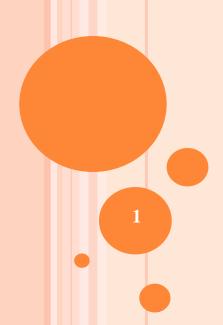
INTERMEDIATE CODE GENERATION 4THPHASE OF COMPILER CONSTRUCTION



SECTION 5.1: INTERMEDIATE CODE GENERATION



INTERMEDIATE CODE GENERATION

Intermediate codes are machine independent codes, but they are close to machine instructions.

• The given program in a source language is converted to an equivalent program in an intermediate language by the intermediate code generator.

Benefits of using a machine-independent intermediate form are:

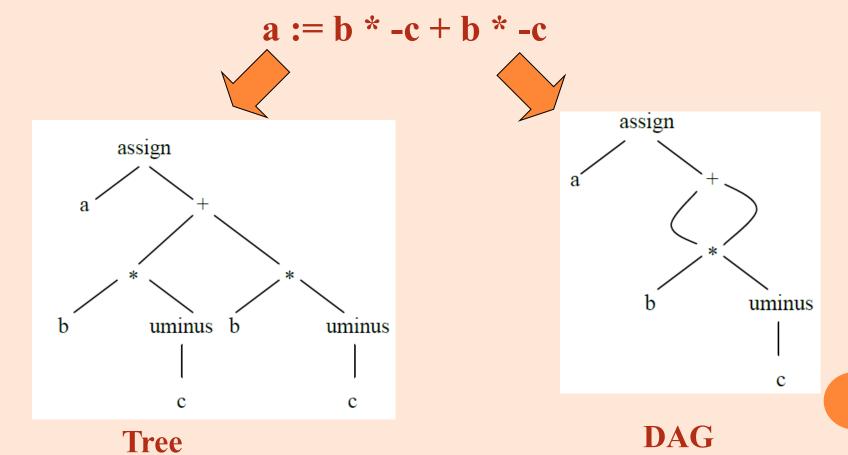
- Retargeting is facilitated. That is, a compiler for a different machine can be created by attaching a back end for the new machine to an existing front end.
- A machine-independent code optimizer can be applied to the intermediate representation.

Three ways of intermediate representation:

- Graphical representations(syntax trees)
- Postfix notation (operations on values stored on operand stack; similar to JVM bytecode)
- Three-address code (triples or Quadruples)

ABSTRACT SYNTAX TREE

• A syntax tree depicts the natural hierarchical structure of a source program. A DAG (Directed Acyclic Graph) gives the same information but in a more compact way because common subexpressions are identified.



ABSTRACT SYNTAX TREE

- ASTs don't show the whole syntactic clutter, but represent the parsed string in a structured way, discarding all information that may be important for parsing the string, but isn't needed for analyzing it.
- Abstract syntax trees, or simply *syntax trees*, differ from parse trees because superficial distinctions of form, unimportant for translation, do not appear in syntax trees.

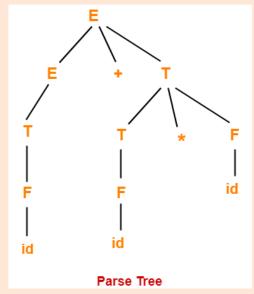
For the Grammar

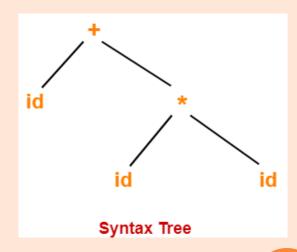
$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$

$$T \rightarrow T \times F \mid F$$

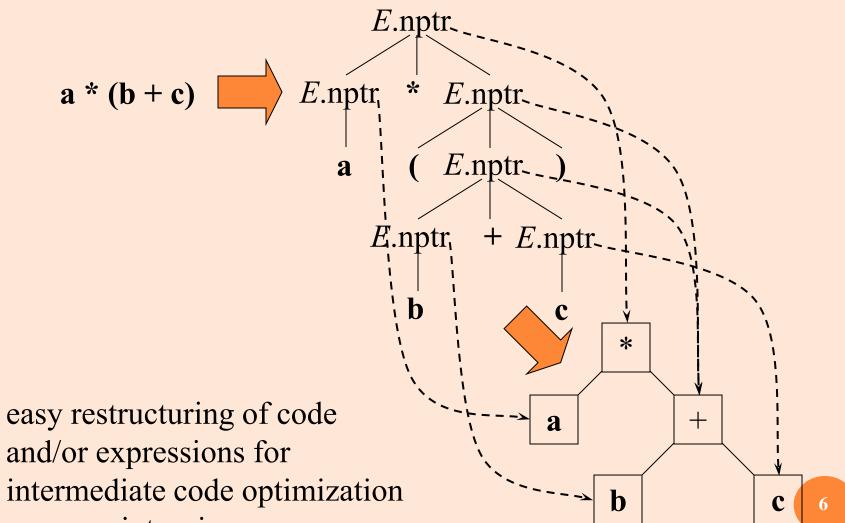
$$F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$$

Parse the string 'id + id x id'





ABSTRACT SYNTAX TREES



Cons: memory intensive

Pro:

POSTFIX NOTATION

$$a := b * -c + b * -c$$

a b c uminus * b c uminus * + assign

Postfix notation represents operations on a stack

Pro: easy to generate

Cons: stack operations are more

difficult to optimize

```
iload 2 // push b
iload 3 // push c
ineg // uminus
imul // *
iload 2 // push b
iload 3 // push c
ineg // uminus
imul // *
iadd // +
istore 1 // store a
```

THREE-ADDRESS CODE

Three-address code is a sequence of statements of the general form

$$x := y \text{ op } z$$

where x, y and z are names, constants, or compiler-generated temporaries; op stands for any operator, such as a fixed- or floating-point arithmetic operator, or a logical operator on Boolean valued data. Thus a source language expression like x+y*z might be translated into a sequence

$$t1 := y * z$$

$$t2 := x + t1$$

where t1 and t2 are compiler-generated temporary names.

Advantages of three-address code:

- The unraveling of complicated arithmetic expressions and of nested flow-of-control statements makes three-address code desirable for target code generation and optimization.
- The use of names for the intermediate values computed by a program allows three address code to be easily rearranged unlike postfix notation

THREE-ADDRESS CODE (QUADRUPLES)

$$a := b * -c + b * -c$$

$$t1 := - c$$

$$t2 := b * t1$$

$$t3 := -c$$

$$t4 := b * t3$$

$$t5 := t2 + t4$$

$$a := t5$$

Linearized representation of a syntax tree

$$t1 := - c$$

$$t2 := b * t1$$

$$t5 := t2 + t2$$

$$a := t5$$

Linearized representation of a syntax DAG

COMMON THREE-ADDRESS STATEMENTS

- 1. Assignment statements of the form x := y op z, where op is a binary arithmetic or logical operation.
- 2. Assignment instructions of the form x := op y, where op is a unary operation. Essential unary operations include unary minus, logical negation, shift operators, and conversion operators that, for example, convert a fixed-point number to a floating-point number.
- 3. Copy statements of the form x := y where the value of y is assigned to x.
- 4. The unconditional jump goto L. The three-address statement with label L is the next to be executed.
- 5. Conditional jumps such as if x relop y goto L. This instruction applies a relational operator (<, =, >=, etc.) to x and y, and executes the statement with label L next if x stands in relation relop to y. If not, the three-address statement following if x relop y goto L is executed next, as in the usual sequence.

COMMON THREE-ADDRESS STATEMENTS

6. param x and call p, n for procedure calls and return y, where y representing a returned value is optional. For example,

```
param x1

param x2

...

param xn

call p,n

generated as part of a call of the procedure p(x1, x2, ....,xn).
```

- 7. Indexed assignments of the form x := y[i] and x[i] := y.
- 8. Address and pointer assignments of the form x := &y, x := *y, and *x := y.

THREE-ADDRESS STATEMENTS

Binary Operator: op y, z, result or result := y op z where op is a binary arithmetic or logical operator. This binary operator is applied to y and z, and the result of the operation is stored in result.

Ex: add a,b,c gt a,b,c addr a,b,c addi a,b,c

Unary Operator: op y, result or result := op y
where op is a unary arithmetic or logical operator. This unary operator is applied
to y, and the result of the operation is stored in result.

Ex: uminus a,,c not a,,c inttoreal a,,c

Unconditional Jumps: jmp ,, L or goto L

Jump to the three-address code with the label L, and the execution continues from that statement.

```
Ex: jmp ,,L1 //jump to L1 jmp ,,7 //jump to the statement 7
```

Conditional Jumps: jmprelop y, z, L

or

if y **relop** z goto L

Jump to the three-address code with the label $\[L \]$ if the result of $\[y \]$ relop $\[z \]$ is true, and the execution continues from that statement. If the result is false, the execution continues from the statement following this conditional jump statement.

```
Ex: jmpgt y,z,L1 //jump to L1 if y>z jmpgte y,z,L1 //jump to L1 if y>=z jmpe y,z,L1 //jump to L1 if y==z jmpne y,z,L1 //jump to L1 if y!=z
```

Relational operator can also be a unary operator.

```
jmpnz y,,L1 //jump to L1 if y is not zero
jmpz y,,L1 //jump to L1 if y is zero
jmpt y,,L1 //jump to L1 if y is true
jmpf y,,L1 //jump to L1 if y is false
```

```
Procedure Parameters:
                                  param x_{i,j} or param x_{i,j}
Procedure Calls:
                                  call p,n, or call p,n
  where x is an actual parameter, we invoke the procedure p with n parameters.
  Ex:
                 param x_1,
                 param x_2,
                                  \rightarrow p(x<sub>1</sub>,...,x<sub>n</sub>)
                 param x_n,
                 call p,n,
  f(x+1,y) \rightarrow
                          add x, 1, t1
                         param t1,,
                         param y,,
```

call f, 2,

Indexed Assignments:

move
$$y[i]$$
, x or $x := y[i]$
move x , $y[i]$ or $y[i] := x$

Address and Pointer Assignments:

```
moveaddr y,,x or x := &y movecont y,,x or x := *y
```

SYNTAX-DIRECTED TRANSLATION INTO THREE ADDRESS CODE

- Use attributes
 - E.place: the name that will hold the value of E
 - Identifier will be assumed to already have the place attribute defined.
 - E.code: hold the three address code statements that evaluate E (this is the `translation' attribute).
- Use function *newtemp* that returns a new temporary variable which can be used.
- Use function *gen* to generate a single three address statement given the necessary information (variable names and operations).

SYNTAX-DIRECTED TRANSLATION INTO THREE ADDRESS CODE

```
S \rightarrow id := E
                      S.code = E.code || gen('mov' E.place ',,' id.place)
E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2
                     E.place = newtemp();
                      E.code = E_1.code \parallel E_2.code \parallel gen('add' E_1.place', 'E_2.place', 'E.place')
E \rightarrow E_1 * E_2
                     E.place = newtemp();
                      E.code = E_1.code \parallel E_2.code \parallel gen('mult' E_1.place ', 'E_2.place ', 'E.place')
E \rightarrow -E_1
                                 E.place = newtemp();
                      E.code = E_1.code || gen('uminus' E_1.place ',,' E.place)
                     E.place = E_1.place;
E \rightarrow (E_1)
                      E.code = E_1.code
                      E.place = id.place;
E \rightarrow id
                      E.code = null
```

SYNTAX-DIRECTED TRANSLATION (CONT.)

```
S \rightarrow \text{while E do } S_1
                                      S.begin = newlabel();
                                      S.after = newlabel();
                                      S.code = gen(S.begin ":") \parallel E.code \parallel
                                                   gen('jmpf' E.place ',,' S.after) | S<sub>1</sub>.code |
                                                   gen('jmp' ',,' S.begin)
                                                   gen(S.after ':')
S \rightarrow \text{if E then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2
                                     S.else = newlabel();
                                      S.after = newlabel();
                                      S.code = E.code \parallel
                                                   gen('jmpf' E.place ',,' S.else) | S<sub>1</sub>.code ||
                                                   gen('imp' ',,' S.after) |
                                                   gen(S.else ':") \parallel S<sub>2</sub>.code \parallel
                                                   gen(S.after ':')
```

TRANSLATION SCHEME TO PRODUCE THREE-ADDRESS CODE

```
S \rightarrow id := E { p= lookup(id.name);
                        if (p is not nil) then emit('mov' E.place ',,' p)
                        else error("undefined-variable") }
                     { E.place = newtemp();
E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2
                        emit('add' E<sub>1</sub>.place ',' E<sub>2</sub>.place ',' E.place) }
E \rightarrow E_1 * E_2
                     { E.place = newtemp();
                        emit('mult' E<sub>1</sub>.place ',' E<sub>2</sub>.place ',' E.place) }
                      { E.place = newtemp();
E \rightarrow -E_1
                        emit('uminus' E<sub>1</sub>.place ',,' E.place) }
E \rightarrow (E_1)
                     \{ E.place = E_1.place; \}
E \rightarrow id
                      { p= lookup(id.name);
                        if (p is not nil) then E.place = id.place
                        else error("undefined-variable") }
```

TRANSLATION SCHEME WITH LOCATIONS

```
S \rightarrow id := \{ E.inloc = S.inloc \} E
    { p = lookup(id.name);
      if (p is not nil) then { emit(E.outloc 'mov' E.place ',,' p); S.outloc=E.outloc+1 }
       else { error("undefined-variable"); S.outloc=E.outloc } }
E \rightarrow \{E_1.inloc = E.inloc\} E_1 + \{E_2.inloc = E_1.outloc\} E_2
       { E.place = newtemp(); emit(E<sub>2</sub>.outloc 'add' E<sub>1</sub>.place ', 'E<sub>2</sub>.place ', 'E.place); E.outloc=E<sub>2</sub>.outloc+1 }
E \rightarrow \{E_1.inloc = E.inloc\} E_1 + \{E_2.inloc = E_1.outloc\} E_2
       { E.place = newtemp(); emit(E<sub>2</sub>.outloc 'mult' E<sub>1</sub>.place ', 'E<sub>2</sub>.place ', 'E.place); E.outloc=E<sub>2</sub>.outloc+1 }
E \rightarrow - \{ E_1.inloc = E.inloc \} E_1
      { E.place = newtemp(); emit(E_1.outloc 'uminus' E_1.place ',,' E.place); E.outloc=E_1.outloc+1 }
E \rightarrow (E_1) { E.place = E_1.place; E.outloc=E_1.outloc+1 }
E \rightarrow id { E.outloc = E.inloc; p= lookup(id.name);
           if (p is not nil) then E.place = id.place
           else error("undefined-variable") }
```

BOOLEAN EXPRESSIONS

```
E \rightarrow \{E_1.inloc = E.inloc\} E_1 \text{ and } \{E_2.inloc = E_1.outloc} E_2.inloc = E_1.outloc\} E_2.inloc = E_1.outloc
        { E.place = newtemp(); emit(E_2.outloc 'and' E_1.place ',' E_2.place ',' E_2.place);
    E.outloc=E<sub>2</sub>.outloc+1 }
E \rightarrow \{E_1.inloc = E.inloc\} E_1 \text{ or } \{E_2.inloc = E_1.outloc\} E_2
        { E.place = newtemp(); emit(E_2.outloc 'and' E_1.place ',' E_2.place ',' E_2.place);
    E.outloc=E<sub>2</sub>.outloc+1 }
E \rightarrow not \{ E_1.inloc = E.inloc \} E_1
      { E.place = newtemp(); emit(E<sub>1</sub>.outloc 'not' E<sub>1</sub>.place ',,' E.place); E.outloc=E<sub>1</sub>.outloc+1 }
E \rightarrow \{E_1.inloc = E.inloc\} E_1 relop \{E_2.inloc = E_1.outloc\} E_2
        { E.place = newtemp();
        emit(E<sub>2</sub>.outloc relop.code E<sub>1</sub>.place ',' E<sub>2</sub>.place ',' E.place); E.outloc=E<sub>2</sub>.outloc+1 }
```

TRANSLATION SCHEME(CONT.)

```
S \rightarrow \text{while } \{ \text{ E.inloc} = \text{S.inloc} \} \text{ E do}
     { emit(E.outloc 'jmpf' E.place ',,' 'NOTKNOWN');
       S_1.inloc=E.outloc+1; S_1
     { emit(S<sub>1</sub>.outloc 'jmp' ',,' S.inloc);
       S.outloc=S_1.outloc+1;
       backpatch(E.outloc,S.outloc); }
S \rightarrow if \{ E.inloc = S.inloc \} E then
     { emit(E.outloc 'jmpf' E.place ',,' 'NOTKNOWN');
       S_1.inloc=E.outloc+1; S_1 else
     { emit(S<sub>1</sub>.outloc 'jmp' ',,' 'NOTKNOWN');
       S_2.inloc=S_1.outloc+1;
       backpatch(E.outloc,S<sub>2</sub>.inloc); } S<sub>2</sub>
     { S.outloc=S<sub>2</sub>.outloc;
       backpatch(S<sub>1</sub>.outloc,S.outloc); }
```

THREE ADDRESS CODES - EXAMPLE

```
x:=1;

y:=x+10;

while (x<y) {

x:=x+1;

if (x%2==1) then y:=y+1;

else y:=y-2;

}
```

```
01: mov 1,,x
02: add x, 10, t1
03: mov t1,,y
04: lt x, y, t2
05: jmpf t2,,17
06: add x, 1, t3
07: mov t3,,x
08: mod x, 2, t4
09: eq t4,1,t5
10: jmpf t5,,14
11: add y,1,t6
12: mov t6,,y
13: jmp ,,16
14: sub y, 2, t7
15: mov t7,,y
16: jmp ,,4
17:
```

IMPLEMENTATION OF THREE-ADDRESS STATEMENTS: QUADS

A quadruple is a record structure with four fields, which are, op, arg1, arg2 and result.

- The op field contains an internal code for the operator. The three-address statement x
 = y op z is represented by placing y in arg1, z in arg2 and x in result (Res).
- The contents of fields arg1, arg2 and result are normally pointers to the symbol-table entries for the names represented by these fields. Temporary names must be entered into the symbol table as they are created.

a:=((-c*b))+(-	-c *	b)
u .—		, , (

#	Ор	Arg1	Arg2	Res
(0)	uminus	С		t1
(1)	*	b	t1	t2
(2)	uminus	С		t3
(3)	*	b	t3	t4
(4)	+	t2	t4	t5
(5)	:=	t5		a

Quads (quadruples)

Pro: easy to rearrange code for global optimization

Cons: lots of temporaries

IMPLEMENTATION OF THREE-ADDRESS STATEMENTS: TRIPLES

$$a := (-c*b) + (-c*b)$$

Three-address statements can be represented by records with only three fields: op, arg1 and arg2.

- The fields arg1 and arg2, for the arguments of op, are either pointers to the symbol table or pointers into the triple structure (for temporary values).
- Since three fields are used, this intermediate code format is known as triples

#	Ор	Arg1	Arg2
(0)	uminus	С	
(1)	*	b	(0)
(2)	uminus	С	
(3)	*	b	(2)
(4)	+	(1)	(3)
(5)	:=	a	(4)

Triples

Pro: temporaries are implicit

Cons: difficult to rearrange code

INDIRECT TRIPLES

Listing pointers to triples, rather than listing the triples themselves is called indirect triples.

$$a := (-c*b) + (-c*b)$$

#	Stmt		#	Ор	Arg1	Arg2
(0)	(14)		(14)	uminus	c	
(1)	(15)		(15)	*	b	(14)
(2)	(16)		(16)	uminus	c	
(3)	(17)	→	(17)	*	b	(16)
(4)	(18)	─	(18)	+	(15)	(17)
(5)	(19)	\longrightarrow	(19)	:=	a	(18)

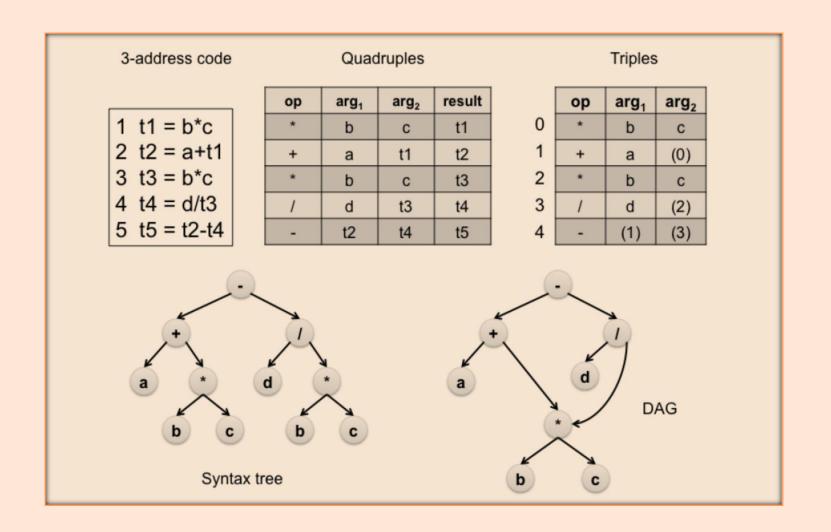
Program

Triple container

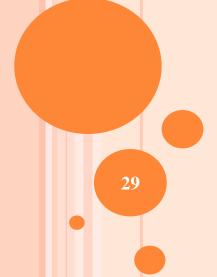
Pro: temporaries are implicit & easier to rearrange code

EXAMPLE

Three address code for a+b*c -d/(b*c)



SECTION 5.2: TYPE CHECKING



Type Checking

- A compiler has to do both syntactic and semantic check of the source program
- Semantic Checks can be of two types:
 - Static done during compilation
 - Dynamic done during run-time
- Type checking is one of these static checking operations.
 - we may not do all type checking at compile-time.
 - Some systems also use dynamic type checking too.
- A *type system* is a collection of rules for assigning type expressions to the parts of a program.
- A *type checker* implements a type system.
- A *sound* type system eliminates run-time type checking for type errors because it allow us to determine statically that these errors cannot occur when the target program runs.
- A programming language is *strongly-typed*, if every program its compiler accepts will execute without type errors.
 - In practice, some of type checking operations are done at run-time (so, most of the programming languages are not strongly-typed).
 - Ex: int x[100]; ... x[i] \rightarrow most of the compilers cannot guarantee that i will be between 0 and 99

Type Expression

- The type of a language construct is denoted by a *type expression*.
- A type expression can be:
 - A basic type
 - o a primitive data type such as integer, real, char, boolean, ...
 - *type-error* to signal a type error
 - *void* : no type
 - A type name
 - a name can be used to denote a type expression.
 - A type constructor applies to other type expressions.
 - **arrays**: If T is a type expression, then array(I,T) is a type expression where I denotes index range. Ex: array(0..99,int)
 - **products**: If T_1 and T_2 are type expressions, then their cartesian product $T_1 x T_2$ is a type expression. Ex: int x int
 - **pointers**: If T is a type expression, then *pointer(T)* is a type expression. Ex: pointer(int)
 - **functions**: We may treat functions in a programming language as mapping from a domain type D to a range type R. So, the type of a function can be denoted by the type expression $D \rightarrow R$ where D are R type expressions. Ex: int \rightarrow int represents the type of a function which takes an int value as parameter, and its return type is also int.

A SIMPLE TYPE CHECKING SYSTEM

```
P \rightarrow D;E
D \rightarrow D;D
D \rightarrow id:T { addtype(id.entry, T.type) }
T \rightarrow char \{ T.type=char \}
                                                            The prefix operator \uparrow builds a pointer type.
                                                            Eg. ↑ Integer leads to the type expression
T \rightarrow int  { T.type=int }
                                                            pointer(integer)
T \rightarrow real \{ T.type=real \}
T \rightarrow \uparrow T_1  { T.type=pointer(T<sub>1</sub>.type) }
T \rightarrow array[intnum] \text{ of } T_1 \{ T.type=array(1..intnum.val, T_1.type) \}
```

Type Checking of Expressions

```
E \rightarrow id
                               { E.type=lookup(id.entry) }
          *Lookup(E) is used to fetch the type saved in the symbol table entry pointed to
   by e
E \rightarrow literal  { E.type=char }
E \rightarrow num_1 \quad \{ E.type=int \}
E \rightarrow num_2 { E.type=real }
          *Constants represented by the tokens literal, num<sub>1</sub> and num<sub>2</sub> have type char, int
   and real.
```

```
E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2 \quad \{ \text{ if } (E_1. \text{type=int and } E_2. \text{type=int}) \text{ then E.type=int} \\ \text{else if } (E_1. \text{type=int and } E_2. \text{type=real}) \text{ then E.type=real} \\ \text{else if } (E_1. \text{type=real and } E_2. \text{type=int}) \text{ then E.type=real} \\ \text{else if } (E_1. \text{type=real and } E_2. \text{type=real}) \text{ then E.type=real} \\ \text{else E.type=type-error} \}
```

Type Checking of Expressions

$$E \rightarrow E_1$$
 [E₂] { if (E₂.type=int and E₁.type=array(s,t)) then E.type=t else E.type=type-error }

*The index expression E_2 , the index expression E_2 must have type integer. The result is the element type t obtained from the type array(s,t) of E_1 .

$$E \rightarrow E_1 \uparrow$$
 { if $(E_1.type=pointer(t))$ then E.type=t else E.type=type-error }

*The postfix operator yields the object pointed to by its operand. The type of E is the type t of the object pointed to by the pointer E.

Type Checking of Statements

Assignment Statement

```
S \rightarrow id = E { if (id.type=E.type then S.type=void else S.type=type-error }
```

Conditional Statement

```
S \rightarrow \text{if E then } S_1 { if (E.type=boolean then S.type=S_1.type else S.type=type-error }
```

While Statement

```
S \rightarrow while E do S_1 { if (E.type=boolean then S.type=S_1.type else S.type=type-error }
```

Type Checking of Functions

$$E \rightarrow E_1$$
 (E_2) { if (E_2 .type=s and E_1 .type=s \rightarrow t) then E.type=t else E.type=type-error }

Ex: int f(double x, char y) { ... }

f: double x char \rightarrow int argument types return type

STRUCTURAL EQUIVALENCE OF TYPE EXPRESSIONS

- How do we know that two type expressions are equal?
- As long as type expressions are built from basic types (no type names), we may use structural equivalence between two type expressions

Structural Equivalence Algorithm (sequiv):

```
if (s and t are same basic types) then return true else if (s=array(s_1,s_2) and t=array(t_1,t_2)) then return (sequiv(s_1,t_1) and sequiv(s_2,t_2)) else if (s = s_1 x s_2 and t = t_1 x t_2) then return (sequiv(s_1,t_1) and sequiv(s_2,t_2)) else if (s=pointer(s_1) and t=pointer(t_1)) then return (sequiv(s_1,t_1)) else if (s = s_1 \rightarrow s_2 and t = t_1 \rightarrow t_2) then return (sequiv(s_1,t_1) and sequiv(s_2,t_2)) else return false
```

NAMES FOR TYPE EXPRESSIONS

• In some programming languages, we give a name to a type expression, and we use that name as a type expression afterwards.

```
type link = \uparrow cell; p,q,r,s have same types? var p,q : link; var r,s : \uparrow cell
```

- How do we treat type names?
 - Get equivalent type expression for a type name (then use structural equivalence), or
 - Treat a type name as a basic type.

CYCLES IN TYPE EXPRESSIONS

- We cannot use structural equivalence if there are cycles in type expressions.
- We have to treat type names as basic types.
 - → but this means that the type expression link is different than the type expression \cell.