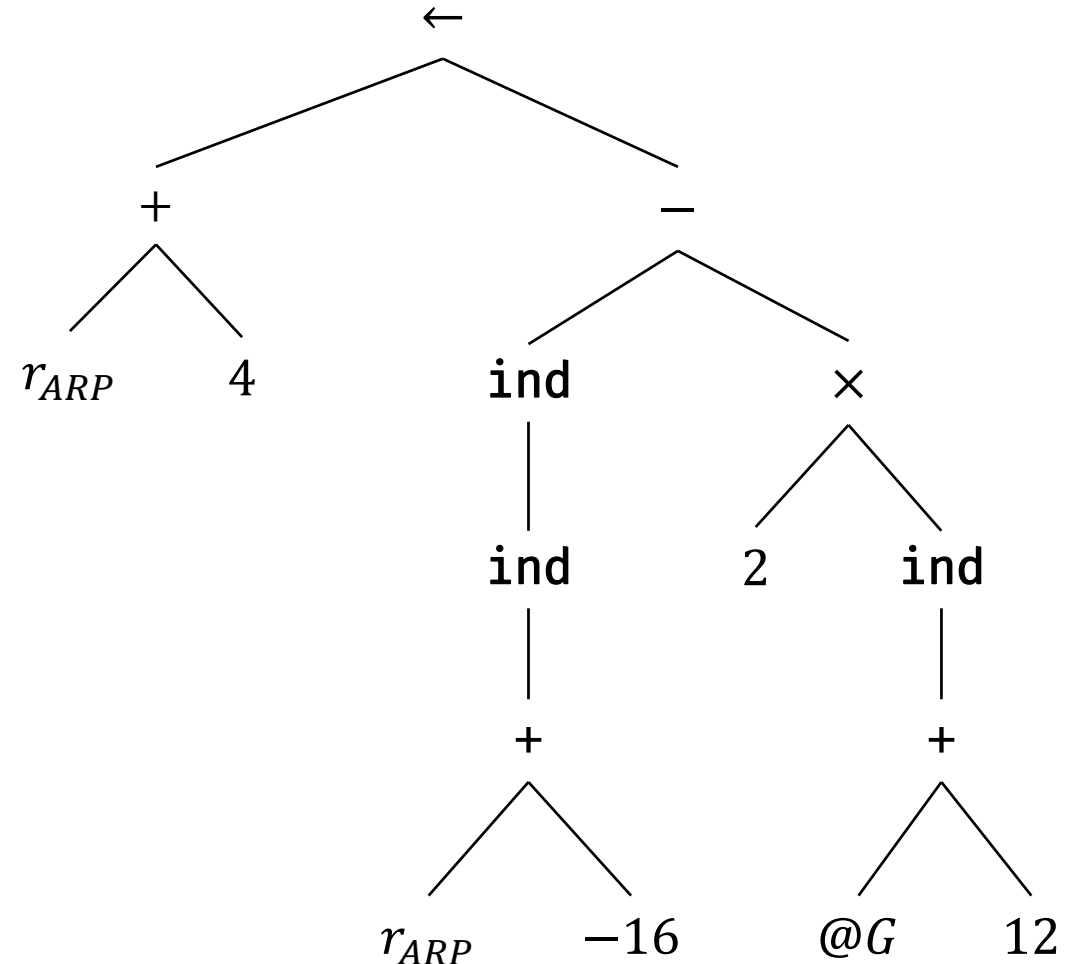
- Expander rewrites the IR to represent all the direct effects of an operation
 - If $OP\ R_0, R_1, R_2$ sets a condition code, then the LLIR should include an explicit operation to set the condition code
- Simplifier performs limited local optimization on the LLIR in the window
- Matcher compares the simplified LLIR against the pattern library

Example

AST computes $a = b - 2 \times c$

- a is stored at offset 4 in the local AR
- b stored as a call-by-reference parameter whose pointer is stored at offset -16 from the ARP
- c is at offset 12 from the label $@G$

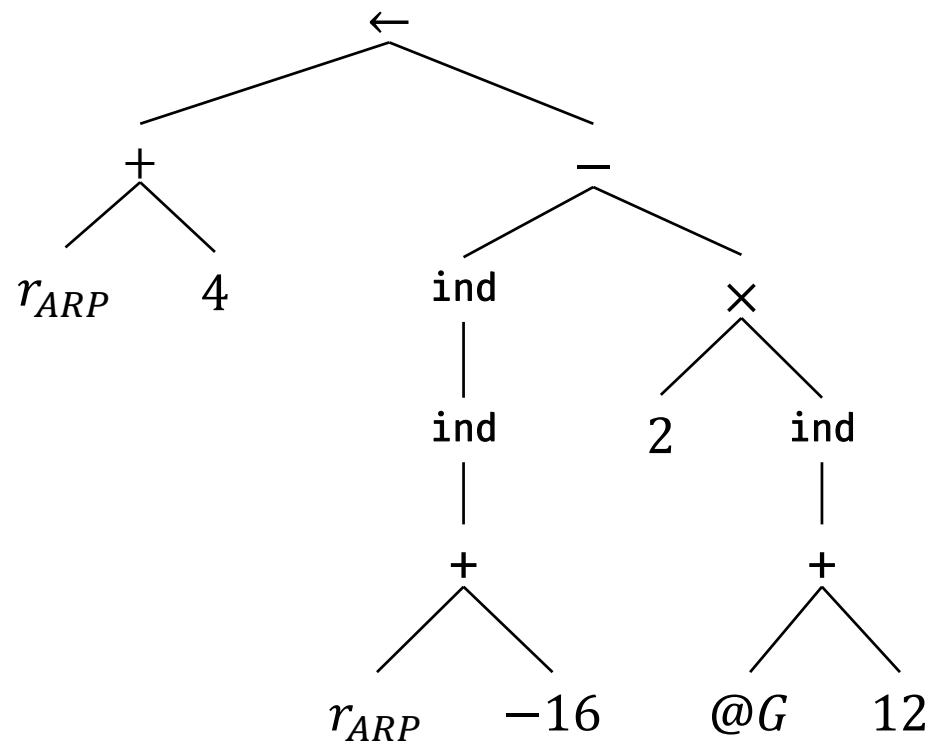
Op	Arg ₁	Arg ₂	Result
×	2	c	t_1
-	b	t_1	a



Example

Op	Arg ₁	Arg ₂	Result
×	2	<i>c</i>	<i>t</i> ₁
−	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i> ₁	<i>a</i>

Expand 



$r_{10} \leftarrow 2$
 $r_{11} \leftarrow @G$
 $r_{12} \leftarrow 12$
 $r_{13} \leftarrow r_{11} + r_{12}$
 $r_{14} \leftarrow M(r_{13})$
 $r_{15} \leftarrow r_{10} \times r_{14}$
 $r_{16} \leftarrow -16$
 $r_{17} \leftarrow r_{ARP} + r_{16}$
 $r_{18} \leftarrow M(r_{17})$
 $r_{19} \leftarrow M(r_{18})$
 $r_{20} \leftarrow r_{19} - r_{15}$
 $r_{21} \leftarrow 4$
 $r_{22} \leftarrow r_{ARP} + r_{21}$
 $M(r_{22}) \leftarrow r_{20}$

Example

Op	Arg ₁	Arg ₂	Result
×	2	<i>c</i>	<i>t</i> ₁
-	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i> ₁	<i>a</i>

Expand 

```

r10 ← 2
r11 ← @G
r12 ← 12
r13 ← r11 + r12
r14 ← M(r13)
r15 ← r10 × r14
r16 ← -16
r17 ← rARP + r16
r18 ← M(r17)
r19 ← M(r18)
r20 ← r19 - r15
r21 ← 4
r22 ← rARP + r21
M(r22) ← r20
    
```

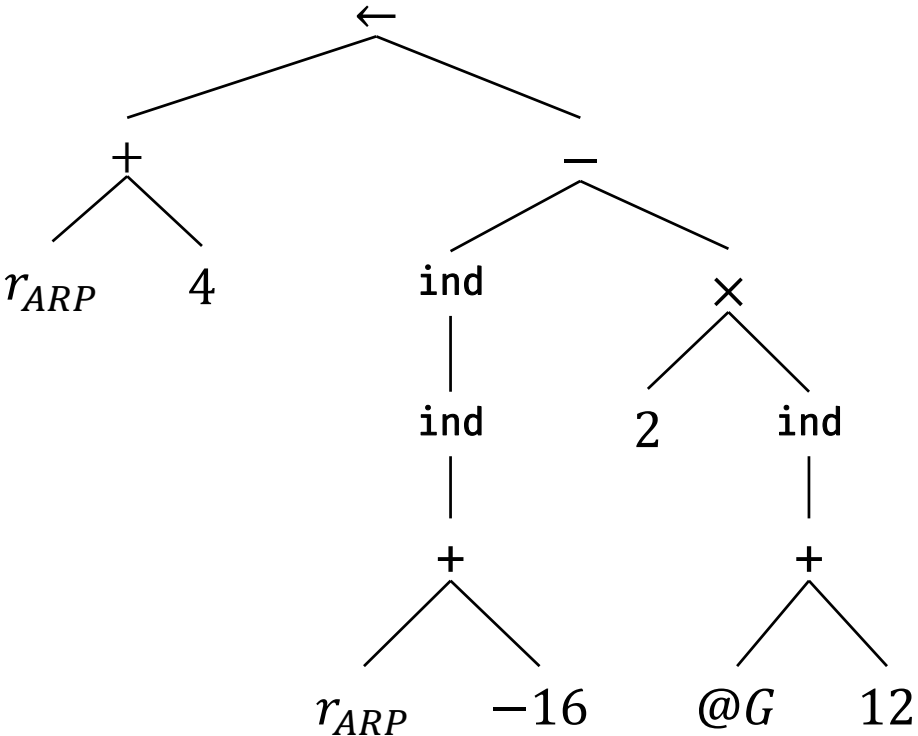
Simplify 

```

r10 ← 2
r11 ← @G
r14 ← M(r11 + 12)
r15 ← r10 × r14
r18 ← M(rARP - 16)
r19 ← M(r18)
r20 ← r19 - r15
M(rARP + 4) ← r20
    
```

fewer instructions and registers

Assume a sliding window of size 3



Sequences Produced by the Simplifier

$r_{10} \leftarrow 2$
 $r_{11} \leftarrow @G$
 $r_{12} \leftarrow 12$
 $r_{13} \leftarrow r_{11} + r_{12}$
 $r_{14} \leftarrow M(r_{13})$
 $r_{15} \leftarrow r_{10} \times r_{14}$
 $r_{16} \leftarrow -16$
 $r_{17} \leftarrow r_{ARP} + r_{16}$
 $r_{18} \leftarrow M(r_{17})$
 $r_{19} \leftarrow M(r_{18})$
 $r_{20} \leftarrow r_{19} - r_{15}$
 $r_{21} \leftarrow 4$
 $r_{22} \leftarrow r_{ARP} + r_{21}$
 $M(r_{22}) \leftarrow r_{20}$

Sequence 1

$r_{10} \leftarrow 2$
 $r_{11} \leftarrow @G$
 $r_{12} \leftarrow 12$

Sequence 4

$r_{11} \leftarrow @G$
 $r_{14} \leftarrow M(r_{11} + 12)$
 $r_{15} \leftarrow r_{10} \times r_{14}$

Sequence 7

$r_{15} \leftarrow r_{10} \times r_{14}$
 $r_{17} \leftarrow r_{ARP} - 16$
 $r_{18} \leftarrow M(r_{17})$

Sequence 2

$r_{11} \leftarrow @G$
 $r_{12} \leftarrow 12$
 $r_{13} \leftarrow r_{11} + r_{12}$

Sequence 5

$r_{14} \leftarrow M(r_{11} + 12)$
 $r_{15} \leftarrow r_{10} \times r_{14}$
 $r_{16} \leftarrow -16$

Sequence 8

$r_{15} \leftarrow r_{10} \times r_{14}$
 $r_{18} \leftarrow M(r_{ARP} - 16)$
 $r_{19} \leftarrow M(r_{18})$

Sequence 3

$r_{11} \leftarrow @G$
 $r_{13} \leftarrow r_{11} + 12$
 $r_{14} \leftarrow M(r_{13})$

Sequence 6

$r_{15} \leftarrow r_{10} \times r_{14}$
 $r_{16} \leftarrow -16$
 $r_{17} \leftarrow r_{ARP} + r_{16}$

Sequence 9

$r_{18} \leftarrow M(r_{ARP} - 16)$
 $r_{19} \leftarrow M(r_{18})$
 $r_{20} \leftarrow r_{19} - r_{15}$

Sequences Produced by the Simplifier

$r_{10} \leftarrow 2$
 $r_{11} \leftarrow @G$
 $r_{12} \leftarrow 12$
 $r_{13} \leftarrow r_{11} + r_{12}$
 $r_{14} \leftarrow M(r_{13})$
 $r_{15} \leftarrow r_{10} \times r_{14}$
 $r_{16} \leftarrow -16$
 $r_{17} \leftarrow r_{ARP} + r_{16}$
 $r_{18} \leftarrow M(r_{17})$
 $r_{19} \leftarrow M(r_{18})$
 $r_{20} \leftarrow r_{19} - r_{15}$
 $r_{21} \leftarrow 4$
 $r_{22} \leftarrow r_{ARP} + r_{21}$
 $M(r_{22}) \leftarrow r_{20}$

Sequence 10

$r_{19} \leftarrow M(r_{18})$
 $r_{20} \leftarrow r_{19} - r_{15}$
 $r_{21} \leftarrow 4$

Sequence 11

$r_{20} \leftarrow r_{19} - r_{15}$
 $r_{21} \leftarrow 4$
 $r_{22} \leftarrow r_{ARP} + r_{21}$

Sequence 12

$r_{20} \leftarrow r_{19} - r_{15}$
 $r_{22} \leftarrow r_{ARP} + 4$
 $M(r_{22}) \leftarrow r_{20}$

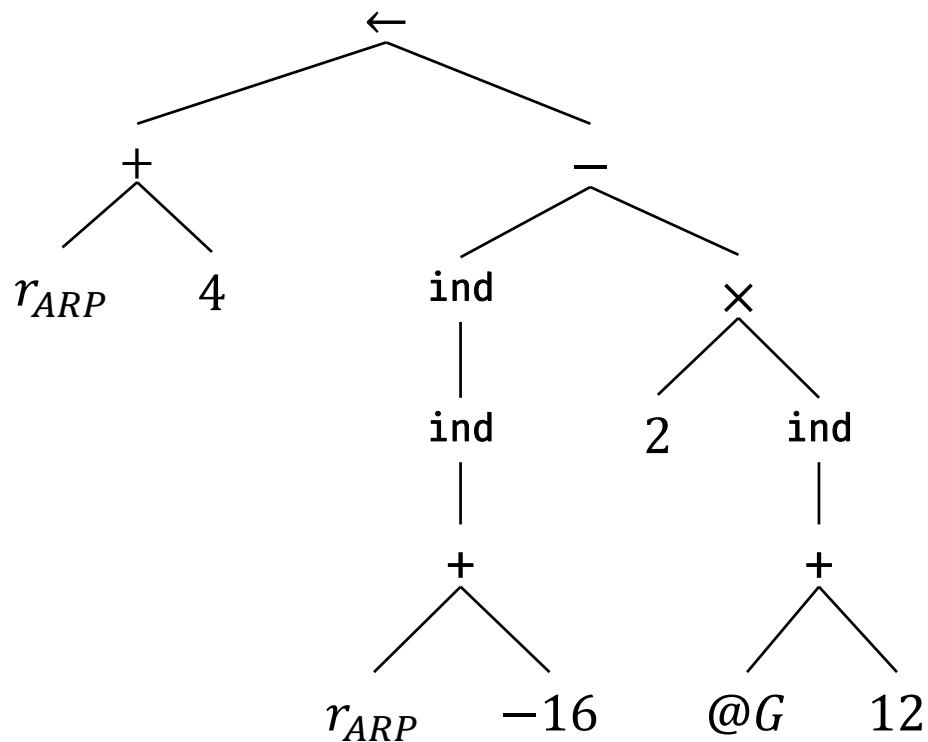
Sequence 13

$r_{20} \leftarrow r_{19} - r_{15}$
 $M(r_{ARP} + 4) \leftarrow r_{20}$

Example

Op	Arg ₁	Arg ₂	Result
×	2	<i>c</i>	<i>t</i> ₁
−	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i> ₁	<i>a</i>

Expand 



```

r10 ← 2
r11 ← @G
r12 ← 12
r13 ← r11 + r12
r14 ← M(r13)
r15 ← r10 × r14
r16 ← −16
r17 ← rARP + r16
r18 ← M(r17)
r19 ← M(r18)
r20 ← r19 − r15
r21 ← 4
r22 ← rARP + r21
M(r22) ← r20
  
```

Simplify 

```

r10 ← 2
r11 ← @G
r14 ← M(r11 + 12)
r15 ← r10 × r14
r18 ← M(rARP − 16)
r19 ← M(r18)
r20 ← r19 − r15
M(rARP + 4) ← r20
  
```

Match 

```

LD    r10, 2
LD    r11, @G
LD    r14, 12(r11)
MUL   r15, r10, r14
LD    r18, −16(rARP)
LD    r19, r18
SUB   r20, r19, r15
ST    4(rARP), r20
  
```

Example

Op	Arg ₁	Arg ₂	Result
×	2	<i>c</i>	<i>t</i> ₁
−	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i> ₁	<i>a</i>

Expand →

```

r10 ← 2
r11 ← @G
r12 ← 12
r13 ← r11 + r12
r14 ← M(r13)
r15 ← r10 × r14
r16 ← −16
r17 ← rARP + r16
r18 ← M(r17)
r19 ← M(r18)
r20 ← r19 − r15
r21 ← 4
r22 ← rARP + r21
M(r22) ← r20
    
```

Simplify →

```

r10 ← 2
r11 ← @G
r14 ← M(r11 + 12)
r15 ← r10 × r14
r18 ← M(rARP − 16)
r19 ← M(r18)
r20 ← r19 − r15
M(rARP + 4) ← r20
    
```

Match ↓

```

LD    r10, 2
LD    r11, @G
LD    r14, 12(r11)
MUL  r15, r10, r14
LD    r18, −16(rARP)
LD    r19, r18
SUB   r20, r19, r15
ST    4(rARP), r20
    
```

- Correctly identifying dead values, presence of control flow, and window size limit the effectiveness of peephole optimizations
- Can use logical instead based on data flow instead of physical windows

Current State in Code Generation

- Modern peephole systems automatically generates a matcher from a description of a target machine's instruction set
- Eases the work in retargeting the backend
 - i. Provide a new appropriate machine description to the pattern generator to produce a new instruction selector
 - ii. Change the LLIR sequences to match the new ISA
 - iii. Modify the instruction scheduler and register allocator to reflect the characteristics of the new ISA
- GCC uses a low-level IR Register-Transfer Language (RTL) for optimization and for code generation
 - The backend uses a peephole scheme to convert RTL into assembly code

References

- A. Aho et al. Compilers: Principles, Techniques, and Tools, 1st edition, Chapter 9.1-9.8, 9.10, 9.11.
- A. Aho et al. Compilers: Principles, Techniques, and Tools, 2nd edition, Chapter 8.1-8.6, 8.9, 8.10.
- K. Cooper and L. Torczon. Engineering a Compiler, 2nd edition, Chapter 11.