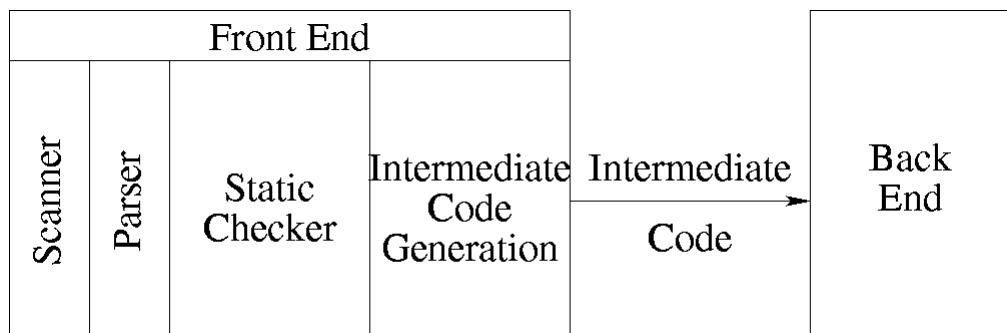


## Concepts Introduced in Chapter 6

- types of intermediate code representations
- translation of
  - declarations
  - arithmetic expressions
  - boolean expressions
  - flow-of-control statements
- backpatching
- type checking

## Intermediate Code Generation Is Performed by the Front End



## Intermediate Code Generation

- Intermediate code generation can be done in a separate pass (e.g. Ada requires complex semantic checks) or can be combined with parsing and static checking in a single pass (e.g. Pascal designed for one-pass compilation).
- Generating intermediate code rather than the target code directly
  - facilitates retargeting
  - allows a machine independent optimization pass to be applied to the intermediate representation

## Types of Intermediate Representations

- syntax tree or DAG
  - see Figure 6.3 for an example DAG
- postfix
  - 0 operands (just an operator)
  - all operands are on a compiler-generated stack
- three-address code
  - general form
    - $x := y \text{ op } z$
    - 3 operands (2 src, 1 dst)
  - quadruples, triples, indirect triples

## Types of Intermediate Representations (cont.)

- two-address code
  - $x := op\ y$
  - where  $x := x\ op\ y$  is implied
- one-address code
  - $op\ x$
  - where  $ac := ac\ op\ x$  is implied and  $ac$  is an accumulator

## Postfix

- Having the operator after operand eliminates the need for parentheses.
$$\begin{array}{ll} (a+b)*c & \Rightarrow ab+c* \\ a*(b+c) & \Rightarrow abc+* \\ (a+b)*(c+d) & \Rightarrow ab+cd+* \end{array}$$
- Evaluate operands by pushing them on a stack.
- Evaluate operators by popping operands, pushing result.

$$A=B*C+D \Rightarrow ABC*D+=$$

## Directed Acyclic Graphs for Expressions

- Directed acyclic graphs (dags) are like a syntax tree, except that a node in the dag can have more than one parent.
- Dags can be used to recognize common subexpressions in an expression. The routines that make a node can check if an identical node has already been constructed.

## Postfix (cont.)

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Stack</u>
push A	A
push B	AB
push C	ABC
*	Ar*
push D	Ar*D
+	Ar+
=	

- Code generation of postfix code is trivial for several types of architectures.

# Quadruples

Quadruples - a record structure with four fields

- operator
- source argument 1
- source argument 2
- Result

Example:  $A=B^*(C+D)$

	Op	arg1	arg2	result
1. $T1 \leftarrow B$	neg	B	-	T1
2. $T2 \leftarrow C+D$	int add	C	D	T2
3. $A \leftarrow T1*T2$	int mul	T1	T2	A

# Quadruples (cont.)

- Often used in compilers that perform global optimization on intermediate code.
- Easy to rearrange code since result names are explicit.

## Three Address Stmts Used in the Text

- $x := y \text{ op } z$  # binary operation
- $x := \text{op } y$  # unary operation
- $x := y$  # copy or move
- goto L # unconditional jump
- if  $x \text{ relop } y$  goto L # conditional jump
- param x # pass argument
- call p,n # call procedure p with n args
- return y # return (value is optional)
- $x := y[i], x[i] := y$  # indexed assignments
- $x := \&y$  # address assignment
- $x := *y, *x = y$  # pointer assignments

## Triples

- Triples - like quadruples, but implicit results and temporary values

<u><math>A=-B^*(C+D)</math></u>	<u><math>A[i]=B</math></u>	<u><math>A=B[i]</math></u>
0. negi B	0. [ ]= A i	0. =[ ] B i
1. +i C D	1. =i (0) B	1. =i A (0)
2. *i (0) (1)		
3. =i A (2)		

## Triples (cont.)

- Triples avoid symbol table entries for temporaries, but complicate rearrangement of code.
- Indirect triples allow rearrangement of code since they reference a pointer to a triple instead.

## Type Checking

- Static and dynamic checking
- Type systems
- Coercion, overloading, and polymorphism
- Checking equivalence of types

## Static Checking

### 1. Type Checks

Ex: `int a, c[10], d;  
 a = c + d;`

### 2. Flow-of-control Checks

Ex: `main {  
 int i;  
 i++;  
 break;  
}`

## Static Checking (cont.)

### 3. Uniqueness Checks

Ex: `main() {  
 int i, j;  
 float a, i;  
 ...`

### 4. Name-related Checks

Ex: `LOOPA:  
 LOOP  
 EXIT WHEN I =N;  
 I = I + 1;  
 TERM := TERM / REAL ( I );  
 END LOOP LOOPB;`

## Basic Terms

- Basic types - types that are predefined or known by the compiler
  - char, int, float, void in C
- Constructed types - types that one declares
  - arrays, records, pointers, classes
- Type expression - the type associated with a language construct
- Type system - a collection of rules for assigning type expressions to various parts of a program

## Why is Static Checking Preferable to Dynamic Checking?

- There is no guarantee that the dynamic check will be tested before the application is distributed.
- The cost of a static check is at compile time, where the cost of a dynamic check may occur everytime the associated language construct is executed.

## Static and Dynamic Type Checking

- Static type checking is performed by the compiler.
- Dynamic type checking is performed when the target program is executing.
- Some checks can only be performed dynamically:

```
var i : 0..255;  
...  
i := i+1;
```

## Grammar for a Simple Language

P → D ; E  
D → D ; D | id : T  
T → char | integer | array [num] of T | ↑T  
E → literal | num | id | E mod E | E[E] | E↑

# Example of a Simple Type Checker

## Production      Semantic Rule

$P \rightarrow D; E$	
$D \rightarrow D; D$	
$D \rightarrow id : T$	{ addtype(id.entry, T.type); }
$T \rightarrow char$	{ T.type = char; }
$T \rightarrow integer$	{ T.type = integer; }
$T \rightarrow \uparrow T_1$	{ T.type = pointer(T <sub>1</sub> .type); }
$T \rightarrow array[num]of T_1$	{ T.type = array(num.val, T <sub>1</sub> .type); }
$E \rightarrow literal$	{ E.type = char; }
$E \rightarrow num$	{ E.type = integer; }

# Example of a Simple Type Checker (cont.)

## Production      Semantic Rule

$E \rightarrow id$	{ E.type = lookup(id.entry); }
$E \rightarrow E_1 \ mod \ E_2$	{ E.type = E <sub>1</sub> .type == integer && E <sub>2</sub> .type == integer ? integer : type_error(); }
$E \rightarrow E_1[E_2]$	{ E.type = E <sub>2</sub> .type == integer && isarray(E <sub>1</sub> .type, &t) ? t : type_error(); }
$E \rightarrow E_1^\uparrow$	{ E.type = ispointer(E <sub>1</sub> .type,&t) ? t : type_error(); }

## Equivalence of Type Expressions

- Name equivalence - views each type name as a distinct type
- Structural equivalence - names are replaced by the type expressions they define

Ex: type link =  $\uparrow$ cell;  
var next : link;  
last : link;  
p :  $\uparrow$ cell;  
q, r :  $\uparrow$ cell;

## Equivalence of Type Expressions (cont.)

### Variable      Type Expression

next	link
last	link
p	pointer (cell)
q	pointer (cell)
r	pointer (cell)

structural equivalence - all are equivalent

name equivalence - next == last, p == q == r,  
but p != next

# Using Different Types

- Coercion - an implicit type conversion
- Overloading - a function or operator can represent different operations in different contexts
- Polymorphism - the ability for a language construct to be executed with arguments of different types

## Overloading in C++

```
void swap(int &x, int &y);
void swap(double &x, double &y);

matrix operator*(matrix &r, matrix &s);
matrix operator*(vector &r, vector &s);
```

## Coercions

- In C or C++, some type conversions can be implicit.
  - assignments
  - operands to arithmetic and logical operators
  - parameter passing
  - return values

## Polymorphism through Ada Generics

```
generic type ELEM is private;
procedure EXCHANGE(U, V: in out ELEM);

procedure EXCHANGE(U, V: in out ELEM) is
    T: ELEM;
begin
    T := U;  U := V;  V := T;
end EXCHANGE;

procedure SWAP is new EXCHANGE(INTEGER);
```

## Boolean Expressions

- Boolean expressions are used in flow of control statements and for computing logical values.
- In C and most other languages, boolean operators `||`, `&&`, and `!` are translated into code that uses transfers of control.

$$B \rightarrow B \mid\mid B \mid B \&\& B \mid !B \mid (B) \mid E \text{ rel } E \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false}$$

## Flow of Control Statements

- Consider the translation of boolean expressions in the context of flow of control statements.

$$S \rightarrow \mathbf{if} ( B ) S_1$$
$$S \rightarrow \mathbf{if} ( B ) S_1 \mathbf{else} S_2$$
$$S \rightarrow \mathbf{while} ( B ) S_1$$

## Example of Short-Circuit Code

```
if (x < 100 || x > 200 && x != y) x = 0;
```

can translate into:

```
if x < 100 goto L2
ifFalse x > 200 goto L1
ifFalse x != y goto L1
```

L2: x = 0

L1:

## Backpatching

- Allows code for boolean expressions and flow-of-control statements to be generated in a single pass.
- The targets of jumps will be filled in when the correct label is known.

# Backpatching an Ada While Loop

- Example

```
while a < b loop
    a := a + cost;
end loop;
```

- `loop_stmt : WHILE m cexpr LOOP m seq_of_stmts n END LOOP m ';' { dowhile ($2, $3, $5, $7, $10); }`  
;

# Backpatching an Ada If Statement

- Examples:

```
if a < b then      if a < b then      if a < b then
    a := a + 1;    a := a + 1;    a := a + 1;
end if;           else                   elsif a < c then
                    a := a + 2;    a := a + 2;
                    end if;     ...
                    ...          end if;
```

# Back Patching an Ada While Loop (cont.)

```
loop_stmt : WHILE m cexpr LOOP m seq_of_stmts n END LOOP m ';' { dowhile ($2, $3, $5, $7, $10); }

;

void dowhile (int m1, struct sem_rec *e, int m2,
              struct sem_rec *n1, int m3) {
    backpatch(e->back.s_true, m2);
    backpatch(e->s_false, m3);
    backpatch(n1, m1);
}
```

# Backpatching an Ada If Statement (cont.)

```
if_stmt      : IF cexpr THEN m seq_of_stmts n elsif_list0
                else_option END IF m ';' { doif($2, $4, $6, $7, $9, $11); }

;
elsif_list0:   {$$ = (struct sem_rec *) NULL; }
               | elsif_list0 ELSIF m cexpr THEN m seq_of_stmts n
                 {$$ = doelsif($1, $3, $4, $6, $8); }

;
else_option:  {$$ = (struct sem_rec *) NULL; }
               | ELSE m seq_of_stmts
                 {$$ = $2; }

;
```

```

if_stmt : IF cexpr THEN m seq_of_stmts n elsif_list0
        else_option END IF m
        { doif($2, $4, $6, $7, $8, $11); }

void doif(struct sem_rec *e, int m1, struct sem_rec *n1,
          struct sem_rec *elsif, int elsopt, int m2) {
    backpatch(e->back.s_true, m1);
    backpatch(n1, m2);
    if (elsif != NULL) {
        backpatch(e->s_false, elsif->s_place);
        backpatch(elsif->back.s_link, m2);
        if (elsopt != 0)
            backpatch(elsif->s_false, elsopt);
        else
            backpatch(elsif->s_false, m2);
    }
    else if (elsopt != 0)
        backpatch(e->s_false, elsopt);
    else
        backpatch(e->s_false, m2);
}

```

## Backpatching an Ada If Statement (cont.)

```

elsif_list0 :      { $$ = (struct sem_rec *) NULL; }
                   | elsif_list0 ELSIF m cexpr THEN m seq_of_stmts n
                           { $$ = doelsif($1, $3, $4, $6, $8); }
                           ;
struct sem_rec *doelsif(struct sem_rec *elsif, int m1,
                       struct sem_rec *e, int m2,
                       struct sem_rec *n1) {
    backpatch(e->back.s_true, m2);
    if (elsif != NULL) {
        backpatch(elsif->s_false, m1);
        return node(elsif->s_place, 0,
                    merge(n1, elsif->back.s_link), e->s_false);
    }
    else
        return node(m1, 0, n1, e->s_false);
}

```

## Translating Record Declarations

Example:

```

struct foo { int x; char y; double z; };

type : CHAR           { $$ = node(0, T_CHAR, 1, 0, 0); }
      | DOUBLE         { $$ = node(0, T_DOUBLE, 8, 0, 0); }
      | INT            { $$ = node(0, T_INT, 4, 0, 0); }
      | STRUCT '{' fields '}' { $$ = node(0, T_STRUCT,
                                             $3->width, 0, 0); }
;
fields : field ';'     { $$ = addfield($1, 0); }
        | fields field ';' { $$ = addfield($2, $1); }
;
field : type ID        { $$ = makefield($2,$1); }
       | field '[' CON ']' { $1->width = $1->width*$3;
                               $$ = $1; }
;
```

## Translating Record Declarations (cont.)

```

fields: field ';'      { $$ = addfield($1, 0); }
        | fields field ';' { $$ = addfield($2, $1); }
;
struct sem_rec *addfield(struct id_entry *field,
                         struct sem_rec *fields) {
    if (fields != NULL) {
        field->s_offset = fields->width;
        return node(0, 0, field->s_width+fields->width, 0, 0);
    }
    else {
        field->s_offset = 0;
        return node(0, 0, field->s_width, 0, 0);
    }
}

```

## Translating Record Declarations (cont.)

```
field : type ID           {$$ = makefield($2,$1);}
| field '[' CON ']' {$$ = $1;
                     $$ = $1;
                     }

struct id_entry *makefield(char *id, struct sem_rec *type) {
    struct id_entry *p;

    if ((p = lookup(id, 0)) != NULL)
        fprintf(stderr, "duplicate field name\n");
    else {
        p = install(id, 0);
        p->s_width = type->width;
        p->attributes = field_descriptor;
    }
    return (p);
}
```

## Translating Large Switch Statements

```
switch (E) {
    case 1:      S1
    case 2:      S2
    ...
    case 1000:   S1000
    default:    S1001
}
```

## Translating Switch Statements

```
switch (E) {
    case V1:    S1
    case V2:    S2
    ...
    case Vn-1: Sn-1
    default:   Sn
}
```

## Translating Large Switch Statements (cont.)

```
goto test
L1:  code for S1
L2:  code for S2
...
L1000: code for S1000
LD:   code for S1001
      goto next
test: check if expr is in range
      if not goto LD
      offset := (expr - lowest_case_value) << 2;
      t := m[jump_table_base + offset];
      goto t;
next:
```

## Addressing One Dimensional Arrays

- Assume  $w$  is the width of each array element in array  $A[]$  and  $low$  is the first index value.
- The location of the  $i$ th element in  $A$ .

$$\text{base} + (i - \text{low}) * w$$

- Example:

```
INTEGER ARRAY A[5:52];
```

...

```
N = A[I];
```

-  $\text{low}=5$ ,  $\text{base}=\text{addr}(A[5])$ ,  $\text{width}=4$

$$\text{address}(A[I]) = \text{addr}(A[5]) + (I-5) * 4$$

## Addressing One Dimensional Arrays Efficiently

- Can rewrite as:

$$i * w + \text{base} - \text{low} * w$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{address}(A[I]) &= I * 4 + \text{addr}(A[5]) - 5 * 4 \\ &= I * 4 + \text{addr}(A[5]) - 20\end{aligned}$$

## Addressing Two Dimensional Arrays

- Assume row-major order,  $w$  is the width of each element, and  $n_2$  is the number of values  $i_2$  can take.

$$\text{address} = \text{base} + ((i_1 - \text{low}_1) * n_2 + i_2 - \text{low}_2) * w$$

- Example in Pascal:

```
var a : array[3..10, 4..8] of real;  
addr(a[i][j]) = addr(a[3][4]) + ((i-3)*5+j-4)*8
```

- Can rewrite as

$$\begin{aligned}\text{address} &= ((i_1 * n_2) + i_2) * w + (\text{base} - ((\text{low}_1 * n_2) + \text{low}_2) * w) \\ \text{addr}(a[i][j]) &= ((i * 5) + j) * 8 + \text{addr}(a[3][4]) - ((3 * 5) + 4) * 8 \\ &= ((i * 5) + j) * 8 + \text{addr}(a[3][4]) - 152\end{aligned}$$

## Addressing C Arrays

- Lower bound of each dimension of a C array is zero.

- 1 dimensional

$$\text{base} + i * w$$

- 2 dimensional

$$\text{base} + (i_1 * n_2 + i_2) * w$$

- 3 dimensional

$$\text{base} + ((i_1 * n_2 + i_2) * n_3 + i_3) * w$$