Chapter 8

### Code Generation

#### Outline

- Code Generation Issues
- Target language Issues
- Addresses in Target Code
- Basic Blocks and Flow Graphs

#### Introduction

- The final phase of a compiler is code generator
- It receives an intermediate representation (IR) with supplementary information in symbol table
- Produces a semantically equivalent target program
- Code generator main tasks:
  - Instruction selection
  - Register allocation and assignment
  - Instruction ordering

Front end Code optimizer Code Generator

### Issues in the Design of Code Generator

- The most important criterion is that it produces correct code.
- I. Input to the Code generator
- 2. The target Program
- 3. Instruction Selection
- 4. Register Allocation
- 5. Evaluation order

## I. Input to the code generator

- IR + Symbol table + runtime addresses
- The many choices for the IR:
  - Three-address representations such as quadruples, triples, indirect triples
  - virtual machine representations such as byte codes and stack-machine code
  - Linear representations such as postfix notation
  - Graphical representations such as syntax trees and DAG's.
- We assume Syntactic and semantic errors have been already detected, type checking has taken place, and that type conversion operators have been inserted wherever necessary.

## II. The target program

- Common target architectures are: RISC, CISC and Stack based machines
- We use a very simple RISC-like computer with addition of some CISC-like addressing modes

#### III. Instruction Selection

The code generator must map the IR program into a code sequence that can be executed by the target machine. The complexity of performing this mapping is determined by a factors such as

- the level of the IR
- the nature of the instruction-set architecture
- the desired quality of the generated code.

## Consider an example

a=a+1

```
LD RO, a // RO = a
ADD RO, RO, #1 // RO = RO + 1
ST a, RO // a = RO
```

### IV. Register allocation

- Use of registers
  - Register allocation: selecting the set of variables that will reside in registers at each point in the program
  - Register assignment: selecting specific register that a variable reside in.

#### V. Evaluation Order

Reducing number of loads and stores.

### A simple target machine model

We assume the following kinds of instructions are available:

- Load operations: LD r, x and LD r1, r2
- Store operations: ST x,r
- Computation operations: OP dst, src1, src2
- Unconditional jumps: BR L
- Conditional jumps: Bcond r, L like BLTZ r, L

## Addressing Modes

In instructions, a location can be a variable name x referring to the memory location that is reserved for x (that is, the I-value of x).

#### Addressing modes(contd..)

- A location can also be an indexed address of the form a(r), where a
  is a variable and r is a register.
- The memory location denoted by a(r) is computed by taking the I-value of a and adding to it the value in register r.
- For example, the instruction LD R1, a(R2) has the effect of setting R1 = contents (a + contents (R2)).
- This addressing mode is useful for accessing arrays, where a is the base address of the array (that is, the address of the first element), and r holds the number of bytes past that address we wish to go to reach one of the elements of array a.

## Addressing modes(contd..)

- A memory location can be an integer indexed by a register.
- For ex- ample, LD R1, 100(R2) has the effect of setting R1 = contents(100+contents(R2)) loading into R1 the value in the memory location obtained by adding 100 to the contents of register R2.
- This feature is useful for pointers,

## Addressing modes(contd..)

- We also allow two indirect addressing modes: \*r means the memory location found in the location represented by the contents of register r and \*100(r) means the memory location found in the location obtained by adding 100 to the contents of r.
- For example, LD RI, \* 100 (R2) has the effect of setting RI = contents(contents(l00 + contents(R2))), that is, of loading into RI the value in the memory location stored in the memory location obtained by adding 100 to the contents of register R2.

## b = a [i]

$$a[j] = c$$

LD R1, c //R1 = c

LD R2, j // R2 = j

MUL R2, R2, 8 //R2 = R2 \* 8

ST a(R2), R1 //contents(a+contents(R2))=R1

# **x**=\*p

#### Conditional-jump three-address instruction

#### If x<y goto L

#### costs associated with the addressing modes

LD R0, R1

cost = 1

LD R0, M

cost = 2

• LD R1,\*100(R2)

cost = 2

## Basic blocks and flow graphs

- A **basic block** is a sequence of consecutive statements in which flow of control enters at the beginning and leaves at the end without halt or possibility of branching except at the end.
- The basic blocks become the nodes of a flow graph.
- A graph representation of three-address statements, called a flow graph.
- Nodes in the flow graph represent computations, and the edges represent the flow of control.

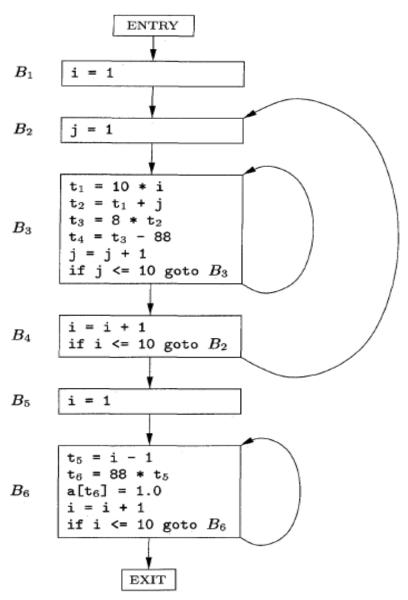
### Rules for finding leaders

- The first three-address instruction in the intermediate code is a leader.
- Any instruction that is the target of a conditional or unconditional jump is a leader.
- Any instruction that immediately follows a conditional or unconditional jump is a leader.

### Consider an example

```
1) i = 1
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)</p>
10) i = i + 1
11) if i <= 10 goto (2)</pre>
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)</pre>
```

### Flow graph based on Basic Blocks



#### Liveness and next-use information

 We wish to determine for each three address statement x=y+z what the next uses of x, y and z are.

#### Algorithm:

- Attach to statement i the information currently found in the symbol table regarding the next use and liveness of x, y, and z.
- In the symbol table, set x to "not live" and "no next use."
- In the symbol table, set y and z to "live" and the next uses of y and z to i.