



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



Issues in the Design of Code Generator

- The most important criterion is that it produces **correct code**.
 1. 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.

$x = y + z$

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

Consider an example

a=a+1

```
LD  R0, a      // R0 = a
ADD R0, R0, #1  // R0 = R0 + 1
ST  a, R0      // a = R0
```


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 $R1 = \text{contents}(a) + \text{contents}(R2)$.
- 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 $R1 = \text{contents}(100 + \text{contents}(R2))$ - 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 R1, * 100 (R2)` has the effect of setting $R1 = \text{contents}(\text{contents}(100 + \text{contents}(R2)))$, that is, of loading into $R1$ the value in the memory location stored in the memory location obtained by adding 100 to the contents of register $R2$.

b = a [i]

LD R1, i **//R1 = i**

MUL R1, R1, #8 //R1 = R1 * 8

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

ST b, R2 //b = R2

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

$x = *p$

LD R1, p

//R1 = p

LD R2, 0(R1)

// R2 = contents(0+contents(R1))

ST x, R2

// x=R2

Conditional-jump three-address instruction

If $x < y$ goto L

LD R1, x // R1 = x

LD R2, y // R2 = y

SUB R1, R1, R2 // R1 = R1 - R2

BLTZ R1, M // if R1 < 0 jump to M

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.

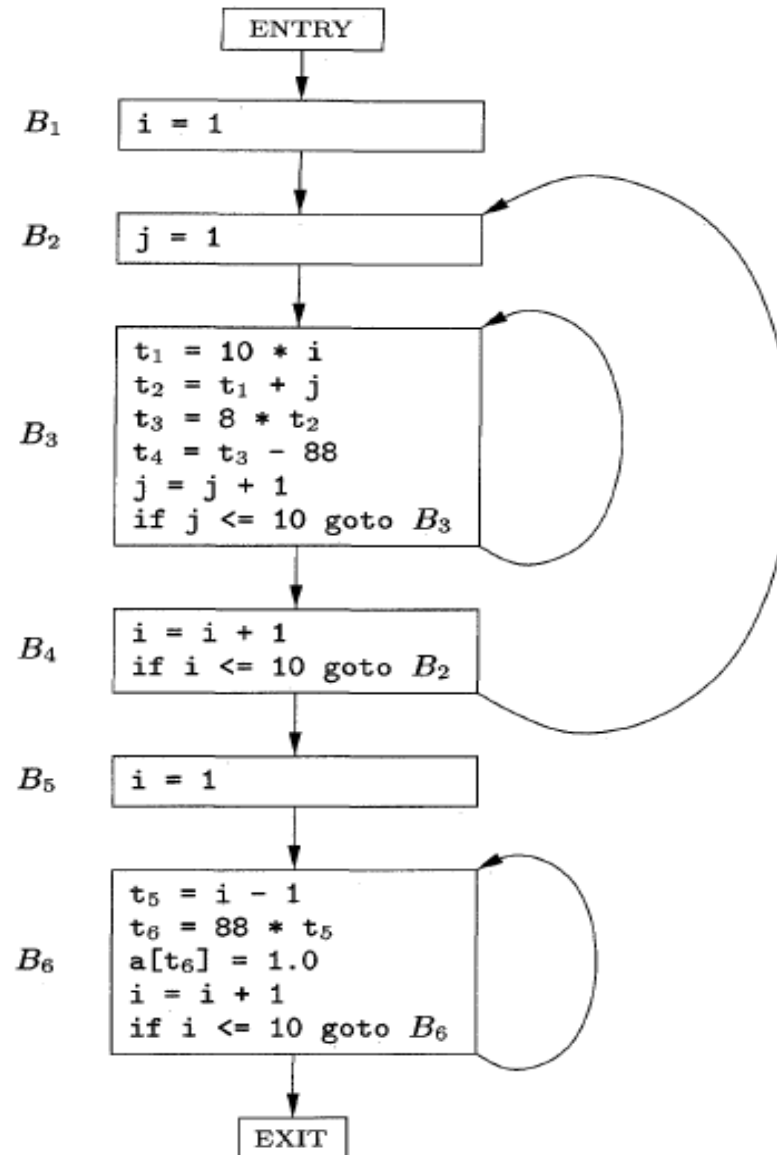
Rules for finding leaders

- 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)
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)
```

Flow graph based on Basic Blocks



Peephole optimization

- Refer TextBook I