CS406: Compilers Spring 2022

Week 10: Register allocation, Instruction Scheduling, Control Flow Graphs

Slides Acknowledgements: Milind Kulkarni

Register Allocation

• Simple code generation (in CSE example): use a register for each temporary, load from a variable on each read, store to a variable at each write

•What are the problems?

•Real machines have a limited number of registers – one register per temporary may be too many

 Loading from and storing to variables on each use may produce a lot of redundant loads and stores

Register Allocation

- •Goal: allocate temporaries and variables to registers to:
 - •Use only as many registers as machine supports
 - •Minimize loading and storing variables to memory (keep variables in registers when possible)
 - •Minimize putting temporaries on stack ("spilling")

Global vs. Local

•Same distinction as global vs. local CSE •Local register allocation is for a single basic block

•Global register allocation is for an entire function

Does inter-procedural register allocation make sense? Why? Why not? *Hint: think about caller-save, callee-save registers When we handle function calls, registers are pushed/popped from stack*

Top-down register allocation

- For each basic block
 - Find the number of references of each variable
 - Assign registers to variables with the most references
- Details
 - Keep some registers free for operations on unassigned variables and spilling
 - Store dirty registers at the end of BB (i.e., registers which have variables assigned to them)
 - Do not need to do this for temporaries (why?)

Bottom-up register allocation

- Smarter approach:
 - Free registers once the data in them isn't used anymore
- Requires calculating liveness
 - A variable is live if it has a value that may be used in the future
- Easy to calculate if you have a single basic block:
 - Start at end of block, all local variables marked dead
 - If you have multiple basic blocks, all local variables defined in the block should be *live* (they may be used in the future)
 - When a variable is used, mark as live, record use
 - When a variable is defined, record def, variable dead above this
 - Creates chains linking uses of variables to where they were defined
- We will discuss how to calculate this across BBs later

Bottom-up register allocation

```
For each tuple op A B C in a BB, do
R<sub>x</sub> = ensure(A)
R<sub>y</sub> = ensure(B)
if A dead after this tuple, free(R<sub>x</sub>)
if B dead after this tuple, free(R<sub>y</sub>)
R<sub>z</sub> = allocate(C) //could use R<sub>x</sub> or R<sub>y</sub>
generate code for op
mark R<sub>z</sub> dirty
At end of BB, for each dirty register
generate code to store register into appropriate variable
```

 We will present this as if A, B, C are variables in memory. Can be modified to assume that A, B and C are in virtual registers, instead

Bottom-up register allocation

ensure(opr)

```
if opr is already in register r
return r
else
```

```
r = allocate(opr)
generate load from opr into r
return r
```

free(r)

if r is marked *dirty* and variable is live generate store mark r as free

```
allocate(opr)
if there is a free r
choose r
else
choose r to free
free(r)
mark r associated with opr
```

return r

Liveness Example

• What is live in this code? *Recall: a variable is live only if its value is used in future.*

-
{A_
{A_
{A_
{A
{A
{C
{B
{A
{ T]
{}

Liv	ve		
{A,	B}		
{A,	Β,	C}	
{A,	Β,	С,	T1}
{A,	Β,	С,	T2}
{A,	Β,	С,	D}
{C,	D,	E	
{B,	С,	D}	
{A,	Β}		
{T3]	}		
{}			

Comments

Used B, C Killed A

Used A, B Killed C

Used B, C Killed T1

Used T1, C Killed T2

Used T2, Killed D

Used A, B Killed E

Used E, D Killed B

Used C, D Killed A

Used A, B Killed T3 Used T3

<u>Bottom-up register allocation - Example</u>										
	Li	ve				R1	Regi R2	sters R3	R4	I
1: A = 7	{A}	נח				A*	ה *			mov 7 r1 add r1 2 r2
2: $B = A + 2$ 2: $C = A + B$	{Α, ∫∧	В В}	C٦			Α* ^*	B*	C *		add r1 r^2 r3
4: D = A + B	ιΑ, {Β,	с,	C } D }			A D*	B*	C*	(add r1 r2 r1 free r1 - dead)
5: $A = C + B$	{A,	Β,	С,	D}		D*	B*	C*	A* `	add r3 r2 r4
6: $B = C + B$	{A,	Β,	С,	D}	- ک	D*	B*	C*	A*	add r3 r2 r2 st r2 B;
7: $E = C + D$	{A,	В,	С, Е	ע, בו	E}	D≁	E≁	C≁ (sp:	A≁ ill r	add r3 r1 r2 2 - farthest,
8: $F = C + D$ 9: $G = \Delta + B$	{Α, {F	D, F	∟, G}	Г}				store	if	live and dirty)
10: $H = E + F$	(∟, {Η,	G}	Gj							
11: I = H + G	{I}									
12: WRITE(I)	{}									
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Bottom-up register allocation - Example										
	Li	ive				R1	Regi R2	sters R3	R4	I
1: $A = 7$	{A}					A *				mov 7 r1
2: $B = A + 2$	{A,	B}				A *	B*			add r1 2 r2
3: $C = A + B$	{A,	Β,	C}			A *	B*	C*		add r1 r2 r3
4: $D = A + B$	{B,	С,	D}			D*	B*	C*	(add r1 r2 r1 free r1 - dead)
5: $A = C + B$	{A,	Β,	С,	D}		D*	B*	C*	A*	add r3 r2 r4
6: $B = C + B$	{A,	Β,	С,	D}		D*	B*	C*	A*	add r3 r2 r2
7: $E = C + D$	{A,	Β,	С,	D,	E	D*	E*	C*	A*	add r3 r1 r2
8: F = C + D	{A,	Β,	Ε,	F		F*	E*		A*	add r3 r1 r1 (Free dead)
9: $G = A + B$	{Ε,	F,	G}			F*	E*	G*		1d b r3; add r4 r3 r3
10: $H = E + F$	{H,	G}					(1	oad	sinc	e B not in reg.
11: I = H + G	$\{I\}$								Free	dead regs)
12: WRITE(I)	{}									
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<u>Bottom-up register allocation - Example</u>										
	Li	ve				R1	Regi R2	sters R3	R4	I
1: $A = 7$	{A}					A *				mov 7 r1
2: $B = A + 2$	{A,	B}				A *	B*			add r1 2 r2
3: $C = A + B$	{A,	Β,	C}			A *	B*	C*		add r1 r2 r3
4: $D = A + B$	{B,	С,	D}			D*	B*	C*	(add r1 r2 r1 free r1 - dead)
5: $A = C + B$	{A,	Β,	С,	D}		D*	B*	C *	A*	add r3 r2 r4
6: $B = C + B$	{A,	Β,	С,	D}		D*	B*	C *	A*	add r3 r2 r2
7: $E = C + D$	{A,	Β,	С,	D,	E	D*	E*	C*	A *	add r3 r1 r2
8: $F = C + D$	{A,	Β,	Ε,	F }		F*	E*		A *	add r3 r1 r1 (Free dead)
9: G = A + B	{Ε,	F.	G}			F*	E*	G*		1d b r3;
10: H = E + F	{Η,	G}	J			H*		G*		add r2 r1 r1
11: I = H + G	{I}					I*				add r1 r3 r1
12: WRITE(I)	{}									write r1
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Instruction Scheduling

Instruction Scheduling

- Code generation has created a sequence of assembly instructions
- But that is not the only valid order in which instructions could be executed!



 Different orders can give you better performance, more instruction level parallelism, etc.

Why do Instruction Scheduling?

- Not all instructions are the same
 - Loads tend to take longer than stores, multiplies tend to take longer than adds
- Hardware can overlap execution of instructions (pipelining)
 - Can do some work while waiting for a load to complete
- Hardware can execute multiple instructions at the same time (superscalar)
 - Hardware has multiple functional units

Why do Instruction Scheduling? Contd..

- VLIW (very long instruction word)
 - Popular in the 1990s, still common in some DSPs
 - Relies on compiler to find best schedule for instructions, manage instruction-level parallelism
 - Instruction scheduling is vital
- Out-of-order superscalar
 - Standard design for most CPUs (some low energy chips, like in phones, may be in-order)
 - Hardware does scheduling, but in limited window of instructions
 - Compiler scheduling still useful to make hardware's life easier

Instruction Scheduling - Considerations

- •Gather constraints on schedule:
 - Data dependences between instructions
 - •Resource constraints
- •Schedule instructions while respecting constraints
 - List scheduling
 - •Height-based heuristic

Data dependence constraints

• Are all instruction orders legal?



Dependences between instructions prevent reordering

Data dependences

- Variables/registers defined in one instruction are used in a later instruction: flow dependence
- Variables/registers used in one instruction are overwritten by a later instruction: anti dependence
- Variables/registers defined in one instruction are overwritten by a later instruction: **output dependence**
- Data dependences prevent instructions from being reordered, or executed at the same time.

Other constraints

- Some architectures have more than one ALU
 - a = b * cThese instructions do not have anyd = e + fdependence. Can be executed in parallel
- But what if there is only one ALU?
 - Cannot execute in parallel
 - If a multiply takes two cycles to complete, cannot even execute the second instruction immediately after the first
- **Resource constraints** are limitations of the hardware that prevent instructions from executing at a certain time

Representing constraints

- Dependence constraints and resource constraints limit valid orders of instructions
- Instruction scheduling goal:
 - For each instruction in a program (basic block), assign it a scheduling slot
 - Which functional unit to execute on, and when
 - As long as we obey all of the constraints
- So how do we represent constraints?

Data dependence graph

- Graph that captures data dependence constraints
- Each node represents one instruction
- Each edge represents a dependence from one instruction to another
- Label edges with instruction *latency* (how long the first instruction takes to complete → how long we have to wait before scheduling the second instruction)

- ADD takes I cycle
- MUL takes 2 cycles
- LD takes 2 cycles
- ST takes I cycle

LD A, R I LD B, R2 R3 = R1 + R2 LD C, R4 R5 = R4 * R2 R6 = R3 + R5 ST R6, D



- ADD takes I cycle
- MUL takes 2 cycles
- LD takes 2 cycles
- ST takes I cycle



Reservation tables

- Represent resource constraints using reservation tables
- For each instruction, table shows which functional units are occupied in each cycle the instruction executes
 - # rows: latency of instruction
 - # columns: number of functional units
 - T[i][j] marked ⇔ functional unit *j* occupied during cycle *i*
 - Caveat: some functional units are *pipelined*: instruction takes multiple cycles to complete, but only occupies the unit for the first cycle
- Some instructions have multiple ways they can execute: one table per variant

- Two ALUs, fully pipelined
- One LD/ST unit, not pipelined
- ADDs can execute on ALU0 or ALU1
- MULs can execute on ALU0 only

- ADD takes I cycle
- MUL takes 2 cycles
- LD takes 2 cycles
- ST takes I cycle
- LOADs and STOREs both occupy the LD/ST unit

ALU0	ALU1	LD/ST

- Two ALUs, fully pipelined
- One LD/ST unit, not pipelined

ALU0	ALU1	LD/ST

- Two ALUs, fully pipelined
- One LD/ST unit, not pipelined
- ADDs can execute on ALU0 or ALU1

- ADD takes I cycle
- MUL takes 2 cycles
- LD takes 2 cycles
- ST takes I cycle

ALU0	ALU1	LD/ST
Х		

AD	D	(1)	
		• •	

ALU0	ALU1	LD/ST
	Х	

ADD (2)

- Two ALUs, fully pipelined
- One LD/ST unit, not pipelined
- ADDs can execute on ALU0 or ALU1
- MULs can execute on ALU0 only

ALU0	ALU1	LD/ST
X		

- ADD takes I cycle
- MUL takes 2 cycles
- LD takes 2 cycles
- ST takes I cycle

MUL

- Two ALUs, fully pipelined
- One LD/ST unit, not pipelined
- ADDs can execute on ALU0 or ALU1
- MULs can execute on ALU0 only
- LOADs and STOREs can execute on LD/ST unit only

•	ADD	takes	I cycl	e
---	-----	-------	--------	---

- MUL takes 2 cycles
- LD takes 2 cycles
- ST takes I cycle

ALU0	ALU1	LD/ST	
		Х	

ALU0	ALU1	LD/ST	
		Х	

LOAD ? What is incorrect here?

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Using tables



Scheduling

- Can use these constraints to schedule a program
- Data dependence graph tells us what instructions are available for scheduling (have all of their dependences satisfied)
- Reservation tables help us build schedule by telling us which functional units are occupied in which cycle

List scheduling

- I. Start in cycle 0
- 2. For each cycle
 - I. Determine which instructions are available to execute
 - From list of instructions, pick one to schedule, and place in schedule
 - If no more instructions can be scheduled, move to next cycle

Cycle	ALU0	ALUI	LD/ST
0			
I			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			

List scheduling - Example



List scheduling

I. LD A, R I
 I. LD B, R2
 R3 = RI + R2
 LD C, R4
 R5 = R4 * R2
 R6 = R3 + R5
 ST R6, D

Cycle	ALU0	ALUI	LD/ST
0			-
I			-
2			2
3			2
4	3		4
5			4
6	5		
7			
8	6		
9			7
10			
Height-based scheduling

- Important to prioritize instructions
 - Instructions that have a lot of downstream instructions dependent on them should be scheduled earlier
- Instruction scheduling NP-hard in general, but heightbased scheduling is effective
- Instruction height = latency from instruction to farthest-away leaf
 - Leaf node height = instruction latency
 - Interior node height = max(heights of children + instruction latency)
- Schedule instructions with highest height first



Height-based list scheduling

LD A, R I
 LD B, R2
 R3 = RI + R2
 LD C, R4
 R5 = R4 * R2
 R6 = R3 + R5
 ST R6, D

Cycle	ALU0	ALUI	LD/ST
0			2
I			2
2			4
3			4
4	5		I
5			I
6	3		
7	6		
8	7		
9			
10			

Basic Blocks and Flow Graphs

- Basic Block
 - Maximal sequence of consecutive instructions with the following properties:
 - The first instruction of the basic block is the *only entry point*
 - The last instruction of the basic block is either the halt instruction or the *only exit point*
- Flow Graph
 - Nodes are the basic blocks
 - Directed edge indicates which block follows which block

Basic Blocks and Flow Graphs - Example



A data flow graph

Flow Graphs

- Capture how control transfers between basic blocks due to:
 - Conditional constructs
 - Loops
- Are necessary when we want optimize considering larger parts of the program
 - Multiple procedures
 - Whole program

Flow Graphs - Representation

- We need to label and track statements that are jump targets
 - Explicit targets targets mentioned in jump statement
 - Implicit targets targets that follow conditional jump statement
 - Statement that is executed if the branch is not taken
- Implementation
 - Linked lists for Basic Blocks
 - Graph data structures for flow graphs

A = 4
t1 = A * B
repeat {
t2 = t1/C
if (t2
$$\ge$$
 W) {
M = t1 * k
t3 = M + I
}
H = I
M = t3 - H
} until (T3 \ge 0)

1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto \ L1$
11 L3: halt

CFG for running example



Constructing a CFG

- To construct a CFG where each node is a basic block
 - Identify *leaders*: first statement of a basic block
 - In program order, construct a block by appending subsequent statements up to, but not including, the next leader
- Identifying leaders
 - First statement in the program
 - Explicit target of any conditional or unconditional branch
 - Implicit target of any branch

Partitioning algorithm

- Input: set of statements, stat(i) = ith statement in input
- Output: set of leaders, set of basic blocks where block(x) is the set of statements in the block with leader x
- Algorithm

```
leaders = {1} //Leaders always includes first statement
for i = 1 to |n| //|n| = number of statements
if stat(i) is a branch, then
leaders = leaders ∪ all potential targets
end for
worklist = leaders
while worklist not empty do
x = remove earliest statement in worklist
block(x) = {x}
for (i = x + 1; i ≤ |n| and i ∉ leaders; i++)
block(x) = block(x) ∪ {i}
end for
end while
```

Leaders = ? Basic blocks = ?

1		A = 4
2		t1 = A * B
3	L1:	t2 = t1 / C
4		if t2 < W goto L2
5		M = t1 * k
6		t3 = M + I
7	L2:	H = I
8		M = t3 - H
9		if t3 ≥ 0 goto L3
10		goto L1
11	L3:	halt

Leaders = {1} Basic blocks =

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$$A = 4$$

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11 L3: halt

Leaders = {1,3,5,7,10,11} Basic blocks = ?

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$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
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6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto \ L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 10, 11\}$ Block(1) = ? Basic blocks =

1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto \ L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = {1,3,5,7,10,11} Basic blocks =

Block(1) = ? Start from statement 2 and add till either the end or a leader is reached ⁶²

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1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto \ L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = $\{1,3,5,7,10,11\}$ Block(1) = $\{1,2\}$ Basic blocks =

1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto \ L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 10, 11\}$ Block(3) = ? Basic blocks =

1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto \ L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 10, 11\}$ Block(3) = $\{3, 4\}$ Basic blocks =

1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto \ L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = {1,3,5,7,10,11} Block(5) = ? Basic blocks =

1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto \ L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = $\{1,3,5,7,10,11\}$ Block(5) = $\{5,6\}$ Basic blocks =

1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = $\{1,3,5,7,10,11\}$ Block(7) = ? Basic blocks =

1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto \ L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = $\{1,3,5,7,10,11\}$ Block(7) = $\{7,8,9\}$ Basic blocks =

1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto \ L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = $\{1,3,5,7,10,11\}$ Block(10) = ? Basic blocks =

1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = $\{1,3,5,7,10,11\}$ Block(10) = $\{10\}$ Basic blocks =

1
$$A = 4$$

2 $t1 = A * B$
3 L1: $t2 = t1 / C$
4 $if t2 < W \text{ goto } L2$
5 $M = t1 * k$
6 $t3 = M + I$
7 L2: $H = I$
8 $M = t3 - H$
9 $if t3 \ge 0 \text{ goto } L3$
10 $goto L1$
11 L3: halt

Leaders = $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 10, 11\}$ Block(11) = $\{11\}$ Basic blocks =
Running example

Leaders = {1, 3, 5, 7, 10, 11} Basic blocks = { {1, 2}, {3, 4}, {5, 6}, {7, 8, 9}, {10}, {11} }

- There is a directed edge from B1 to B2 if
 - There is a branch from the last statement of B₁ to the first statement (leader) of B₂
 - B₂ immediately follows B₁ in program order and B₁ does not end with an unconditional branch
- Input: *block*, a sequence of basic blocks
- Output: The CFG

for i = 1 to |block| {{1,2},{3,4},{5,6},{7,8,9},{10},{11}}
x = last statement of block(i)
if stat(x) is a branch, then
for each explicit target y of stat(x)
 create edge from block i to block y
end for
if stat(x) is not unconditional then
create edge from block i to block i+1
end for

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- There is a directed edge from B_1 to B_2 if
 - There is a branch from the last statement of B_1 to the first statement (leader) of B₂
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- Input: *block*, a sequence of basic blocks



- There is a directed edge from B1 to B2 if
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- Input: *block*, a sequence of basic blocks



Result



Discussion

- Some times we will also consider the *statement-level* CFG, where each node is a statement rather than a basic block
 - Either kind of graph is referred to as a CFG
- In statement-level CFG, we often use a node to explicitly represent *merging* of control
 - Control merges when two different CFG nodes point to the same node
- Note: if input language is structured, front-end can generate basic block directly
 - "GOTO considered harmful"

Statement level CFG



Control Flow Graphs - Use

- Why do we need CFGs? Global Optimization
 - Optimizing compilers do global optimization (i.e. optimize beyond basic blocks)
 - Differentiating aspect of normal and optimizing compilers
 - E.g. loops are the most frequent targets of global optimization (because they are often the "hot-spots" during program execution)

how do we identify loops in CFGs?

- Loops how do we identify loops in CFGs? For a set of nodes, L, that belong to loop:
 - 1) There is a *loop entry node* with the property that no other node in L has a predecessor outside L. That is, every path from entry of the entire flow graph (*graph entry node*) to any node in L goes through the loop entry node.
 - 2) Every node in L has a non-empty path, completely within L, to the entry of L.



Consider: {B2, B4, B5}. Is this a loop?, Are there other loops? 87

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Consider: {B2, B4, B5}. Is this a loop?, Are there other loops?

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1) Is L={B2, B4, B5} a loop?. No. Consider:

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- 1) Is L={B2, B4, B5} a loop?. No. Consider:
 - *Every node in L* has a non-empty path, completely within L, to the entry of L.



1) Is L={B2, B3, B4, B5} a loop?.

