

Appendix A

List of Techniques

The list starts on the next page, and its legend appears at the end of the list. The techniques are ordered chronologically.

Note that the capabilities of all techniques have been set to reflect those exhibited by current implementation prototypes and known applications, not the capabilities that could potentially be achieved through extensions of the technique.

REFERENCES	PR	SC	OP	MO	DO	IB	IN	KNOWN APPLICATIONS
Lowry and Medlock [243]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	FHC
Orgass and Waite [273]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	SIMCMP
Elson and Rake [108]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Miller [255]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	DMACS
Wilcox [338]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Wasilew [331]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Donegan [101]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Tirrell [319]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Weingart [332]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Ammann et al. [12, 13]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Young [350]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Newcomer [263]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Simoneaux [309]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Snyder [310]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Fraser [140, 141]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Ripken [294]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Glanville and Graham [158]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Johnson [191, 192]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	PCC
Harrison [170]	ME ⁺	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Cattell [67, 70, 234]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	PQCC
Auslander and Hopkins [33]	ME ⁺	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Ganapathi and Fischer [146, 147, 148, 149]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Krumme and Ackley [218]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Deutsch and Schiffman [96]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	SMALLTALK-80
Christopher et al. [76]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Davidson and Fraser [91]	ME ⁺	L	○	●	○	○	○	GCC, ACK, ZEPHYR/VPO
Henry [177]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Aho et al. [6, 7, 321]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	TWIG
Hatcher and Christopher [172]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Horspool [184]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Fraser and Wendt [135]	ME ⁺	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Griegerich and Schmal [157]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	

REFERENCES	PR	SC	OP	MO	DO	IB	IN	KNOWN APPLICATIONS
Hatcher and Tuller [174]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	UNH-CODEGEN
Pegri-Llopert and Graham [278]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Yates and Schwartz [348]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Emmelmann et al. [109]	ME	L	●	○	○	○	○	BEG, CoSY
Ganapathi [145]	TC	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Genin et al. [155]	ME ⁺	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Nowak and Marwedel [269]	DC	L	○	●	●	○	○	MSSC
Balachandran et al. [35]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Despland et al. [63, 94, 95]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	PAGODE
Wendt [335]	ME ⁺	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Hatcher [173]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	UCG
Fraser et al. [137]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	IBURG, RECORD, REDACO
Fraser et al. [138, 281, 282, 284, 285]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	BURG, HBURG, JBURG, WBURG, OCAMLBURG
Emmelmann [110]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Wess [336, 337]	TD	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Marwedel [252]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	MSSV
Tjiang [320]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	OLIVE, SPAM
Engler and Proebsting [114]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	DCG
Fauth et al. [125, 258]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	CBC
Ferdinand et al. [127]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Liem et al. [237, 276, 277]	DC	L	○	○	○	○	○	CODESYN
Lanneer et al. [222, 326, 327]	GC	G	●	●	○	○	○	CHESS
Wilson et al. [340]	DC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Yu and Hu [351, 352]	DC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Novack et al. [267, 268]	MS	G	●	○	○	○	○	
Hanson and Fraser [169]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	LBURG, LCC
Liao et al. [235, 236]	DC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Adl-Tabatabai et al. [1]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	OMNIWARE
Engler [113]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	V CODE
Hoover and Zadeck [182]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Leupers and Marwedel [226, 233]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Nymeyer et al. [270, 271]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	

REFERENCES	PR	SC	OP	MO	DO	IB	IN	KNOWN APPLICATIONS
Shu et al. [308]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Gough [160, 161, 162]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	MBURG, GPBURG
Gebotys [152]	DC	L	●	●	○	○	○	
Hanono and Devadas [167, 168]	TD	L	○	○	○	○	○	AVIV
Leupers and Marwedel [230]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	MSSQ
Bashford and Leupers [40]	DC	L	●	●	○	○	○	
Ertl [117]	DC	L	●	●	○	○	○	DBURG
Fraser and Proebsting [139]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	GBURG
Fröhlich et al. [142]	TD	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Visser [328]	GC	G	○	●	○	○	○	
Leupers [228]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Madhavan et al. [245]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Arnold and Corporaal [25, 26, 27]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Sarkar et al. [300]	DC	L	○	○	○	○	○	JALAPEÑO
Paleczny et al. [274]	GC	G	●	○	○	○	○	JHSC
Lorenz et al. [241, 242]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Bravenboer and Visser [56]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Krishnaswamy and Gupta [216]	ME ⁺	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Eckstein et al. [106]	GC	G	○	○	○	○	○	
Tanaka et al. [317]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Borchardt [50]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Brisk et al. [58]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Cong et al. [82]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Lattner and Adve [224]	DC	L	○	○	○	○	○	LLVM
Kessler et al. [43, 115, 116]	DC	L	●	○	○	○	○	OPTIMIST
Clark et al. [77]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Dias and Ramsey [98]	ME ⁺	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Ertl et al. [118]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Farfeleder et al. [121]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Kulkarni et al. [219]	ME ⁺	L	○	●	○	○	○	VISTA
Hormati et al. [183]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Scharwaechter et al. [303]	DC	L	○	○	○	○	○	CBURG

REFERENCES	PR	SC	OP	MO	DO	IB	IN	KNOWN APPLICATIONS
Eibner et al. [105]	GC	G	○	●	●	○	○	
Koes and Goldstein [212]	DC	L	○	●	○	○	○	NOLTIS
Ahn et al. [2]	DC	L	○	●	●	○	○	
Martin et al. [248, 249]	DC	L	●	●	●	○	○	
Buchwald and Zwinkau [61]	GC	G	○	○	○	○	○	
Dias and Ramsey [97, 289]	ME ⁺	L	○	●	○	○	○	
Edler von Koch et al. [107]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Floch et al. [131]	DC	L	●	●	●	○	○	
Yang [347]	TC	L	●	○	○	○	○	
Youn et al. [349]	DC	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Arslan and Kuchcinski [29, 30]	DC	L	●	●	●	○	○	CBURG
Janoušek and Málek [187]	TC	L	○	○	○	○	○	
Andrade [16]	ME	L	○	○	○	○	○	GNU LIGHTNING

Fundamental principle (PR) on which the technique is based: macro expansion (ME), macro expansion with peephole optimization (ME⁺), tree covering (TC), trellis diagrams (TD—is actually sorted under TC in this book), DAG covering (DC), graph covering (GC), or mutation scheduling (MS—is actually sorted under GC in this book). Scope of instruction selection (SC): local (L, isolated to a single block), or global (G, considers entire functions). Whether the technique is claimed to be optimal (OP). Supported machine instruction characteristics: single-output (supported by all techniques), multi-output (MO), disjoint-output (DO), inter-block (IB), and interdependent (IN) instructions. The symbols ○, ●, and ● indicate no, partial, and full support, respectively.

Appendix B

Publication Timeline

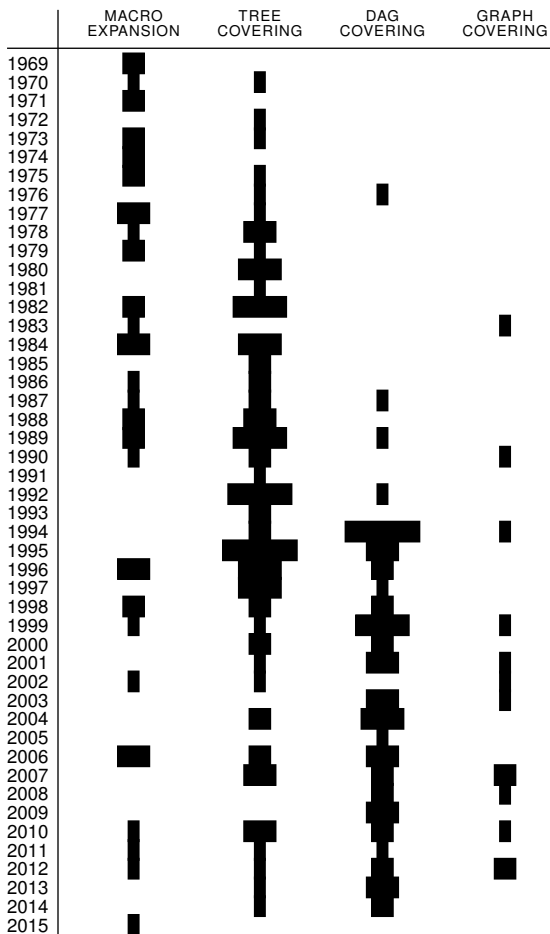


Fig. B.1: Illustrates how research on instruction selection (201 publications in total), with respect to the fundamental principles, has elapsed over time. The widths of the bars indicate the relative numbers of publications for a given year

Appendix C

Graph Definitions

A *graph* is defined as a tuple (N, E) where N is a set of *nodes* (also known as *vertices*) and E is a set of *edges*, each consisting of a pair of nodes $n, m \in N$. A graph is *undirected* if its edges have no direction, and *directed* if they do. In a directed graph we write an edge from a node n to another node m as $n \rightarrow m$, and say that such an edge is *outgoing* with respect to n , and *ingoing* with respect to m . We also introduce the following functions:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{src} : E &\rightarrow N & \text{dst} : E &\rightarrow N \\ \text{src}(n \rightarrow m) &= n & \text{dst}(n \rightarrow m) &= m \end{aligned}$$

Edges for which $\text{src}(e) = \text{dst}(e)$ are known as *loop edges* (or simply *loops*). If there exists more than one edge between the same pair of nodes then the graph is a *multigraph*, otherwise it is a *simple graph*.

A list of edges that describe how to get from one node to another is called a *path*. More formally we define a path between two nodes n and m as an ordered list of edges $p = \langle e_1, \dots, e_l \rangle$ such that for the directed graph (N, E) :

$$\begin{aligned} e_i &\in E \quad \forall e_i \in p \\ \text{dst}(e_i) &= \text{src}(e_{i+1}) \quad \forall 1 \leq i < l - 1 \end{aligned}$$

Paths for undirected graphs are similarly defined and will thus be skipped. A path for which $\text{src}(e_1) = \text{dst}(e_l)$ is known as a *cycle*. Two nodes n and m , where $n \neq m$, are said to be *connected* if there exists a path from n to m , and if the path is of length 1 then n and m are also *adjacent*. A directed graph containing no cycles is known as a *directed acyclic graph (DAG)*. An undirected graph is *connected* if and only if there exists a path for every distinct pair of nodes. For completeness, a directed graph is *strongly connected* iff, for every pair of distinct nodes n and m , there exists a path from n to m and a path from m to n . Also, a directed graph is *weakly connected* if replacing all edges with undirected edges yields a connected undirected graph. An example is shown in Fig. C.1.

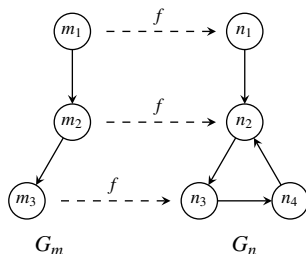


Fig. C.1: An example of two simple directed graphs G_m and G_n . Through the graph homomorphism f we see that G_m is an isomorphic subgraph of G_n . Both graphs are weakly connected, and G_n also has a strongly connected subgraph, consisting of n_2 , n_3 , and n_4 which form a cycle

A simple, undirected graph that is connected, contains no cycles, and has exactly one path between any two nodes is called a *tree*. A set of trees constitutes a *forest*. Nodes in a tree with exactly one neighbor are known as *leaves*. A *directed tree* is a directed graph that would become a tree when ignoring the direction of its edges. A *rooted directed tree* is a directed tree where one node has been assigned the *root* and all edges either point away or towards the root. In a rooted directed tree a *parent* of a node n is the node adjacent to n that is closest to the root. Likewise, if a node n is the parent of another node m , then m is a *child* of n . In this book we assume all trees to be rooted directed trees, and a tree will always be drawn with its root appearing at the top.

A graph $G = (N, E)$ is a *subgraph* of another graph $G' = (N', E')$, also written as $G \subseteq G'$, iff $N \subseteq N'$ and $E \subseteq E'$. Likewise, a tree T is a *subtree* of another tree T' iff $T \subseteq T'$.

A *graph homomorphism* is a mapping between two graphs such that their structure is preserved. More formally, a graph homomorphism f from a graph $G = (N, E)$ to another graph $G' = (N', E')$ is a mapping $f: N \rightarrow N'$ such that $(u, v) \in E$ implies $(f(u), f(v)) \in E'$. If the graph homomorphism f is an injective function, then f is also called a *subgraph isomorphism*. If there exists such a mapping then we say that G is an *isomorphic subgraph* of G' , and an example of this is given in Fig. C.1. If f is a bijection, whose inverse function is also a graph homomorphism, then f is also called a *graph isomorphism*.

Lastly we introduce the notion of *topological sort*, where the nodes of a graph (N, E) are arranged in an ordered list $\langle n_1, \dots, n_n \rangle$ such that $n_i \in N \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$ and for no pair of nodes n_i and n_j , where $i < j$, does there exist an edge $n_j \rightarrow n_i \in E$. In other words, if the edges are added to the list then all edges will go point forward from left to right (hence topological sorts are only defined for DAGs). Several methods exist for achieving a topological sort, see for example Section 22.4 in Cormen et al. [88].

Appendix D

Taxonomy

Technical terms and their exact definitions often differ from one publication to another, thus making it difficult to discuss and compare techniques without a common foundation. In this book, therefore, a taxonomy with a well-defined vocabulary has been established and is used consistently throughout the book. Although this may seem a bit daunting and superfluous at first, most items in the taxonomy are easy to understand. Most importantly, having explicitly defined these terms will minimize confusions that may otherwise occur.

D.1 Common Terms

Several terms are continuously used when discussing the instruction selection techniques. Most of these are obvious and appear in other literature, while others may require a little explanation.

Program. The code under compilation, and therefore the input to the compiler as well as the instruction selector. In the former this refers to the source code, while in the latter it usually refers to the intermediate representation (IR) code, either in its entirety or parts of it (that is, a function, a basic block, or part of a block), depending on the scope of the instruction selector.

Target machine. The hardware on which the program is compiled to run. Most often this refers to the ISA implemented and understood by its processing unit.

Instruction selector. A component or program responsible for implementing and executing the task of instruction selection. If this program is automatically generated from a machine description, the term refers to the generated *result* and not the *generator* itself.

Frontend. A component or program responsible for parsing, validating, and translating the program into equivalent IR code.

Code generation. The task of generating assembly code for a given program by performing instruction selection, instruction scheduling, and register allocation.

Backend. A component or program responsible for implementing and executing the task of code generation.

Compilation time. The time required to compile a given program.

Pattern matching. The problem of detecting when and where it is possible to use a certain instruction for a given program.

Pattern selection. The problem of deciding which instructions to select from the set of candidates found during pattern matching.

Offline cost analysis. The task of shifting the computation of optimization decisions from the phase of program compilation to the phase of compiler generation, thereby reducing compilation time at the cost of increasing the time it takes to generate the compiler.

D.2 Machine Instruction Characteristics

A machine instruction exhibits one or more machine instruction characteristics. For this study, the following characteristics were identified:

Single-output instructions. An instruction that only produces a single observable output value. In this context observable means a value that can be accessed by the program. This includes instructions that perform typical arithmetic operations such as addition and multiplication as well as bit operations, but it also includes instructions that chain multiple computations (for example, “load into register r_d the value at memory location specified in register r_x plus offset specified in register r_y plus an immediate value”). Note that the instruction must produce only this value and nothing else (compare this with the next characteristic).

Multi-output instructions. An instruction that produces multiple observable output values from the same input values. Examples include `divmod` instructions that produce both the quotient as well as the remainder of two terms, but it also includes instructions that set status flags in addition to computing the arithmetic result. A status flag is a bit that signifies additional information about the result (for example, if there was a carry overflow or the result was equal to 0) and is therefore often a side effect of the instruction. In reality, however, these bits are nothing else but additional output values produced by the instruction.

Disjoint-output instructions. An instruction that produces multiple observable output values from disjoint input value sets. This means that if the expression for computing each observable output value formed a graph, then these graphs would be disjoint. In comparison, single-output and multi-output instructions all form a single graph. Disjoint-output instructions typically include SIMD instructions which execute the same operations simultaneously on many input values.

Inter-block instructions. An instruction whose execution essentially spans multiple blocks. Examples of such instructions are saturated arithmetic instructions and hardware-loop instructions, which repeat a fixed sequence of instructions a certain number of times. As seen in this book, no instruction selection design is yet capable of supporting this kind of instruction.

Interdependent instructions. An instruction that enforces additional constraints when appearing in combination with other instructions in the assembly code. An example is the `add` instruction from the TMS320C55x instruction set which cannot be combined with an `rpt k` instruction if the addressing mode is set to a specific mode. This kind of instruction is very difficult to handle by most instruction selection techniques.

The first three characteristics form sets of instructions that are disjoint from one another, but the last two characteristics can be combined as appropriate with any of the other characteristics. For example, the same instruction can exhibit single-output, inter-block, as well as the characteristics of interdependent instructions.

D.3 Scope

Local instruction selection. Selects instructions for a single block at a time.

Global instruction selection. Selects instructions for several blocks or an entire function at a time.

D.4 Principles

All techniques reviewed in this book have been categorized into one of four principles.

Macro expansion. Each IR node in the program is expanded into one or more instructions using macros. This is a simple strategy but generally produces very inefficient assembly code as an instruction often can implement more than one IR node. Consequently modern instruction selectors that apply this approach also incorporate peephole optimization that combines many instructions into single equivalents.

Tree covering. The program and instructions are represented as trees. Each instruction gives rise to a pattern tree which is then matched over the program tree (this is the pattern matching problem). From the matching set of patterns, a subset is selected such that the entire program tree is covered at the lowest cost.

DAG covering. The same idea as tree covering but operates on DAGs instead of trees. Since DAGs are a more general form of trees, DAG covering supersedes tree covering.

Graph covering. The same idea as DAG covering but operates on general graphs instead of DAGs. Since graphs are a more general form of DAGs, graph covering supersedes DAG covering.

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