# Instruction scheduling 

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## Instruction scheduling

Among all the valid permutations of the instructions composing a program - i.e. those which preserve the program's behaviour - some can be more desirable than others. For example, one order might lead to a faster program on some machine, because of architectural constraints.

The aim of instruction scheduling is to find a valid order which optimises some metric, like execution speed.

## Instruction ordering

When a compiler emits the instructions corresponding to a program, it imposes a total order on them.
However, that order is usually not the only valid one, in the sense that it can be changed without modifying the program's behaviour.

For example, if two instructions $i_{1}$ and $i_{2}$ appear sequentially in that order and are independent, then it is possible to swap them.

## Pipeline stalls

Modern, pipelined architectures can usually issue at least one instruction per clock cycle.

However, an instruction can be executed only if the data it needs is ready. Otherwise, the pipeline stalls for one or several cycles.
Stalls can appear because some instructions (e.g. division) require several cycles to complete, or because data has to be fetched from memory.

## Scheduling example

The following example will illustrate how proper scheduling can reduce the time required to execute a piece of code.
We assume the following delays for instructions:

| Instruction(s) | Delay |
| :--- | ---: |
| LOAD, STOR | 3 |
| MUL | 2 |
| ADD | 1 |

## Scheduling example

| Cycle Instruction |  | Cycle Instruction |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 LOAD R1 R29 0 |  | 1 LOAD R1 R29 0 |
| 4 ADD R1 R1 R1 |  | 2 LOAD R2 R29 4 |
| 5 LOAD R2 R29 4 |  | 3 LOAD R3 R29 8 |
| 8 MUL R1 R1 R2 |  | 4 ADD R1 R1 R1 |
| 9 LOAD R2 R29 8 |  | 5 MUL R1 R1 R2 |
| 12 MUL R1 R1 R2 |  | 6 LOAD R2 R29 12 |
| 13 LOAD R2 R29 12 |  | 7 MUL R1 R1 R3 |
| 16 MUL R1 R1 R2 |  | 9 MUL R1 R1 R2 |
| 18 STOR R1 R29 16 |  | 11 STOR R1 R29 16 |

After scheduling (including renaming), the last instruction is issued at cycle 11 instead of 18 !

## Dependencies among instructions

An instruction $i_{2}$ depends on an instruction $i_{1}$ when it is not possible to execute $i_{2}$ before $i_{1}$ without changing the behaviour of the program.
The most common reason for dependency is data-dependency: $i_{2}$ uses a value which is computed by $i_{1}$.

However, as we will see, there are other kinds of dependencies.

## Data dependencies

We distinguish three kinds of dependencies between two instructions $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ :

1. true dependency $-n_{2}$ reads a value written by $n_{1}$ (read after write, RAW),
2. anti-dependency $-n_{2}$ writes a value which is read by $n_{1}$ (write after read, WAR),
3. anti-dependency $-n_{2}$ writes a value which is written by $n_{1}$ (write after write, WAW).

## Anti-dependencies

Anti-dependencies are not real dependencies, in the sense that they do not arise from the flow of data. They are due to a single location - e.g. a register - being used to store different values.

Most of the time, anti-dependencies can be removed by renaming locations - e.g. registers.

## Dependency graph

The dependency graph represents dependencies among instructions.
Its nodes are the instructions to schedule, and there is an edge from $n_{1}$ to $n_{2}$ iff the instruction of $n_{2}$ depends on $n_{1}$.

By topologically sorting the nodes of this graph, it is possible to compute all possible schedules of a set of instructions.

## Computing dependencies

Identifying dependencies among instructions which only access registers is easy.
Instructions which access memory are harder to handle. In general, it is not possible to know whether two such instructions refer to the same memory location. Conservative approximations therefore have to be used.

## Dependency graph example

| Name | Instruction | a |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a | LOAD R1 R29 0 | $\checkmark$ |
| b | ADD R1 R1 R1 | ${ }^{b} \downarrow \iota^{c}$ |
| c | LOAD R2 R29 4 | d |
| d | MUL R1 R1 R2 | $f \ldots$ |
| e | LOAD R2 R29 8 | , |
| $f$ | MUL R1 R1 R2 |  |
| g | LOAD R2 R29 12 |  |
| h | MUL R1 R1 R2 |  |
| i | STOR R1 R29 16 | $\rightarrow$ true dependency <br> $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ antidependency |

## How hard is scheduling?

Optimal instruction scheduling is NP-complete.
As always, this implies that we will use heuristics to find a good - but sometimes not optimal solution to that problem.

## List scheduling

List scheduling is a technique to schedule the instructions of a single basic block.

Its basic idea is to simulate the execution of the instructions, and to try to schedule instructions only when all their operands can be used without stalling the pipeline.

## List scheduling algorithm

The list scheduling algorithm maintains two lists:

- ready is the list of instructions which could be scheduled without stall, ordered by priority,
- active is the list of instructions which are being executed.

At each step, the highest-priority instruction from ready is scheduled, and moved to active, where it stays for a time equal to its delay.

## Prioritising nodes

Instructions are sorted by priority in the ready list. How are those priorities computed?

The most common scheme is to use the length of the longest latency-weighted path from the node to a root of the dependency graph as the priority.
Other schemes exits, though. For example, a node's priority can be the number of its immediate successors.

## List scheduling example



## Scheduling and register allocation

It is hard to decide whether scheduling should be done before or after register allocation.

If register allocation is done first, it can introduce anti-dependencies when reusing registers.

If scheduling is done first, register allocation can introduce spilling code, destroying the schedule.

Solution: schedule first, then allocate registers and schedule once more if spilling was necessary.

## Summary

Instruction scheduling tries to find an order in which instructions should be issued to improve some metric - typically execution time.

List scheduling is an instruction scheduling technique. It works by always scheduling the next instruction that is ready, i.e. whose operands are available. When several candidate instructions exist, a heuristic is used to decide which one to schedule next

