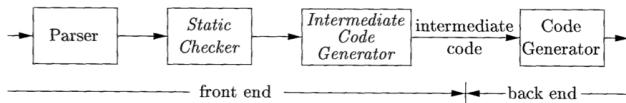


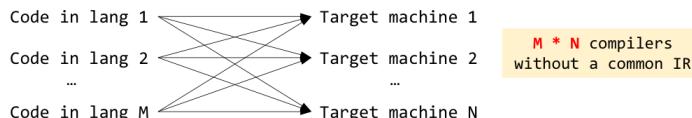
Compiler Front End

- The front end of a compiler **analyzes a source program** and **creates an intermediate representation (IR, 中间表示)**, from which the back end generates target code
 - Details of the source language are confined to the front end, and details of the target machine to the back end

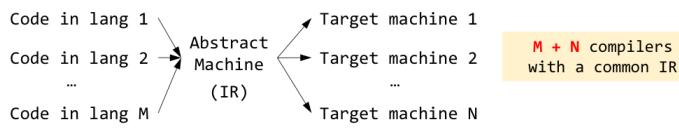


源代码 → 前端 → 中间代码 → 后端 → 机器码

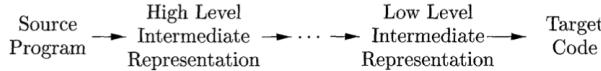
The Benefits of A Common IR



减少编译器数量



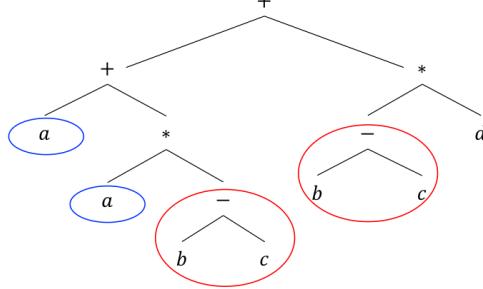
Different Levels of IRs



- A compiler may construct a sequence of IR's
 - High-level IR's** like syntax trees are close to the source language
 - They are suitable for machine-independent tasks like static type checking
 - Low-level IR's** are close to the target machines
 - They are suitable for machine-dependent tasks like register allocation and instruction selection
- Interesting fact:** C is often used as an intermediate form. The first C++ compiler has a front end that generates C and a C compiler as a backend

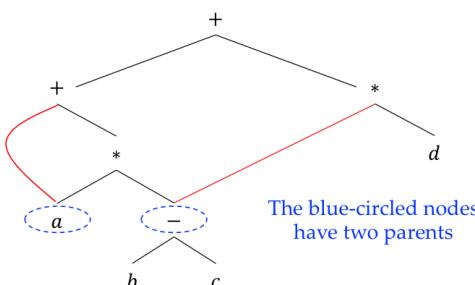
DAG's for Expressions

- In a syntax tree, the tree for a **common subexpression** would be **replicated** as many times as the subexpression appears
 - Example: $a + a * (b - c) + (b - c) * d$



- A **directed acyclic graph (DAG, 有向无环图)** identifies the common subexpressions and represents expressions succinctly

- Example: $a + a * (b - c) + (b - c) * d$



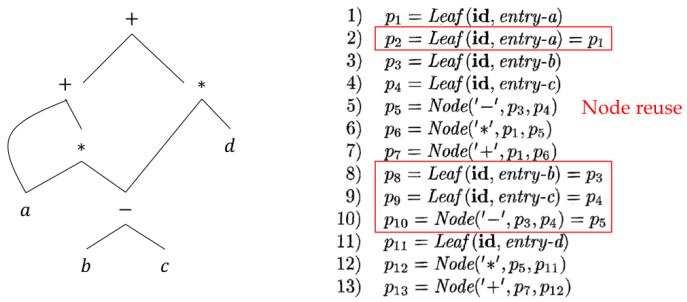
Constructing DAG's

- DAG's can be constructed by the same SDD that constructs syntax trees
- The difference:** When constructing DAG's, a new node is created if and only if there is no existing identical node

PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES
1) $E \rightarrow E_1 + T$	$E.\text{node} = \text{new Node}('+', E_1.\text{node}, T.\text{node})$
2) $E \rightarrow E_1 - T$	$E.\text{node} = \text{new Node}(' - ', E_1.\text{node}, T.\text{node})$
3) $E \rightarrow T$	$E.\text{node} = T.\text{node}$
4) $T \rightarrow (E)$	$T.\text{node} = E.\text{node}$
5) $T \rightarrow \text{id}$	$T.\text{node} = \text{new Leaf}(\text{id}, \text{id}.entry)$
6) $T \rightarrow \text{num}$	$T.\text{node} = \text{new Leaf}(\text{num}, \text{num}.val)$

Special "new":
Reuse existing nodes
when possible

- The construction steps



Three-Address Code (三地址代码)

- In three-address code, there is **at most one operator** on the right side of an instruction
 - Instructions are often in the form $x = y \text{ op } z$
- Operands** (or addresses) can be:
 - Names in the source programs
 - Constants: a compiler must deal with many types of constants
 - Temporary names generated by a compiler

用 SDD 构建语法树的方式构建 DAG
新建节点仅在没有相同节点

最多一个操作符

操作数原则: ① 命名
② 常量
③ 新临时名称

Instructions

- Assignment instructions:**
 - $x = y \text{ op } z$, where op is a binary arithmetic/logical operation
 - $x = \text{op } y$, where op is a unary operation
- Copy instructions:** $x = y$
- Unconditional jump instructions:** $\text{goto } L$, where L is a label of the jump target
- Conditional jump instructions:**
 - $\text{if } x \text{ goto } L$
 - $\text{if } \text{flase } x \text{ goto } L$
 - $\text{if } x \text{ relop } y \text{ goto } L$
- Procedural calls and returns**
 - $\text{param } x_1$
 - ...
 - $\text{param } x_n$
 - $\text{call } p, n$ (procedure call)
 - $y = \text{call } p, n$ (function call)
 - $\text{return } y$
- Indexed copy instructions:** $x = y[i] \quad x[i] = y$
 - Here, $y[i]$ means the value in the location i memory units beyond location y
- Address and pointer assignment instructions:**
 - $x = \&y$ (set the r-value of x to be the l-value of y)
 - $x == *y$ (set the r-value of x to be the content stored at the location pointed to by y ; y is a pointer whose r-value is a location)
 - $*x = y$ (set the r-value of the object pointed to by x to the r-value of y)

A variable has l-value and r-value:

- L-value (location)** refers to the memory location, which identifies an object.
- R-value (content)** refers to data value stored at some address in memory.

左值: 内存地址
右值: 数据值

Example

- Source code: `do i = i + 1; while (a[i] < v);`

```
L: t1 = i + 1
    i = t1
    t2 = i * 8
    t3 = a [ t2 ]
    if t3 < v goto L
```

(a) Symbolic labels.

```
100: t1 = i + 1
    101: i = t1
    102: t2 = i * 8
    103: t3 = a [ t2 ]
    104: if t3 < v goto 100
```

(b) Position numbers.

Assuming each array element takes 8 units of space

Representation of Instructions

- In a compiler, three-address instructions can be implemented as **objects/records** with fields for the operator and the operands
- Three typical representations:
 - Quadruples** (四元式表示方法)
 - Triples** (三元式表示方法)
 - Indirect triples** (间接三元式表示方法)

Quadruples

- A **quadruple** has four fields
 - General form: $op\ arg_1\ arg_2\ result$
 - op contains an **internal code** for the operator
 - $arg_1, arg_2, result$ are **addresses** (operands)
 - Example: $x = y + z \rightarrow +\ y\ z\ x$
- Some exceptions:
 - Unary operators** like $x = minus y$ or $x = y$ do not use arg_2
 - param operators** use neither arg_2 nor $result$
 - Conditional/unconditional jumps** put the target label in $result$

Quadruples Example

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

```
t1 = minus c
t2 = b * t1
t3 = minus c
t4 = b * t3
t5 = t2 + t4
a = t5
```

(a) Three-address code

	op	arg ₁	arg ₂	result
0	minus	c		t ₁
1	*	b	t ₁	t ₂
2	minus	c		t ₃
3	*	b	t ₃	t ₄
4	+	t ₂	t ₄	t ₅
5	=	t ₅		a
		...		

(b) Quadruples

The result field is used primarily for temporary names
Temporary names waste space (symbol table entries)

result 主要存储临时名，会占用多余空间。

Triples

- A **triplet** has only three fields: *op*, *arg₁*, *arg₂*
- We refer to the result of an operation *x op y* by its position without generating temporary names (an optimization over quadruples)

```
t1 = minus c
t2 = b * t1
t3 = minus c
t4 = b * t3
t5 = t2 + t4
a = t5
```

Three-address code

	<i>op</i>	<i>arg₁</i>	<i>arg₂</i>	<i>result</i>
0	minus	c		t ₁
1	*	b	t ₁	t ₂
2	minus	c		t ₃
3	*	b	t ₃	t ₄
4	+	t ₂	t ₄	t ₅
5	=	t ₅		a
				...

Quadruples

	<i>op</i>	<i>arg₁</i>	<i>arg₂</i>
0	minus	c	
1	*	b	(0)
2	minus	c	
3	*	b	(2)
4	+	(1)	(3)
5	=	a	(4)
			...

Triples

result 换为位置

Quadruples vs. Triples

- In optimizing compilers, instructions are often moved around

	<i>op</i>	<i>arg₁</i>	<i>arg₂</i>	<i>result</i>
0	minus	c		t ₁
1	*	b	t ₁	t ₂
2	minus	c		t ₃
3	*	b	t ₃	t ₄
4	+	t ₂	t ₄	t ₅
5	=	t ₅		a
				...

Quadruples' advantage

The instructions that use t₁ and t₃ are not affected

	<i>op</i>	<i>arg₁</i>	<i>arg₂</i>	<i>result</i>
0	minus	c		t ₁
1	*	b	(0)	
2	minus	c		t ₃
3	*	b	(2)	
4	+	(1)	(3)	
5	=	a	(4)	
				...

Swap 1 and 2

	<i>op</i>	<i>arg₁</i>	<i>arg₂</i>
0	minus	c	
1	*	b	(0)
2	minus	c	
3	*	b	(2)
4	+	(1)	(3)
5	=	a	(4)
			...

Are they still correct after swapping?

Triples' problem

The instructions now refer to wrong results; The positions need to be updated.

Indirect Triples (间接三元式)

- Indirect triples consist of a list of **pointers** to triples

<i>instruction</i>	Points to	<i>op</i>	<i>arg₁</i>	<i>arg₂</i>
35 (0)	→	minus	c	
36 (1)	→	*	b	(0)
37 (2)	→	minus	c	
38 (3)	→	*	b	(2)
39 (4)	→	+	(1)	(3)
40 (5)	→	=	a	(4)
				...

- An optimization can move an instruction by reordering the instruction list

将位置移出，改为指针

<i>instruction</i>	Points to	<i>op</i>	<i>arg₁</i>	<i>arg₂</i>
35 (0)	→	minus	c	
36 (2)	→	*	b	(0)
37 (1)	→	minus	c	
38 (3)	→	*	b	(2)
39 (4)	→	+	(1)	(3)
40 (5)	→	=	a	(4)
				...

Swapping pointers!

The triples are not affected.

Static Single Assignment Form

- Static single-assignment form (SSA, 静态单赋值形式) is an IR that facilitates certain code optimizations
- In SSA, each name receives a single assignment

$p = a + b$	$p_1 = a + b$
$q = p - c$	$q_1 = p_1 - c$
$p = q * d$	$p_2 = q_1 * d$
$p = e - p$	$p_3 = e - p_2$
$q = p + q$	$q_2 = p_3 + q_1$

(a) Three-address code. (b) Static single-assignment form.

- The same variable may be defined in two control-flow paths

```
if ( flag ) x = -1; else x = 1;  
y = x * a;  
           ↓  
           x1  
           ↓  
           x2
```

Which name should we use in $y = x * a$?

- SSA uses a notational convention called ϕ -function to combine the two definitions of x

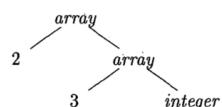
```
if ( flag ) x1 = -1; else x2 = 1;  
x3 =  $\phi(x_1, x_2)$ ; // x1 if control flow passes through the true path; otherwise x2  
y = x3 * a;
```

Types and Type Checking

- Data type or simply type tells a compiler or interpreter how the programmers intend to use the data
- The usefulness of type information
 - Find faults in the source code
 - Determine the storage needed for a name at runtime
 - Calculate the address of an array element
 - Insert type conversions
 - Choose the right version of some arithmetic operator (e.g., fadd, iadd)
- Type checking (类型检查) uses logical rules to make sure that the types of the operands match the type expectation by an operator

Type Expressions (类型表达式)

- Types have structure, which can be represented by type expressions
 - A type expression is either a basic type, or
 - Formed by applying a type constructor (类型构造算子) to a type expression
- $\text{array}(2, \text{array}(3, \text{integer}))$ is the type expression for $\text{int}[2][3]$
 - array is a type constructor with two arguments: a number, a type expression



SSA中所有赋值都是对不同名字的变量的。
即 P_1 与 P_2 不是一个变量

函数会根据不同控制流路径返回不同参数值。

操作数类型命令操作符。

① 基本类型

② 类型表达式上应用类型构造算子

The Definition of Type Expression

- A basic type is a type expression
 - *boolean, char, integer, float, and void, ...*
- A type name (e.g., name of a class) is a type expression
- A type expression can be formed
 - By applying the *array* type constructor to a number and a type expression
 - By applying the *record* type constructor to the field names and their types
 - By applying the \rightarrow type constructor for function types
- If s and t are type expressions, then their Cartesian product $s \times t$ is a type expression (this is introduced for completeness, can be used to represent a list of types such as function parameters)
- Type expressions may contain type variables (e.g., those generated by compilers) whose values are type expressions

Type Equivalence

- Type checking rules usually have the following form

If two type expressions are equivalent
then return a given type
else return `type_error`

Code under analysis:
`a + b`

- The key is to define when two type expressions are equivalent
 - The main difficulty arises from the fact that most modern languages allow the naming of user-defined types
 - In C/C++, type naming is achieved by the `typedef` statement

Name Equivalence (名等价)

- Treat named types as basic types; *names in type expressions are not replaced* by the exact type expressions they define
- Two type expressions are name equivalent if and only if *they are identical* (represented by the same syntax tree, with the same labels)

`typedef struct {
 int data[100];
 int count;
} Stack;`

`typedef struct {
 int data[100];
 int count;
} Set;`

Code under analysis:

`Stack x, y;`

`Set r, s;`

`x = y;` ✓

`r = s;` ✓

`x = r;` ✗

<http://web.eecs.utk.edu/~bvanderz/teaching/cs365Sp14/notes/types.html>

Structural Equivalence (结构等价)

- For named types, replace the names by the type expressions and recursively check the substituted trees

`typedef struct {
 int data[100];
 int count;
} Stack;`

`typedef struct {
 int data[100];
 int count;
} Set;`

Code under analysis:

`Stack x, y;`

`Set r, s;`

`x = y;` ✓

`r = s;` ✓

`x = r;` ✓

类型表达式的name即为基本类型

类型表达式的name被其具体的组成递归代替。

Declarations (变量声明)

- The grammar below deals with basic, array, and record types
 - Nonterminal D generates a sequence of declarations
 - T generates basic, array, or record types
 - A record type is a sequence of declarations for the fields of the record, surrounded by curly braces
 - B generates one of the basic types: `int` and `float`
 - C generates sequences of one or more integers, each surrounded by brackets

$$\begin{array}{l} D \rightarrow T \text{id} ; D \mid \epsilon \\ T \rightarrow B C \mid \text{record } ' \{ ' D ' \}' \\ B \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{float} \\ C \rightarrow \epsilon \mid [\text{num}] C \end{array}$$

Storage Layout for Local Names

(局部变量的存储布局)

- From the type of a name, we can decide the amount of memory needed for the name at run time
 - The *width* (宽度) of a type: # memory units needed for an object of the type
 - For data of varying lengths, such as strings, or whose size cannot be determined until run time, such as dynamic arrays, we only reserve a fixed amount of memory for a pointer to the data
- For local names of a function, we always assign contiguous bytes*
 - For each such name, at compile time, we can compute a *relative address*
 - Type information and relative addresses are stored in *symbol table*

* This follows the principle of proximity and is mainly for performance considerations.

An SDT for Computing Types and Their Widths

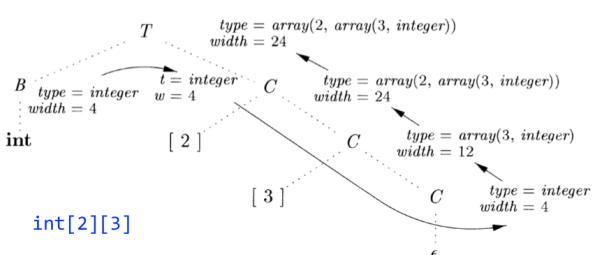
- Synthesized attributes: *type*, *width*
- Global variables t and w pass type and width information from a B node in a parse tree to the node for the production $C \rightarrow \epsilon$
 - In an SDD, t and w would be C 's *inherited attributes* (the SDD is L-attributed)*

$T \rightarrow B$	$\{ t = B.type; w = B.width; \}$
C	$\{ T.type = C.type; T.width = C.width; \}$
$B \rightarrow \text{int}$	$\{ B.type = \text{integer}; B.width = 4; \}$
$B \rightarrow \text{float}$	$\{ B.type = \text{float}; B.width = 8; \}$
$C \rightarrow \epsilon$	$\{ C.type = t; C.width = w; \}$
$C \rightarrow [\text{num}] C_1$	$\{ C.type = \text{array}(\text{num.value}, C_1.type); C.width = \text{num.value} \times C_1.width; \}$

This SDT can be implemented during recursive-descent parsing

Translation Process Example

- Recall the translation during recursive-descent parsing
 - Use the arguments of function $A()$ to pass nonterminal A 's *inherited attributes**
 - Evaluate and Return the *synthesized attributes* of A when the $A()$ completes

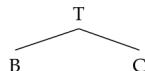


* In our example, we use global variables t and w

Translation Process Example

$T \rightarrow B \ C \mid \text{record } 't' \ D \ 'y'$
 $B \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{float}$
 $C \rightarrow \epsilon \mid [\text{num}] \ C$

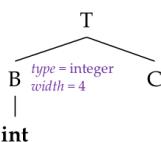
Input string: `int[2][3]`



Step 1: Rewrite T using $T \rightarrow BC$

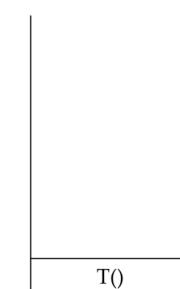


Input string: `int[2][3]`



Step 3:

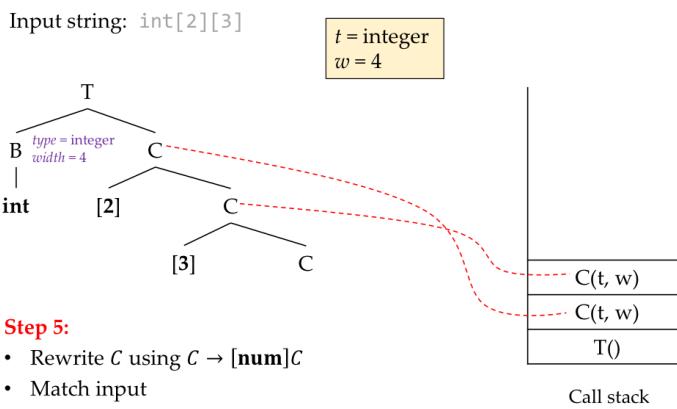
- $B()$ returns
- Execute semantic action



Input string: `int[2][3]`

$B \rightarrow \text{int} \quad \{ B.type = \text{integer}; B.width = 4; \}$

Call stack



Step 5:

- Rewrite C using $C \rightarrow [\text{num}]C$
- Match input

Call stack

Input string: `int[2][3]`

$t = \text{integer} \quad w = 4$

Call stack

Input string: `int[2][3]`

$t = \text{integer} \quad w = 4$

Call stack

Step 6:

- $C()$ returns
- Execute semantic action

Call stack

$C \rightarrow \epsilon \quad \{ C.type = t; C.width = w; \}$

Input string: `int[2][3]`

$t = \text{integer} \quad w = 4$

Call stack

Step 8:

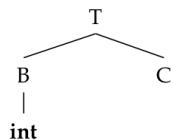
- $T()$ returns
- Execute semantic action

Call stack

$T \rightarrow B \ C \quad \{ t = B.type; w = B.width; \}$

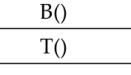
$C \rightarrow [\text{num}] \ C_1 \quad \{ T.type = C.type; T.width = C.width; \}$

Input string: `int[2][3]`



Step 2:

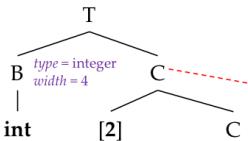
- Rewrite B using $B \rightarrow \text{int}$
- Match input



Call stack

Input string: `int[2][3]`

$t = \text{integer}$
 $w = 4$



Step 4:

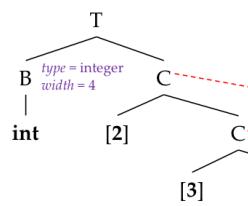
- Execute semantic action
- Rewrite C using $C \rightarrow [\text{num}]C$
- Match input

$T \rightarrow B \ C \quad \{ t = B.type; w = B.width; \}$
 $\{ T.type = C.type; T.width = C.width; \}$

Call stack

Input string: `int[2][3]`

$t = \text{integer}$
 $w = 4$



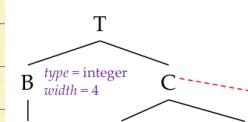
Step 5:

- Rewrite C using $C \rightarrow \epsilon$

Call stack

Input string: `int[2][3]`

$t = \text{integer}$
 $w = 4$



Step 7:

- $C()$ returns
- Execute semantic action

$C \rightarrow [\text{num}] \ C_1 \quad \{ C.type = \text{array}(\text{num.value}, C_1.type);$
 $C.width = \text{num.value} \times C_1.width; \}$

Call stack

Input string: `int[2][3]`

$t = \text{integer} \quad w = 4$

Call stack

Input string: `int[2][3]`

$t = \text{integer} \quad w = 4$

Call stack

$T \rightarrow B \ C \quad \{ t = B.type; w = B.width; \}$

$C \rightarrow [\text{num}] \ C_1 \quad \{ T.type = C.type; T.width = C.width; \}$

Call stack

Sequences of Declarations

- When dealing with a procedure, local variables should be put in a separate symbol table; their declarations can be processed as a group
 - Name, type, and relative address of each variable should be stored
- The translation scheme below handles a sequence of declarations
 - offset: the next available relative address; top: the current symbol table

```
P → { offset = 0; }

D → T id ; { top.put(id.lexeme, T.type, offset);
                offset = offset + T.width;
}

D → ε
```

Computing relative addresses of declared names

Fields in Records and Classes

- Two assumptions:
 - The field names within a record must be distinct
 - The offset for a field name is relative to the data area (数据区) for that record
- For convenience, we use a symbol table for each record type
 - Store both type and relative address of fields
- A record type has the form record(t)
 - record is the type constructor
 - t is a symbol table object, holding info about the fields of this record type

```
T → record '{' { Env.push(top); top = new Env();
                    Stack.push(offset); offset = 0; }

D '}' { T.type = record(top); T.width = offset;
         top = Env.pop(); offset = Stack.pop(); }
```

- The class Env implements symbol tables
- Env.push(top) and Stack.push(offset) save the current symbol table and offset; later, they will be popped to continue with other translation
- The translation scheme can be adapted to deal with classes

Type Checking

- To do type checking, a compiler needs to assign a type expression to each component of the source program
- The compiler then determines whether the type expressions conform to a collection of logical rules (i.e., the type system)
 - A sound type system allows us to determine statically that type errors cannot occur at run time
- A language is strongly typed if the compiler guarantees that the programs it accepts will run without type errors (sound type system)
 - Strongly typed: Java (double a; int b = a; //cannot compile)
 - Weakly typed: C/C++ (double a; int b = a; //implicit conversion)

局部变量应在分离的符号表中，使用 offset 来寻找

假设

① 同一 record 中的 field name 不一样
② offset 是相对于 record 的 data area
每一个 record type 都有一个符号表

强类型：程序运行时不会发生类型错误
弱类型：反之

Rules for Type Checking

Type synthesis (类型合成)

- Build up the type of an expression from the types of subexpressions
 - Typical form:** if f has type $s \rightarrow t$ and x has type s , then expression $f(x)$ has type t
 - Example:** $f(x) = -x$ (can be generalized to multi-argument cases)

Type inference (类型推导)

- Determine the type of a language construct from the way it is used
 - Typical form:** if $f(x)$ is an expression, then: as f has type $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ (α, β represent two types), x has type α
 - Example:** let $null$ be a function that tests whether a list is empty, then from the usage $null(x)$, we can tell that x must be a list

Type Conversions

Consider an expression $x * i$, where x is a float and i is an integer

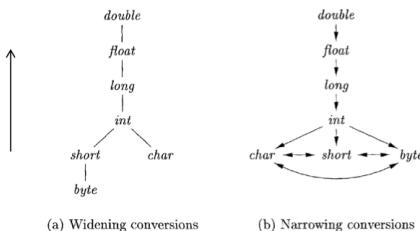
- The representation (the way of organizing 0/1 bits) of integers and floating-point numbers is different
- Different machine instructions are used for operations on integers and floats
- Convert integers to floats: $t_1 = (\text{float}) i$ $t_2 = x \text{ fmul } t_1$

Type conversion SDT for a simple case (using type synthesis)

- $E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$
- { **if**($E_1.\text{type} = \text{integer}$ **and** $E_2.\text{type} = \text{integer}$) $E.\text{type} = \text{integer}$;
 else if($E_1.\text{type} = \text{float}$ **and** $E_2.\text{type} = \text{integer}$) $E.\text{type} = \text{float}$;
 ...
 }

Widening and Narrowing

- Type conversion rules vary from language to language
- Java distinguishes between **widening** conversions (类型拓宽) and **narrowing** conversions (类型窄化)
- Widening** conversions **preserve information** and can be done automatically by the compiler (**implicit** type conversions, or **coercions**)
- Narrowing** conversions **lose information** and require programmers to write code to cause the conversion (**explicit** type conversions, or **casts**)



SDT for Type Conversion

- $\text{max}(t_1, t_2)$ takes two types t_1 and t_2 and returns the **maximum** (or **least upper bound**) of the two types in the widening hierarchy
- $\text{widen}(a, t, w)$ generates type conversions if needed to widen an address a of type t into a value of type w

```
Addr widen(Addr a, Type t, Type w)
  if (t = w) return a;
  else if (t = integer and w = float) {
    temp = new Temp();
    gen(temp != 'float' a);
    return temp;
  }
  else error;
```

```
E → E1 + E2 { E.type = max(E1.type, E2.type);
  a1 = widen(E1.addr, E1.type, E.type);
  a2 = widen(E2.addr, E2.type, E.type);
  E.addr = new Temp();
  gen(E.addr != a1 + a2); }
```

类型合成:

$f: S \rightarrow T, x: S, \text{if } f(x): T$

类型推导:

$f(x)$, 则若 $f: \alpha \rightarrow \beta, \text{if } x: \alpha -$

综合时选用更大的类型

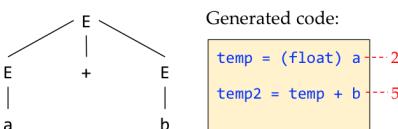
拓宽是自动完成的，保护了信息

窄化是需要增加操作的，会损失信息

Example

- $a + b$ (suppose a is of *int* type and b is of *float* type)

```
Addr widen(Addr a, Type t, Type w)
if (t == w) return a; 3
else if (t == integer and w == float) {
    temp = new Temp();
    gen(temp == float(a));
    return temp;
}
else error;
```



```
temp = (float) a --- 2
temp2 = temp + b --- 5
```

```
E → E1 + E2 { E.type = max(E1.type, E2.type); 1
  a1 = widen(E1.addr, E1.type, E.type); 2
  a2 = widen(E2.addr, E2.type, E.type); 3
  E.addr = new Temp(); 4
  gen(E.addr != a1 != a2); } 5
```

```
E.type = max(int, float) = float 1
a1 = widen(a, int, float) = temp 2
a2 = widen(b, float, float) = b 3
E.addr = new Temp() = temp2 4
```

Expressions and Arrays

- An expression with more than one operator: $a + b * c$
- Translate into multiple instructions with at most one operator per instruction

$$a + b * c \rightarrow t_1 = b * c \\ t_2 = a + t_1$$

- An array reference $A[i][j]$ will expand into a sequence of three-address instructions that calculate an **address** for the reference

SDD for Expressions

PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES
$S \rightarrow id = E ;$	$S.code = E.code $ $gen(top.get(id.lexeme) != E.addr)$
$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$	$E.addr = new Temp()$ $E.code = E_1.code E_2.code $ $gen(E.addr != E_1.addr + E_2.addr)$
$ - E_1$	$E.addr = new Temp()$ $E.code = E_1.code $ $gen(E.addr != minus' E_1.addr)$
$ (E_1)$	$E.addr = E_1.addr$ $E.code = E_1.code$
$ id$	$E.addr = top.get(id.lexeme)$ $E.code = ''$

S.code and *E.code* denote three-address code

E.addr denotes the address that will hold the value of *E*

top denotes the current symbol table; *get* returns the address of *id* (a variable)

gen generates three-address instructions

All attributes are synthesized. This **S-attributed SDD** can be implemented during bottom-up parsing.

PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES
$S \rightarrow id = E ;$	$S.code = E.code $ $gen(top.get(id.lexeme) != E.addr)$
$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$	$E.addr = new Temp()$ $E.code = E_1.code E_2.code $ $gen(E.addr != E_1.addr + E_2.addr)$
$ - E_1$	$E.addr = new Temp()$ → Temporary name generated by compiler $E.code = E_1.code $ $gen(E.addr != minus' E_1.addr)$
$ (E_1)$	$E.addr = E_1.addr$ $E.code = E_1.code$
$ id$	$E.addr = top.get(id.lexeme)$ → Check the symbol-table entry for <i>id</i> and save its address in <i>E.addr</i> $E.code = ''$

Code attributes can be very long strings (as the expressions can be arbitrarily complex)

Redundant parts waste memory!

PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES
$S \rightarrow id = E ;$	$S.code = E.code $ $gen(top.get(id.lexeme) != E.addr)$
$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$	$E.addr = new Temp()$ $E.code = E_1.code E_2.code $ $gen(E.addr != E_1.addr + E_2.addr)$
$ - E_1$	$E.addr = new Temp()$ $E.code = E_1.code $ $gen(E.addr != minus' E_1.addr)$
$ (E_1)$	$E.addr = E_1.addr$ $E.code = E_1.code$
$ id$	$E.addr = top.get(id.lexeme)$ $E.code = ''$

- Generate instructions when seeing operations.
- Then concatenate instructions.

Inefficiency in the SDD

PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES
$S \rightarrow id = E ;$	$S.code = E.code $ $gen(top.get(id.lexeme) != E.addr)$
$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$	$E.addr = new Temp()$ $E.code = E_1.code E_2.code $ $gen(E.addr != E_1.addr + E_2.addr)$
$ - E_1$	$E.addr = new Temp()$ $E.code = E_1.code $ $gen(E.addr != minus' E_1.addr)$
$ (E_1)$	$E.addr = E_1.addr$ $E.code = E_1.code$
$ id$	$E.addr = top.get(id.lexeme)$ $E.code = ''$

Code这个属性可能会很长，会导致内存浪费

Incremental Translation Scheme

- In the SDT below, `gen` not only generates a three-address instruction, but also appends it to the sequence of instructions generated so far

- In comparison, in the previous SDD, the `code` attribute can be long strings after concatenations

```

S → id = E ; { gen( top.get(id.lexeme) '!=' E.addr); }

E → E1 + E2 { E.addr = new Temp(); gen(E.addr '!='
E1.addr +'+' E2.addr); }

| - E1 { E.addr = new Temp(); gen(E.addr '!='
'minus' E1.addr); }

| ( E1 ) { E.addr = E1.addr; }

| id { E.addr = top.get(id.lexeme); }

```



Why this incremental approach can guarantee the correct order of instructions?

```

S → id = E ; { gen( top.get(id.lexeme) '!='
E.addr); }

E → E1 + E2 { E.addr = new Temp(); gen(E.addr '!='
E1.addr +'+' E2.addr); }

| - E1 { E.addr = new Temp(); gen(E.addr '!='
'minus' E1.addr); }

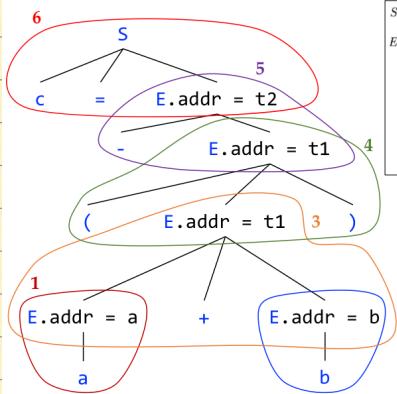
| ( E1 ) { E.addr = E1.addr; }

| id { E.addr = top.get(id.lexeme); }

```

This postfix SDT can be implemented in bottom-up parsing where subexpressions are always handled first (e.g., the code of E_1 and E_2 is generated before E)

Example : Translating $C = -(a+b)$



```

S → id = E ; { gen( top.get(id.lexeme) '!='
E.addr); } 6

E → E1 + E2 { E.addr = new Temp(); 3
gen(E.addr '!='
E1.addr +'+' E2.addr); }

| - E1 { E.addr = new Temp(); 5
gen(E.addr '!='
'minus' E1.addr); }

| ( E1 ) { E.addr = E1.addr; } 4

| id { E.addr = top.get(id.lexeme); } 1 2

```

Generated code:

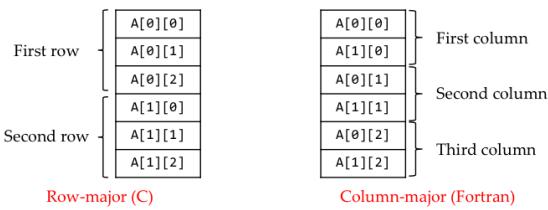
```

t1 = a + b ----- 3
t2 = - t1 ----- 5
c = t2 ----- 6

```

Addressing Array Elements

- Array elements can be accessed quickly if they are stored consecutively
- For an array A with n elements, the relative address of $A[i]$ is:
 - $\text{base} + i * w$ (base is the relative address of $A[0]$, w is the width of an element)
- For a 2D array A (row-major layout), the relative address of $A[i_1][i_2]$ is:
 - $\text{base} + i_1 * w_1 + i_2 * w_2$ (w_1 is the width of a row, w_2 is the width of an element)



gen() 不止生成三地址指令，还将其加入到已生成的指令之后。

自底向上生成。

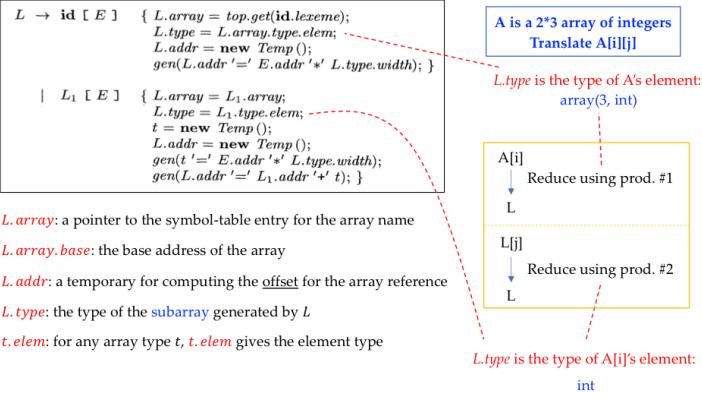
Row-major: 行先变
Col-major: 列先变

Translation of Array References

- The main problem in generating code for array references is to relate the address-calculation formula to the grammar

- The relative address of $A[i_1][i_2] \dots [i_k]$ is $\text{base} + i_1 * w_1 + i_2 * w_2 + \dots + i_k * w_k$
- Productions for generating array references: $L \rightarrow L [E] \mid \text{id} [E]$

SDT for Array References



- The semantic actions of L-productions compute offsets
- The address of an array element is **base + offset**

$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2 \quad \{ E.addr = new Temp(); gen(E.addr \leftarrow E_1.addr \& E_2.addr); \}$

$| \quad id \quad \{ E.addr = top.get(id.lexeme); \}$

$| \quad L \quad \{ E.addr = new Temp(); gen(E.addr \leftarrow L.array.base \& L.addr); \}$

Instruction of the form $x = a[i]$

Array references can be part of an expression

$E \rightarrow E_1 * E_2 \quad \{ E.addr = new Temp(); \textcolor{red}{6} gen(E.addr \leftarrow E_1.addr \& E_2.addr); \}$

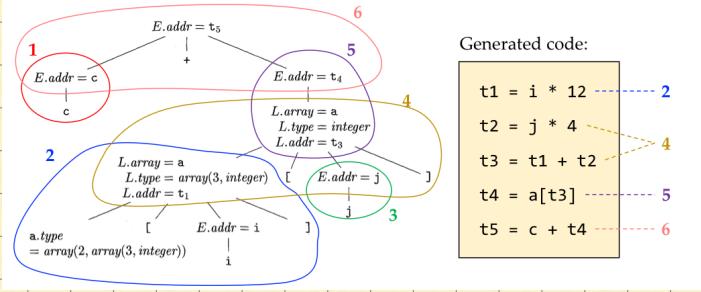
$| \quad id \quad \{ E.addr = top.get(id.lexeme); \textcolor{red}{1} \textcolor{red}{3} \}$

$| \quad L \quad \{ E.addr = new Temp(); \textcolor{blue}{5} gen(E.addr \leftarrow L.array.base \& L.addr); \}$

$L \rightarrow id \sqsubseteq E \quad \{ L.array = top.get(id.lexeme); \textcolor{blue}{2} L.type = L.array.type.elem; L.addr = new Temp(); gen(L.addr \leftarrow E.addr \& L.type.width); \}$

$| \quad L_1 \sqsubseteq E \quad \{ L.array = L_1.array; \textcolor{blue}{4} L.type = L_1.type.elem; t = new Temp(); L.addr = new Temp(); gen(t \leftarrow E.addr \& L.type.width); gen(L.addr \leftarrow L_1.addr \& t); \}$

Translating $c + a[i][j]$



Control Flow

- Boolean expressions are often used to **alter the flow of control** or **compute logical values**
- Grammar:** $B \rightarrow B \parallel B \mid B \&\& B \mid !B \mid (B) \mid E \text{ rel } E \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false}$
- Given the expression $B_1 \parallel B_2$, if B_1 is true, then the expression is true without having to evaluate B_2 . In other words, B_1 or B_2 may not need to be evaluated fully.*
- In **short-circuit code**, the boolean operators $\&\&$, \parallel , $!$ translate into jumps. **The operators do not appear in the code.**

If B_1 or B_2 has side effect (e.g., changing the value of a global variable), then the effect may not occur

Short-Circuit Code Example

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

```

if x < 100 goto L2
iffalse x > 200 goto L1
iffalse x != y goto L1
L2: x = 0
L1:

```

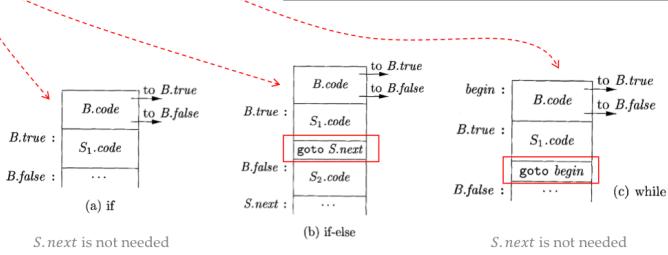
Flow-of-Control Statements

Grammar:

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

Inherited attributes:

- $B.\text{true}$: the label to which control flows if B is true
- $B.\text{false}$: the label to which control flows if B is false
- $S.\text{next}$: the label for the instruction immediately after the code for S



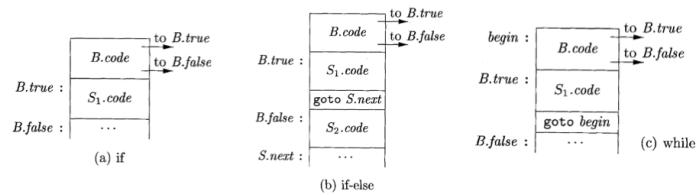
SDD for Flow-of-Control Statements

PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES
$P \rightarrow S$	$S.\text{next} = \text{newlabel}()$ $P.\text{code} = S.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(S.\text{next})$
$S \rightarrow \text{assign}$	$S.\text{code} = \text{assign}.\text{code}$ Illustrated by previous figures
$S \rightarrow \text{if } (B) S_1$	$B.\text{true} = \text{newlabel}()$ $B.\text{false} = S_1.\text{next} = S.\text{next}$ $S.\text{code} = B.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(B.\text{true}) \parallel S_1.\text{code}$
$S \rightarrow \text{if } (B) S_1 \text{ else } S_2$	$B.\text{true} = \text{newlabel}()$ $B.\text{false} = \text{newlabel}()$ $S_1.\text{next} = S_2.\text{next} = S.\text{next}$ $S.\text{code} = B.\text{code}$ $\parallel \text{label}(B.\text{true}) \parallel S_1.\text{code}$ $\parallel \text{gen('goto' } S.\text{next})$ $\parallel \text{label}(B.\text{false}) \parallel S_2.\text{code}$
$S \rightarrow \text{while } (B) S_1$	Illustrated by previous figure
$S \rightarrow S_1 S_2$	$S_1.\text{next} = \text{newlabel}()$ $S_2.\text{next} = S.\text{next}$ $S.\text{code} = S_1.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(S_1.\text{next}) \parallel S_2.\text{code}$

Translating Boolean Expressions in Flow-of-Control Statements

- A boolean expression B is translated into three-address instructions that evaluate B using conditional and unconditional jumps to one of two labels: $B.\text{true}$ and $B.\text{false}$

- $B.\text{true}$ and $B.\text{false}$ are two inherited attributes. Their value depends on the context of B (e.g., if statement, if-else statement, while statement)

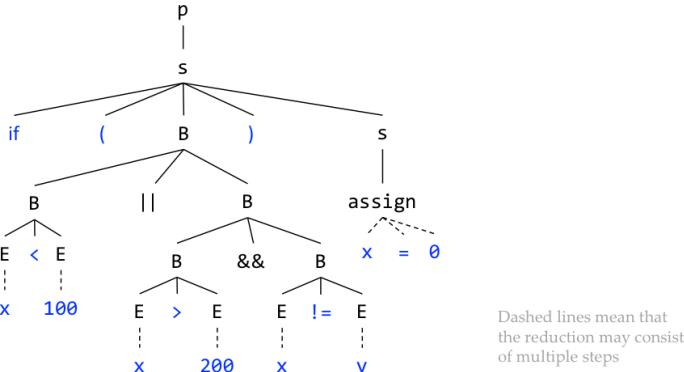


Generating Three-Address Code for Boolean

PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES		
$B \rightarrow B_1 \text{ } B_2$	$B_1.\text{true} = B.\text{true}$ // short-circuiting $B_1.\text{false} = \text{newlabel}()$ $B_2.\text{true} = B.\text{true}$ $B_2.\text{false} = B.\text{false}$ $B.\text{code} = B_1.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(B_1.\text{false}) \parallel B_2.\text{code}$	$B \rightarrow E_1 \text{ rel } E_2$	$B.\text{code} = E_1.\text{code} \parallel E_2.\text{code}$ $\parallel \text{gen('if' } E_1.\text{addr rel.op } E_2.\text{addr 'goto' } B.\text{true})$ $\parallel \text{gen('goto' } B.\text{false})$
$B \rightarrow B_1 \&& B_2$	$B_1.\text{true} = \text{newlabel}()$ $B_1.\text{false} = B.\text{false}$ // short-circuiting $B_2.\text{true} = B.\text{true}$ $B_2.\text{false} = B.\text{false}$ $B.\text{code} = B_1.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(B_1.\text{true}) \parallel B_2.\text{code}$	$B \rightarrow \text{true}$	$B.\text{code} = \text{gen('goto' } B.\text{true})$
$B \rightarrow ! B_1$	$B_1.\text{true} = B.\text{false}$ $B_1.\text{false} = B.\text{true}$ $B.\text{code} = B_1.\text{code}$	$B \rightarrow \text{false}$	$B.\text{code} = \text{gen('goto' } B.\text{false})$

Example

- if ($x < 100$ || $x > 200$ && $x \neq y$) $x = 0$;



Example

PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES
$P \rightarrow S$	$S.\text{next} = \text{newlabel}()$ $P.\text{code} = S.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(S.\text{next})$
$S \rightarrow \text{assign}$	$S.\text{code} = \text{assign}.code$
$S \rightarrow \text{if} (B) S_1$	$B.\text{true} = \text{newlabel}()$ $B.\text{false} = S_1.\text{next} = S.\text{next}$ $S.\text{code} = B.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(B.\text{true}) \parallel S_1.\text{code}$
$B \rightarrow B_1 \text{ } B_2$	$B_1.\text{true} = B.\text{true}$ $B_1.\text{false} = \text{newlabel}()$ $B_2.\text{true} = B.\text{true}$ $B_2.\text{false} = B.\text{false}$ $B.\text{code} = B_1.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(B_1.\text{false}) \parallel B_2.\text{code}$
$B \rightarrow B_1 \&& B_2$	$B_1.\text{true} = \text{newlabel}()$ $B_1.\text{false} = B.\text{false}$ $B_2.\text{true} = B.\text{true}$ $B_2.\text{false} = B.\text{false}$ $B.\text{code} = B_1.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(B_1.\text{true}) \parallel B_2.\text{code}$
$B \rightarrow ! B_1$	$B_1.\text{true} = B.\text{false}$ $B_1.\text{false} = B.\text{true}$ $B.\text{code} = B_1.\text{code}$
$B \rightarrow E_1 \text{ rel } E_2$	$B.\text{code} = E_1.\text{code} \parallel E_2.\text{code}$ $\parallel \text{gen('if' } E_1.\text{addr rel.op } E_2.\text{addr 'goto' } B.\text{true})$ $\parallel \text{gen('goto' } B.\text{false})$

This SDD is L-attributed, not S-attributed. The grammar is not LL. There is no way to implement the SDD directly during parsing.

Traversing the parse tree to evaluate the attributes helps generate intermediate code

Example

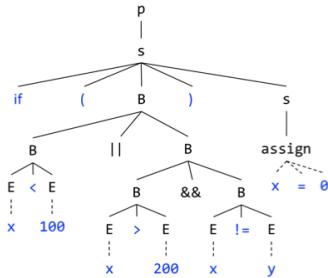
PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES
$P \rightarrow S$	$S.\text{next} = \text{newlabel}()$ $P.\text{code} = S.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(S.\text{next})$ A6
$S \rightarrow \text{assign}$	$S.\text{code} = \text{assign}.code$ A4
$S \rightarrow \text{if} (B) S_1$	$B.\text{true} = \text{newlabel}()$ $B.\text{false} = S_1.\text{next} = S.\text{next}$ A5 $S.\text{code} = B.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(B.\text{true}) \parallel S_1.\text{code}$
$B \rightarrow B_1 \text{ } B_2$	$B_1.\text{true} = B.\text{true}$ $B_1.\text{false} = \text{newlabel}()$ $B_2.\text{true} = B.\text{true}$ A3 $B_2.\text{false} = B.\text{false}$ $B.\text{code} = B_1.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(B_1.\text{false}) \parallel B_2.\text{code}$
$B \rightarrow B_1 \&& B_2$	$B_1.\text{true} = \text{newlabel}()$ $B_1.\text{false} = B.\text{false}$ $B_2.\text{true} = B.\text{true}$ $B_2.\text{false} = B.\text{false}$ $B.\text{code} = B_1.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(B_1.\text{true}) \parallel B_2.\text{code}$
$B \rightarrow ! B_1$	$B_1.\text{true} = B.\text{false}$ $B_1.\text{false} = B.\text{true}$ $B.\text{code} = B_1.\text{code}$
$B \rightarrow E_1 \text{ rel } E_2$	$B.\text{code} = E_1.\text{code} \parallel E_2.\text{code}$ $\parallel \text{gen('if' } E_1.\text{addr rel.op } E_2.\text{addr 'goto' } B.\text{true})$ A1 $\parallel \text{gen('goto' } B.\text{false})$

Virtual nodes are in red color

Application order of actions (preorder traversal of the tree):

A1¹ A1² A1³ A2 A3 A4 A5 A6

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



Generated code:

```

if x < 100 goto L2
goto L3
L3: if x > 200 goto L4
goto L1
L4: if x != y goto L2
goto L1
L2: x = 0
L1:

```

Backpatching (回填)

- A **key problem** when generating code for boolean expressions and flow-of-control statements is to **match a jump instruction with the jump target**

- Example: **if (B) S**

- According to the short-circuit translation, *B*'s code contains a jump to the instruction following the code for *S* (executed when *B* is false)
- However, *B* must be translated before *S*. The jump target is unknown when translating *B*
- Earlier, we address the problem by passing labels as inherited attributes (*S.next*), but this requires another separate pass (traversing the parse tree) after parsing

How to address the problem in one pass?



One-Pass Code Generation Using Backpatching

- Basic idea of backpatching (基本思想):

- When a jump is generated, its target is temporarily left unspecified.
- Incomplete jumps are grouped into lists. All jumps on a list have the same target.
- Fill in the labels for incomplete jumps when the targets become known.

- The technique (技术细节):

- For a nonterminal *B* that represents a boolean expression, we define two synthesized attributes: *truelist* and *falselist*
- *truelist*: a list of jump instructions whose target is the label to which the control goes when B is true
- *falselist*: a list of jump instructions whose target is the label to which the control goes when B is false

- The technique (技术细节) Cont.:

- *makelist(i)*: create a new list containing only *i*, the index of a jump instruction, and return the pointer to the list
- *merge(p₁, p₂)*: concatenate the lists pointed by *p₁* and *p₂*, and return a pointer to the concatenated list
- *backpatch(p, i)*: insert *i* as the target for each of the jump instructions on the list pointed by *p*

Backpatching for Boolean Expressions

- An SDT suitable for generating code for boolean expressions **during bottom-up parsing**

- Grammar:

- $B \rightarrow B_1 \parallel MB_2 \mid B_1 \&\& MB_2 \mid !B_1 \mid (B_1) \mid E_1 \text{ rel } E_2 \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false}$
- $M \rightarrow \epsilon$

Keep this question in mind: Why do we introduce *M* before *B₂*?

*B*比*S*先翻译,但翻译*B*时需要知道*S.next*
因此不知道*B.false*应该是什么。

One-Pass Code Generation Using Backpatching

生成跳转指令时不指定该指令的目标。
并将这些指令放入由跳转指令组成的列表中
等到能确定时再填充。

*M*在*B₂*前是为了读下一条指令的序号。

1)	$B \rightarrow B_1 \sqcup M B_2$	{ backpatch($B_1.falselist, M.instr$); $B.trueclist = merge(B_1.trueclist, B_2.trueclist)$; $B.falselist = B_2.falselist$; }
2)	$B \rightarrow B_1 \&& M B_2$	{ backpatch($B_1.trueclist, M.instr$); $B.trueclist = B_2.trueclist$; $B.falselist = merge(B_1.falselist, B_2.falselist)$; }
3)	$B \rightarrow ! B_1$	{ $B.trueclist = B_1.falselist$; $B.falselist = B_1.trueclist$; }
4)	$B \rightarrow (B_1)$	{ $B.trueclist = B_1.trueclist$; $B.falselist = B_1.falselist$; }
5)	$B \rightarrow E_1 \text{ rel } E_2$	{ $B.trueclist = makelist(nextinstr)$; $B.falselist = makelist(nextinstr + 1)$; gen('if' $E_1.addr \text{ rel.op } E_2.addr \text{ goto } __$); gen('goto __'); } <
6)	$B \rightarrow \text{true}$	{ $B.trueclist = makelist(nextinstr)$; gen('goto __'); }
7)	$B \rightarrow \text{false}$	{ $B.falselist = makelist(nextinstr)$; gen('goto __'); }
8)	$M \rightarrow \epsilon$	{ $M.instr = nextinstr$; } <

Tip: understand 1 and 2 at a high level first and then revisit this slide after you understand the later examples.

Backpatching vs. Non-Backpatching

(1) Non-backpatching SDD with inherited attributes:

$B \rightarrow E_1 \text{ rel } E_2$	$B.code = E_1.code \parallel E_2.code$ gen('if' $E_1.addr \text{ rel.op } E_2.addr \text{ goto } B.true$) gen('goto B.false')
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(2) Backpatching scheme:

$B \rightarrow E_1 \text{ rel } E_2$	{ $B.trueclist = makelist(nextinstr)$; $B.falselist = makelist(nextinstr + 1)$; gen('if' $E_1.addr \text{ rel.op } E_2.addr \text{ goto } __$); gen('goto __'); } <
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Comparison:

- In (2), incomplete instructions (指令坯) are added to corresponding lists
- The instruction jumping to $B.\text{true}$ in (1) is added to $B.\text{trueclist}$ in (2)
- The instruction jumping to $B.\text{false}$ in (1) is added to $B.\text{falselist}$ in (2)

(1) Non-backpatching SDD with inherited attributes:

$B \rightarrow B_1 \sqcup B_2$	$B_1.\text{true} = B.\text{true}$ $B_1.\text{false} = \text{newlabel}$ $B_2.\text{true} = B.\text{true}$ $B_2.\text{false} = B.\text{false}$ $B.\text{code} = B_1.\text{code} \parallel \text{label}(B_1.\text{false}) \parallel B_2.\text{code}$
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(2) Backpatching scheme:

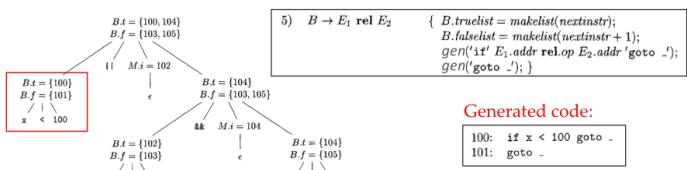
$B \rightarrow B_1 \sqcup M B_2$	{ backpatch($B_1.falselist, M.instr$); $B.trueclist = merge(B_1.trueclist, B_2.trueclist)$; $B.falselist = B_2.falselist$; }
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Comparison:

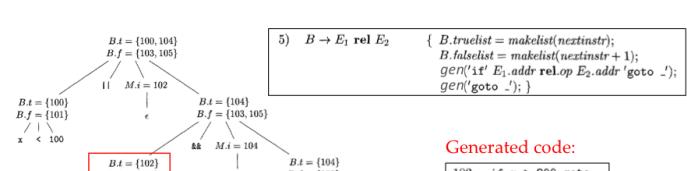
- The assignments to $true/false$ attributes in (1) correspond to the assignments to $\text{trueclist}/\text{falselist}$ or merge in (2)

Example - Boolean Expressions

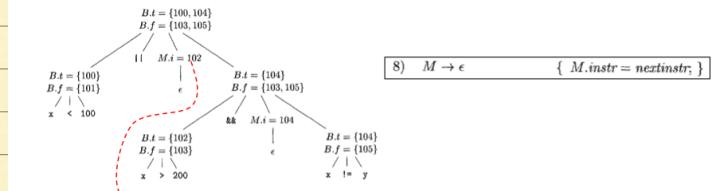
- The earlier SDT is a **postfix SDT**. The semantic actions can be performed during a bottom-up parse.
- Boolean expression: $x < 100 \parallel x > 200 \&\& x != y$
- Step 1:** reduce $x < 100$ to B by production (5)



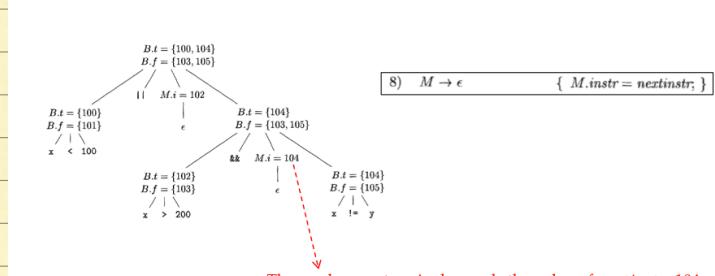
- Step 3:** reduce $x > 200$ to B by production (5)



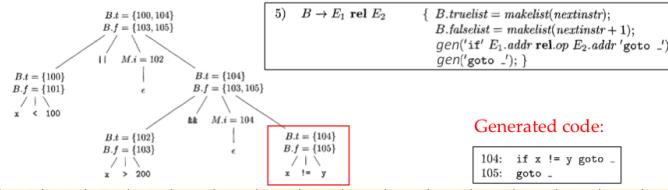
- Step 2:** reduce ϵ to M by production (8)



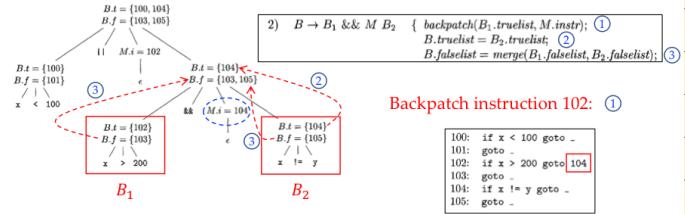
- Step 4:** reduce ϵ to M by production (8)



- Step 5: reduce $x! = y$ to B by production (5)



- Step 6: reduce $B_1 \&& MB_2$ to B by production (2)



- Step 7: reduce $B_1 \parallel MB_2$ to B by production (1)

