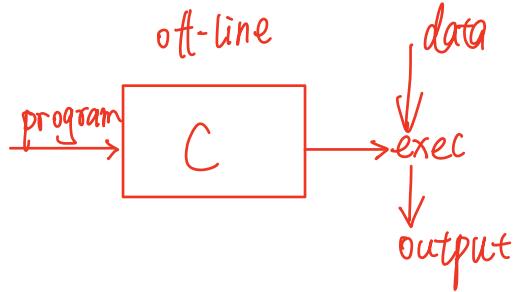
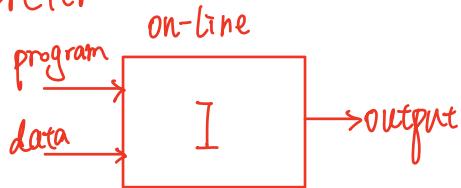


0101 Introduction =

① compilers =



② interpreter =



0102 Structure of compilers =

① lexical analysis =

recognize words — divide program text into "tokens"

② parsing

grouping tokens together according to some structure

③ semantic analysis

programming languages have strict rules to avoid ambiguities

## ④ optimization

automatically modify programs so that  
- run faster  
- use less memory

## ⑤ code generation

0103 the economy of programming languages:

0301 lexical analysis:

token classes correspond to sets of strings

① Identifier

strings of letters or digits, starting with a letter

② Integer:

a non-empty string of digits

③ Keyword:

else, if, begin...

④ whitespace:

a non-empty sequence of blanks, newlines, and tabs.

contiguous white space will be treated as one token

in other words, token is <class/role, string>

## 0302 Lexical Analysis Examples

FORTRAN rule: whitespace is insignificant

① Look ahead:

e.g. FORTRAN  $\begin{cases} \text{S DD 5 I = 1,25} \\ \text{I DO 5 I = 1.25} \end{cases}$

totally different meanings

so needs look ahead to determine meaning for token  
sometimes needs unbounded - lookahead

② PL/I keywords are not reserved

## 0303 Regular Languages

① Regular Expression

results are sets  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{a. single character: only contain 1 character} \\ \text{b. epsilon: only contain empty string} \\ \text{c. union: just merge 2 sets into 1 set} \\ \text{d. concatenation} \\ \text{e. iteration} \end{array} \right.$

could consider languages as a set of strings

↪ alphabet

② regular expressions over  $\Sigma$ : smallest set of expressions  
including

## 0304 Formal Languages

① Let  $\Sigma$  be a set of characters (an alphabet).

a language over  $\Sigma$  is a set of strings of characters drawn from  $\Sigma$

② meaning function: mapping syntax to semantics

$L = \text{Exp} \rightarrow \text{a set of strings}$

many to one

## 0305 Lexical Specifications:

① keyword: 'if' + 'else' + 'then' + ...

② Integer:

digit = '0' + '1' + '2' + '3' + '4' + '5' + '6' + '7' + '8' + '9'

→ digit<sup>+</sup> = digit · digit\*

③ identifier:

letter = 'a' + 'b' + 'c' + ... = [a-zA-Z]

→ letter · (letter + digit)\*

④ whitespace: blanks, newlines, tabs

(' ' + '\n' + '\t')<sup>+</sup>

$$(x) + \varepsilon = (x)?$$

## 0401 Lexical Specification

① partition a string into a consecutive tokens

1. write a resp for the lexemes of each token class  
e.g. Number = digit<sup>+</sup>

2. construct R, matching all lexemes for all tokens

e.g.  $R = \text{keyword} + \text{identifier} + \text{number} + \dots$   
 $= R_1 + R_2 + \dots$

3. let input be  $x_1 \dots x_n$

for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  check

$x_1 \dots x_i \in L(R)$

4. if success, then we know that

$x_1 \dots x_i \in L(R)$  for some  $j$

5. remove  $x_1 \dots x_i$  from input and go to (3)

② how much input is used?

if 2 prefix of 1 string matches,  
choose the longest matched token

③ Which token will be used?

1 prefix of string matches 2 different tokens,  
choose the one used first (priority)

④ what if no rule matches?

no allowed  $x_1 \dots x_i \notin L(R)$  to happen

define a error class token with least priority  
matches tokens that does not match any  
previous tokens

## 0402 Finite Automata

① components:

a. An input alphabet  $\Sigma$

b. a finite set of states  $S$

c. a start state  $n$

d. a set of accepting states  $F \subseteq S$

e. a set of transitions state  $\xrightarrow{\text{input}} \text{state}$

② Language of a FA: set of accepted strings

## 0403 Regular Expression into NFAs

① for each kind of rexp, define an equivalent NFA

a.  $\epsilon$



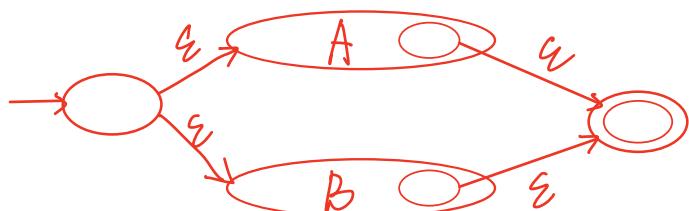
b.  $a$



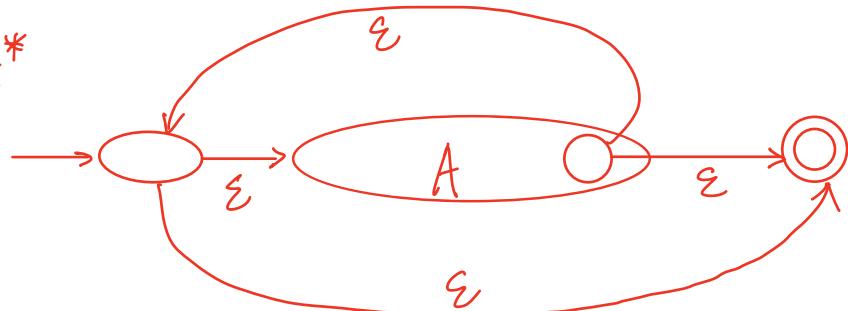
c.  $AB$



d.  $A+B$



e.  $A^*$



## 0404 NFA $\rightarrow$ DFA

①  $\epsilon$ -closure of a state ( $\epsilon$ -clos)  
all states can be reached from a state

②  $a(x) = \{y \mid x \in X_n, x \xrightarrow{a} y\}$

that is, if  $x$  is within given States  $X$ , return all states  $y$  can reach with input  $a$ .

### ③ DFA

a. states: Subsets of  $S$  except empty set

b. start state:  $\epsilon$ -clos( $S$ ) (start state of NFA)

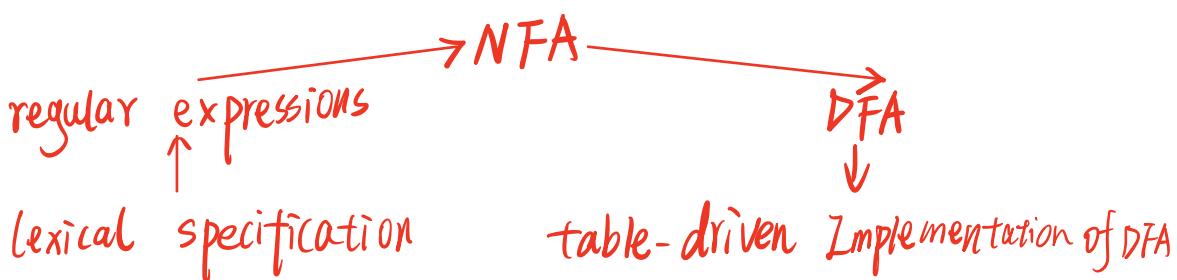
c. final Start:  $\{x \mid x \cap F \neq \emptyset\}$

$\hookrightarrow$  (final states of NFA)

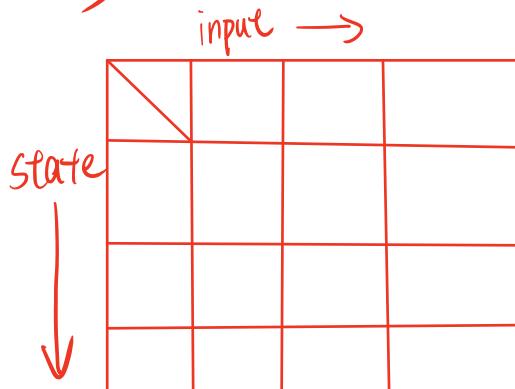
d.  $x \xrightarrow{a} Y$  if  $Y = \epsilon$ -clos( $a(x)$ )

## 0405 Implementing Finite Automata

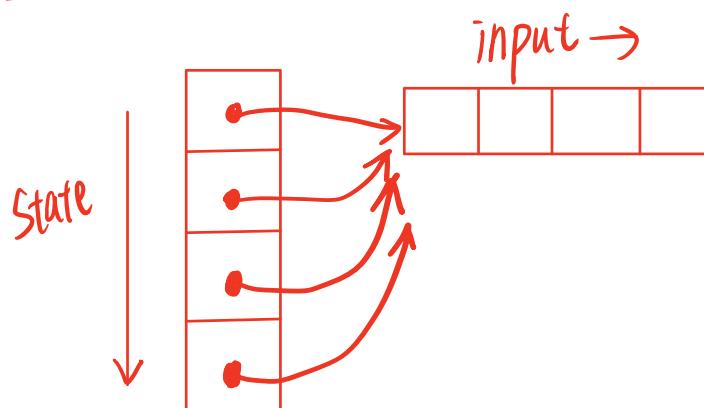
### ① Steps of lexical analysis:



- ② a DFA can be implemented by a 2D table T
- one dimension is states
  - other dimension is input symbol
  - for every transition  $S_i \xrightarrow{a} S_k$  define  $T[i, a] = k$



memory efficient way:



- ③ table-driven implementation for NFA,  
column for  $\epsilon$  is needed

- ④ trade-off: DFA vs NFA       $\xrightarrow{\text{possible } 2^n - 1 \text{ states}}$

DFA

faster,

less compact

NFA

slower,

concise

## 0501 Introduction to Parsing

① for a parser:

input: sequence of tokens from lexer

output: parse tree of the program

## 0502 Context-Free Grammars

① components:

- a. a set of terminals ( $T$ )
- b. a set of non-terminals ( $N$ )
- c. a start symbol  $S$  (SEN)
- d. a set of productions

$$X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n$$

$$X \in N$$

$$Y_i \in N \cup T \cup \{\epsilon\}$$

② procedures:

- a. begin with a string with only the start symbol  $S$
- b. replace any non-terminal  $X$  in the string by the right-hand side of some production  $X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n$
- c. repeat (b) until there are no non-terminals

### ③ CFG:

let  $G$  be a context-free grammar with start symbol  $S$ . Then the language  $L(G)$  of  $G$  is:

$$\{a_1 \dots a_n \mid (\forall i \ a_i \in T) \wedge (S \xrightarrow{*} a_1 \dots a_n)\}$$

## 0503 Derivations

### ① parsing tree

### ② left/right-derivations

and left/right-derivations have the same  
parsing tree

## 0504 Ambiguity

a grammar is ambiguous if it has more than one  
parse tree for some string

## 0601 Error Handling

### ① purpose of the compiler is:

- a. detect non-valid program
- b. translate the valid ones

## ② modes of error handling:-

### a. panic mode:-

when an error is detected, discard tokens until one with a clear role is found. Continue from there.

### b. error production:-

specify known common mistakes in the grammar

### c. error correction:-

try token insertion and deletion  
exhaustive search

## 0602 Abstract Syntax Trees (abbr. AST)

With more details added than parsing tree:

removing parentheses in trees

removing redundant nodes

...

## 0603 Recursive Descent Parsing (top-down parsing)

building trees according to the rules  
in-order using backtracking, checking

When encountering terminals.

Once matched, advance the pointer by one.

## 0604 Recursive Descent Algorithm (RDA)

① define some checking functions

a. a given token terminal

b. the n-th production of S

c. try all productions of S

② to start the parser

a. initialize next to point to first token

b. invoke the main parsing functions

③ Limitations

sufficient for grammars where for any non-terminal at most one production can succeed

## 0605 Left Recursion

- ① a left-recursive grammar has a non-terminal  $S$  such that:

$$S \rightarrow^* Sd \text{ for some } d$$

and RDA will not work with left recursion problem

- ② in general:

$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow Sd_1 | \dots | Sd_n | \beta_1 | \dots | \beta_m \\ \hookrightarrow & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow \beta_i S' | \dots | \beta_m S' \\ S \rightarrow d_i S' | \dots | d_n S' | \epsilon \end{array} \right. \end{aligned}$$

## 0701 Predictive Parsing

- ① predictive parsers accept LL( $K$ ) grammars

left-to-right  
left-most derivation  
 $K$  tokens lookahead

- ② left-factorize

add extra symbol to delay the decision to choose from 2 branches with same prefix

e.g.  $E \rightarrow T + E \mid T$

$$\xrightarrow{\quad} E \rightarrow TX$$

$$X \rightarrow +E \mid \epsilon$$

## 0702 First Sets

① LL1 Parsing table:

$$T[A, t] = \lambda$$

a. if  $\alpha \xrightarrow{*} t\beta$ , then  $t \in \text{First}(\alpha)$

b. If  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  and  $\alpha \xrightarrow{*} \epsilon$  and  $S \xrightarrow{*} \beta A \gamma$ ,

then  $t \in \text{Follow}(A)$ , follow sets are always sets of terminals

② definition of First Sets:

$$\text{First}(X) = \{t \mid X \xrightarrow{*} t\alpha\} \cup \{\epsilon \mid X \xrightarrow{*} \epsilon\}$$

algorithm sketch for finding first sets

a.  $\text{First}(t) = \{t\}$ ,  $t$  is terminal

b.  $\epsilon \in \text{First}(X)$

- if  $X \xrightarrow{*} \epsilon$

- if  $X \xrightarrow{*} A_1 \dots A_n$  and  $\epsilon \in \text{First}(A_i)$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$

c.  $\text{First}(\alpha) \subseteq \text{First}(X)$  if  $X \xrightarrow{*} A_1 \dots A_n$  and  $\epsilon \in \text{First}(A_i)$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$

### 0703 Follow Sets

① if  $X \rightarrow AB$  then  $\text{First}(B) \subseteq \text{Follow}(A)$

$\text{Follow}(X) \subseteq \text{Follow}(B)$

- if  $B \xrightarrow{*} \epsilon$  then  $\text{Follow}(X) \subseteq \text{Follow}(A)$

- if  $S$  is the start symbol then  $\$ \in \text{Follow}(S)$

② algorithm sketch for finding follow sets

a.  $\$ \in \text{Follow}(S)$

b.  $\text{First}(\beta) - \{\epsilon\} \subseteq \text{Follow}(X)$  for each production  $A \rightarrow \alpha X \beta$

c.  $\text{Follow}(A) \subseteq \text{Follow}(X)$  for each production  $A \rightarrow \alpha X \beta$  where  $\epsilon \in \text{First}(\beta)$

### 0704 LLI Parsing Tables

① construct a parsing table  $T$  for CFG  $G$  for each production  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  in  $G$  do:

a. for each terminal  $t \in \text{First}(\alpha)$  do  $T[A, t] = \alpha$

b. if  $\epsilon \in \text{First}(\alpha)$ , for each  $t \in \text{Follow}(A)$  do  
 $T[A, t] = \alpha$

c. if  $\epsilon \in \text{First}(\alpha)$  and  $\$ \in \text{Follow}(A)$  do  $T[A, \$] = \alpha$

② if any entry is multiply defined then  $G$  is not LL(1)

## 0705 Bottom-Up Parsing

① a bottom-up parser traces a rightmost derivation in reverse

## 0706 Shift-Reduce Parsing

① idea: split string into 2 substrings

- right substring is as yet unexamined by parsing

- left substring has terminals and non-terminals
- dividing point is marked by |

② shift/move and reduce

- shift = move | one place to the right

- reduce = apply an inverse production at the right end of the left string

## 0801 Handles

- ① Want to reduce only if the result can still be reduced to the start symbol

handle formalize the above intuition: which is a reduction that also allows further reduction back to the start symbol

## 0802 Recognizing Handles

- ① Viable prefix:  $\alpha$  is a viable prefix if there is an  $w$  such that  $\alpha|w$  is a state of a shift-reduce parser

- ② about bottom-up parsing:

for any grammar, the set of viable prefixes is a regular language

## 0803 Recognizing Viable Prefixes

Grammar Rules  
↓

- ① rules:

- a. add a dummy production  $S^* \rightarrow S$  to  $G$
- b. the NFA states are the items of  $G$  including the extra production

c. for item  $E \rightarrow \alpha . X\beta$  add transition

$$E \rightarrow \alpha . X\beta \xrightarrow{X} E \rightarrow \alpha X . \beta$$

d. for item  $E \rightarrow \alpha . X\beta$  and production  $X \rightarrow \gamma$

$$\text{add } E \rightarrow \alpha . X\beta \xrightarrow{\epsilon} X \rightarrow . \gamma$$

e. every state is an accepting state

f. start state is  $S^* \rightarrow S$

## 0804 Valid Items

① item  $X \rightarrow \beta . \gamma$  is valid for a viable prefix

$\alpha\beta$  if  $S^* \alpha X w \rightarrow \alpha\beta\gamma w$

② an item  $I$  is valid for a viable prefix  $\alpha$  if  
the DFA recognizing viable prefixes terminates  
on input  $\alpha$  in a state  $s$  containing  $I$

③ the items in  $S$  describe what the top of the  
item stack might be after reading input  $\alpha$

# 0805 SLR (Simple LR) Parsing

① LR(0) Parsing: Assume

a. stack contains  $\alpha$

b. next input is  $t$

c. DFA on input  $\alpha$  terminates in state  $s$

→ Reduced by  $X \rightarrow \beta$  if  $s$  contains item  $X \rightarrow \beta$ .

→ Shift if  $s$  contains item  $X \rightarrow \beta.tw$  which is equivalent to saying  $s$  has transition labeled  $t$

then LR(0) has a reduce/reduce conflict if:

any state has 2 reduces items =  $X \rightarrow \beta$  and  $X \rightarrow w$ .

LR(0) has a shift/reduce conflict if:

any state has a reduce item and a shift item:

$X \rightarrow \beta$  and  $Y \rightarrow w.t\delta$

② SLR:

add one condition to LR(0):

in Reduce by  $X \rightarrow \beta$  if

-  $s$  contains item  $X \rightarrow \beta$ .

-  $t \in \text{Follow}(X)$

③ we can parse more grammars by using precedence declarations. e.g. '\*' (multiplication) has a higher precedence than '+' (addition).

## ④ overall algorithm for SLR parsing

1. Let  $M$  be DFA for viable prefixes of  $G$
2. Let  $|x_1 \dots x_n \$$  be initial configuration
3. Repeat until configuration is  $S | \$$ 
  - Let  $\alpha | \omega$  be current configuration
  - Run  $M$  on current stack  $\alpha$
  - If  $M$  rejects  $\alpha$ , report parsing error not necessarily needed
    - Stack  $\alpha$  is not a viable prefix
  - If  $M$  accepts  $\alpha$  with items  $I$ , let  $a$  be next input
    - Shift if  $X \rightarrow \beta. a \gamma \in I$
    - Reduce if  $X \rightarrow \beta. \in I$  and  $a \in \text{Follow}(X)$
    - Report parsing error if neither applies

## 0806 SLR Parsing Example

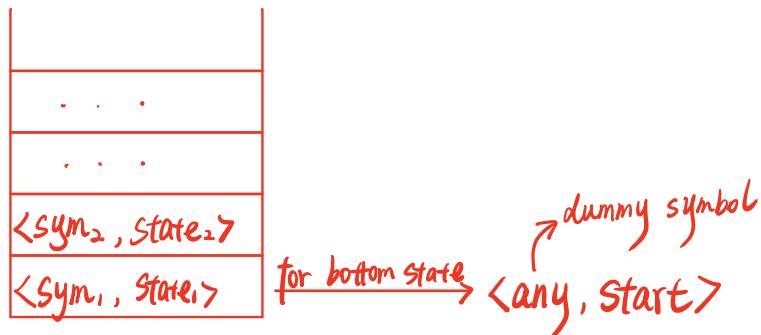
notice that after reduction, it need to restart the whole process

## 0807 SLR Improvements

① reduce the work of reading prefix of a stack in each step. Change stack to contain pairs:

$\langle \text{Symbol}, \text{DFA state} \rangle$

that is, the stack will be like



②  $\text{goto}^{\text{table}}$  is just the transition function of the DFA  
 $\text{goto}[i, A] = j$  if  $\text{state}_i \xrightarrow{A} \text{state}_j$

### ③ action table

For each state  $s_i$  and terminal  $a$

- If  $s_i$  has item  $X \rightarrow \alpha.a\beta$  and  $\text{goto}[i,a] = j$  then  $\text{action}[i,a] = \text{shift } j$
- If  $s_i$  has item  $X \rightarrow \alpha.$  and  $a \in \text{Follow}(X)$  and  $X \neq S'$  then  $\text{action}[i,a] = \text{reduce } X \rightarrow \alpha$
- If  $s_i$  has item  $S' \rightarrow S.$  then  $\text{action}[i,\$] = \text{accept}$
- Otherwise,  $\text{action}[i,a] = \text{error}$

## ④ SLR algorithm pseudo-code

```
Let I = w$ be initial input  
Let j = 0  
Let DFA state 1 have item S' → .S  
Let stack = < dummy, 1 >  
repeat  
    case action[top_state(stack), I[j]] of  
        shift k: push < I[j++], k >  
        reduce X → A:  
            pop |A| pairs,  
            push < X, goto[top_state(stack), X] >  
    accept: halt normally  
    error: halt and report error
```

⑤ we still need reserve symbols for later compiling steps

⑥ LR(1) is more powerful  
build lookahead into the items.  
an LR(1) item is a pair, e.g. [T → .int\*T, \$]  
which means T → int\*T reduce if lookahead is \$

## 0808 SLR Examples

Converting a grammar to DFA and check whether reduce/reduce or reduce/shift conflict exist, if exist, then the grammar will not be a SLR

## 0901 Introduction to Semantic Analysis

- ① semantic analysis is the last front-end phase.  
lexical analysis, parsing and semantic analysis can be considered as progressive filtering

## 0902 Scope

- ① static and dynamic scoping
- ② a dynamically-scoped variable refers to the closest enclosing binding in the execution of the program

## 0903 Symbol Tables

- ① a symbol table is a data structure that tracks the current bindings of identifiers

## ② operations for simple symbol tables

- a. enter-scope
- b. find-symbol
- c. add-symbol
- e. check-scope: true if a variable already defined in current scope
- f. exit-scope

## 0904 Types

① a language's type system specifies which operations are valid for which type

② statically typed

dynamically typed

untyped: machine codes

③ type checking

type inference = filling in missing type information

## 0905 Type checking

① inference rule:

$\wedge$  and

$\Rightarrow$  if-then

$x:T$   $x$  has type T

$\vdash$  if provable, then

hypothesis  
conclusio

② in the type rule used for a node e:

- hypothesis are the proofs of types of e's subexpressions
- conclusion is the type of node e

## 0906 Type environment

① a type environment gives types for free variables

- a type environment is a function from ObjectIdentifiers  
to Types

- a variable is free in an expression if it is not  
defined within the expression

② symbol  $\Omega$  is a function from ObjectIdentifiers to Types. that is, the environment  $\Omega$  will provide some information of types of the environment.  
 $\Omega$  can be treated to be assumption.

③  $\Omega[T/x]$  is a function only modify one special variable  
a.  $\Omega[T/x](x) = T$   
b.  $\Omega[T/x](y) = \Omega(y)$

e.g. let  $x_0 = T_0$  in  $e_1$

$$\frac{\Omega[T_0/x] \vdash e_1 : T_1}{\Omega \vdash \text{let } x = T_0 \text{ in } e_1 : T_1}$$

when do type checking,  $x$  is visible in  $e_1$   
while when checking  $e_1$ , we may need to add information about  $x$ . in this case,  $\Omega[T_0/x]$  will be helpful

## 0907 Subtyping

- ①  $T_i \leq T_0$ :  $T_i$  is a subtype of  $T_0$
- ②  $\Omega_C$  all environment variables in class C

## 0908 Typing Methods

- ① in Cool, method and object identifiers live in different name spaces

## 0909 Implementing Type Checking

- ① COOL type checking can be implemented in a single traversal over the AST
  - a. Type environment is passed down the tree from parent to child
  - b. Types are passed up the tree from child to parent

## 1001 Static Vs. Dynamic Typing

- ① static type can detect common errors at compile time. however, sometimes not exactly matched variable types will also run correctly.

② dynamic type : a run-time notion  
static ... : compile-time notion

③ (Simple) Soundness theorem = for all expression  $E$

$$\text{dynamic-type}(E) = \text{static-type}(\bar{E})$$

that is, the compiler would correctly predicate all  
dynamic type during execution

## 1002 Self Type

① Self type is a special static type.  
it will replace the returning type to the current  
type defining the method

## 1003 Self Type Operations

① Since  $\text{dynamic-type}(E) \leq C$ ,

which means  $\text{SELF-TYPE}_C \leq C$

a. In type checking it is always safe to replace  $\text{SELF-TYPE}_C$  by  $C$

b. This suggests one way to handle SELF-TYPE: replace all occurrences of  $\text{SELF-TYPE}_C$  by  $C$

c. recall the operations on types

i.  $T_1 \leq T_2$

ii.  $\text{lub}(T_1, T_2)$

extend all operations for self-type

$$\begin{array}{c} A \leq A \\ C \leq C \end{array}$$

1.  $\text{SELF-TYPE}_C \leq \text{SELF-TYPE}_C$  •

- In Cool we never compare SELF-TYPES coming from different classes

2.  $\text{SELF-TYPE}_C \leq T$  if  $C \leq T$

- $\text{SELF-TYPE}_C$  can be any subtype of  $C$
- This includes  $C$  itself
- Thus this is the most flexible rule we can allow

3.  $T \leq \underline{\text{SELF\_TYPE}_C}$  always false

Note:  $\text{SELF\_TYPE}_C$  can denote any subtype of  $C$ .  
in some very special case, it will be true, but it will be  
too fragile to make such a statement

4.  $T \leq T'$  (according to the rules from before)

Let  $T$  and  $T'$  be any types but  $\text{SELF\_TYPE}$

1.  $\text{lub}(\text{SELF\_TYPE}_C, \text{SELF\_TYPE}_C) = \text{SELF\_TYPE}_C$

2.  $\text{lub}(\text{SELF\_TYPE}_C, T) = \text{lub}(C, T)$

This is the best we can do because  $\text{SELF\_TYPE}_C \leq C$

3.  $\text{lub}(T, \text{SELF\_TYPE}_C) = \text{lub}(C, T)$

4.  $\text{lub}(T, T')$  defined as before

## 1004 Self Type Usage

(go through all possible places that `typeID` is needed, and check whether it is allowed to use `SELF-TYPE` in Cool)

## 1005 Self Type Checking

- ① formal parameters cannot be SELF-TYPE  
actual argument can be SELF-TYPE
- ② during dispatching, the method check will check  
the signatures of the method not in the current  
subtype. but it is fine, since it only checks  
the signature instead of contents inside the  
method

## 1006 Error Recovery

- ① assign type Object to ill-typed expressions  
it will cause cascading errors
- ② introduce new type No-type
  - a. No-type  $\leq C$  for all types C
  - b. every operation is defined for No-type  
with a No-type result

## 1101 Runtime Organization

### ① a. front-end phases

└── lexical analysis  
└── parsing  
└── semantic analysis } check syntax  
                          and semantics

### b. back-end phases

└── optimization  
└── code generation

### ② When a program is invoked:

- OS allocates space for the program
- code is loaded into part of the space
- OS jumps to the entry point, i.e., "main"

## 1102 Activations

① an invocation of procedure P is an activation of P

the lifetime of an activation of P is

a. all steps to execute P

b. including all the steps in procedures P calls

② dynamic = lifetime  
static = scope

③ 2 assumptions: (may not applicable to some languages)

a. execution is sequential: control moves from one point in a program to another in a well-defined order

b. when a procedure is called, control always returns to the point immediately after the call

④ base on assumptions:

↳ When P calls Q, then Q returns before P returns.  
↳ lifetime of procedure activations are properly nested.  
which means activation lifetimes can be depicted as a tree

## 1103 Activation Records

① activation record (AR) / frame = the information needed to manage one procedure activation

② AR = result = return value  
argument = arguments when calling a function

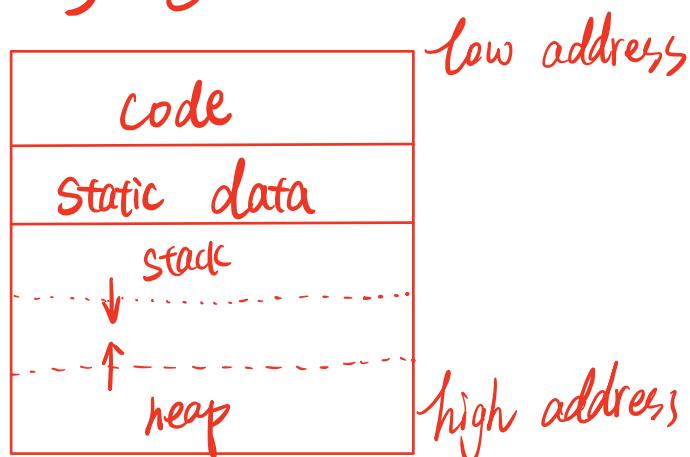
control link: pointing to the frame of a caller

return address = pointing to the address of the next command right after the callee function

## 1104 Globals & Heap

① globals are assigned a fixed address once.  
variables with fixed address are "statically allocated"

② memory layout



## 1105 alignment

(just talking some basic stuffs about aligning data in memory)

## 1106 Stack Machine

### ① a. stack machine:

location of the operands/result is not explicitly stated  
which is always on the top of the stack

### b. register machine:

directly store data into registers

### c. n-register stack machine

keep the top  $n$  locations of the pure stack  
machine's stack in registers

#### e.g. 1-register stack machine:

the register is called the accumulator

### ② expression evaluation preserves the stack

## 1201 Introduction to Code Generation

① \$a0 = 1 register holding value

\$t1 = a temporary register

\$sp = stack pointer

## 1202 Code Generation I

① A language with integers and integer operations

$P \rightarrow D; P \mid D$

$D \rightarrow \text{def id(ARGS)} = E;$   
 $\text{ARGS} \rightarrow \text{id}, \text{ARGS} \mid \text{id}$

$E \rightarrow \text{int} \mid \text{id} \mid \text{if } E_1 = E_2 \text{ then } E_3 \text{ else } E_4$   
 $\mid E_1 + E_2 \mid E_1 - E_2 \mid \text{id}(E_1, \dots, E_n)$

② for each expression e, we generate MIPS code:  
a. compute the value of e in \$a0  
b. preserve \$sp and the contents of the stack

### ③ code generation template

#### a. add

cgen( $e_1 + e_2$ ) =  
  { cgen( $e_1$ ) → code generation for  $e_1$ , result in \$a0  
    { sw \$a0 0(\$sp)  
      addiu \$sp \$sp -4 } push \$a0 of  $e_1$  in stack  
    cgen( $e_2$ ) → code generation for  $e_2$ , result in \$a1  
      lw \$t1 4(\$sp) load stored result to \$t1  
      add \$a0 \$t1 \$a0 add \$a0 and \$t1  
      addiu \$sp \$sp 4 pop result stored in stack

#### b. subtraction

cgen( $e_1 - e_2$ ) =  
  { cgen( $e_1$ )  
    sw \$a0 0(\$sp)  
    addiu \$sp \$sp -4  
  { cgen( $e_2$ )  
    lw \$t1 4(\$sp)  
    sub \$a0 \$t1 \$a0  
    addiu \$sp \$sp 4

#### c. branch

cgen(if  $e_1 = e_2$  then  $e_3$  else  $e_4$ ) =  
  cgen( $e_1$ )  
  sw \$a0 0(\$sp)  
  addiu \$sp \$sp -4  
  { cgen( $e_2$ )  
    lw \$t1 4(\$sp)  
    addiu \$sp \$sp 4  
    beq \$a0 \$t1 true\_branch

false\_branch:

cgen( $e_4$ )

b end\_if

true\_branch:

cgen( $e_3$ )

→ end\_if:

# 1203 Code Generation II

## ① code generation template

### a. function call = caller side

*caller side*

```
cgen(f(e1,...,en)) =  
    sw $fp 0($sp)  
    addiu $sp $sp -4  
    cgen(en)  
    sw $a0 0($sp)  
    addiu $sp $sp -4  
    ...  
    cgen(e1)  
    sw $a0 0($sp)  
    addiu $sp $sp -4  
    jalf entry
```

### b. function call = caller side

- New instruction: jr reg
  - Jump to address in register reg

*entry*

```
cgen(def f(x1,...,xn) = e) =  
    move $fp $sp  
    sw $ra 0($sp)  
    addiu $sp $sp -4  
    cgen(e)  
    lw $ra 4($sp)  
    addiu $sp $sp z  
    lw $fp 0($sp)  
    jr $ra
```

- Note: The frame pointer points to the top, not bottom of the frame
- The callee pops the return address, the actual arguments and the saved value of the frame pointer
- $z = 4*n + 8$  [return add. - cld fp]

## C. Variable

- Solution: use a frame pointer
  - Always points to the return address on the stack
  - Since it does not move it can be used to find the variables
- Let  $x_i$  be the  $i^{\text{th}}$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ) formal parameter of the function for which code is being generated

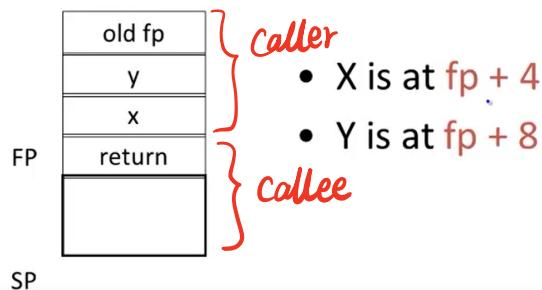
$\text{cgen}(x_i) = \text{lw } \$a0 \underline{z(\$fp)}$

*frame pointer in callee*

*( $z = 4*i$ )*

*since caller push  
the variables in reverse  
order*

Example: For a function  $\text{def f(x,y)} = e$  the activation and frame pointer are set up as follows:



## ② production compiler

Production compilers do different things

- Emphasis is on keeping values in registers
  - Especially the current stack frame
- Intermediate results are laid out in the AR, not pushed and popped from the stack

## 1204 Code Generation Example

(go through a simple example of code generation using stack machine)

## 1205 Temporaries

① decide # temporaries involved in one function

$NT(e)$ : number of temporaries

$$NT(e_1 + e_2) = \max(NT(e_1), 1 + NT(e_2))$$

$$NT(e_1 - e_2) = \max(NT(e_1), 1 + NT(e_2))$$

$$NT(\text{if } e_1 = e_2 \text{ then } e_3 \text{ else } e_4) = \max(NT(e_1), 1 + NT(e_2), NT(e_3), NT(e_4))$$

$$NT(\text{id}(e_1, \dots, e_n)) = \max(NT(e_1), \dots, NT(e_n))$$

$$NT(\text{int}) = 0$$

$$NT(\text{id}) = 0$$

② layout of AR with temporaries

- For a function definition  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = e$  the AR has 2 +  $n + NT(e)$  elements
  - Return address
  - Frame pointer
  - $n$  arguments
  - $NT(e)$  locations for intermediate results

③ add a new argument to code generation:  
the position of the next available temporaries

## 1206 Object Layout

① objects are laid out in contiguous memory

*object is a bunch of contiguous memory*  
*self* → attr1 attr2 attr3 ... ...

- a. each attribute stored in a fixed offset in the object
- b. when a method is invoked, the object is self and fields are the object's attributes.

## ② object layout

- The first 3 words of Cool objects contain header information:

	Offset
Class Tag	0
Object Size	4
Dispatch Ptr	8
Attribute 1	12
Attribute 2	16
...	

- Class tag is an integer
  - Identifies class of the object
- Object size is an integer
  - Size of the object in words
- Dispatch ptr is a pointer to a table of methods
  - More later
- Attributes in subsequent slots
- Lay out in contiguous memory

③ only need to extend fields of subclass based on parent class

Observation: Given a layout for class A, a layout for subclass B can be defined by extending the layout of A with additional slots for the additional attributes of B

Leaves the layout of A unchanged  
(B is an extension)

④ dynamic dispatch

- Every class has a fixed set of methods
  - including inherited methods
- A *dispatch table* indexes these methods
  - An array of method entry points
  - A method f lives at a fixed offset in the dispatch table for a class and all of its subclasses

- a. we separate method calls from object layout because each object of the same class will share same methods even though they may have different values for each attributes
- b. when calling a function of an object, it will bind that object to the self of the function call

## 1301 Semantics Overview

① denotational semantics: program's meaning is a mathematical function

b. axiomatic semantics: program behavior described via logical formulae

## 1302 Operational Semantics:

① track variables and their values with:

a. environment: mapping variables  $\rightarrow$  memory location  
keep track of which variables are in scope

$$E[id_1=l_1, id_2=l_2, \dots]$$

b. store: memory locations  $\rightarrow$  values  
 $S[l_1 \rightarrow v_1, l_2 \rightarrow v_2, \dots]$

c. Cool object

$X(a_1=l_1, \dots, a_n=l_n)$   
↓      ↘  
object    attribute      memory location

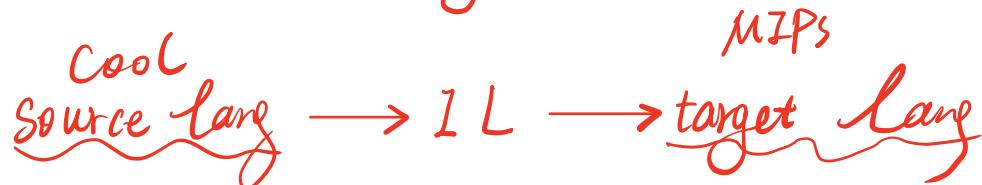
1303 Cool Semantics I  
(go through semantics of some syntax)

1304 Cool Semantics II

- ① go through semantics of class and dispatch
- ② operational semantics does not cover all the cases, and it is totally fine, since type checker has already dealt with that.

# 1401 Intermediate Code

① Intermediate code is a language between source and the target



IL has more details than source but fewer details in target

## ② three-address code

each instruction is of the form:

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

$x := \text{op } u$

# 1402 Optimization Overview

① basic block: is a maximal sequence of instructions with

- a. no labels (except at first instruction)  
no jumps (except in last instruction)

b. basic block is a single-entry, single-exit straight-line code segment

② a control-flow graph is a directed graph with

a. basic blocks as nodes

b. a edge from block A to block B  
if the execution can pass from  
last instruction of A to first instruction  
in B

## 1403 Local Optimization

① only focus on one basic block  
with no need to analyze whole procedure body

② algebraic simplification

e.g.  $x := x * 0 \quad \} \text{ delete directly since } x$   
 $x := x * 1 \quad \} \text{ not changed}$

$$x := x * 0 \Rightarrow x := 0$$

### ③ constant folding

a. e.g.  $x := 2 + 2 \Rightarrow x := 4$

b. constant folding can be dangerous:

e.g. in cross-compiler, the float point calculation result after constant folding in host machine may be different from that in target machine

c. eliminate unreachable basic blocks

d. single assignment

We can rewrite codes such that all variables are only assigned once

i. common subexpression elimination:

If 2 assignments are assigned same expression, we can replace the expression in 2nd assignment with the assigned variable in the 1st assignment.

e.g.  $a := e + f$      $\Rightarrow$      $a := e + f$   
       $b := e + f$      $\Rightarrow$      $b := a$

ii. copy/constant propagation:

replace variables in later assignment with variable directly used

e.g.  $b := z + y$        $b := z + y$   
 $a := b$        $\Rightarrow a := b$   
 $x := 2 * a$        $x := 2 * b$

## 1404 Peephole Optimization

① a. Optimization can be directly applied to assembly code.

b. Peephole optimization is a short sequence of instructions

## 1501 Dataflow Analysis

Global optimization tasks share several traits:

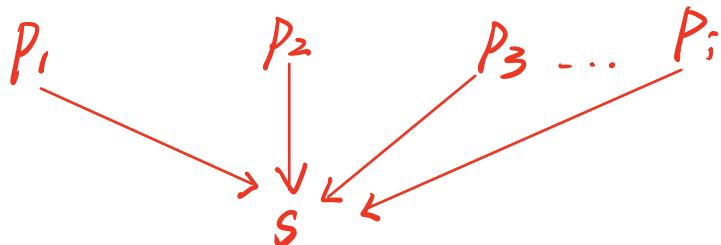
- The optimization depends on knowing a property  $X$  at a particular point in program execution
- Proving  $X$  at any point requires knowledge of the entire program
- It is OK to be conservative. If the optimization requires  $X$  to be true, then want to know either
  - $X$  is definitely true
  - Don't know if  $X$  is true
  - It is always safe to say "don't know"

## 1502 Constant Propagation

① Symbol:

$$\pi = \begin{cases} T & \text{value of } x \text{ not known} \\ \perp & \text{statement not executed, i.e., this path} \\ C & \text{value of } x \text{ is } C \end{cases}$$

would never be  
possible to reach

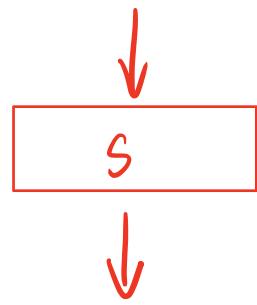


rule 1: If  $C(p_i, \pi, \text{out}) = T$  for any  $i$ , then  
 $C(s, \pi, \text{in}) = T$

rule 2: If  $C(p_i, \pi, \text{out}) = C \& C(p_j, \pi, \text{out}) = d$   
 $\& d < > c$  then  $C(s, \pi, \text{in}) = T$

rule 3: if  $C(p_i, \pi, \text{out}) = C$  or  $\perp$  for all  $i$ ,  
at least one  
then  $C(s, \pi, \text{in}) = C$

rule 4: if  $C(p_i, \pi, \text{out}) = \perp$  for all  $i$ ,  
then  $C(s, \pi, \text{in}) = \perp$



rule 5 (with lowest priority)

if  $C(s, x, \text{in}) = \perp$ ,  
then  $C(s, x, \text{out}) = \perp$

rule 6

if  $c$  is a constant

$$C(x := c, x, \text{out}) = c$$

rule 7

$$C(x := f(\dots), x, \text{out}) = T$$

complicate expression for  $x$

rule 8

if  $x < > y$ , where  $y$  is assignment in  $S$   
 $C(y := \dots, x, \text{out}) = C(y := \dots, x, \text{in})$

## ② algorithm

1. For every entry  $s$  to the program, set  $C(s, x, \text{in}) = T$
2. Set  $C(s, x, \text{in}) = C(s, x, \text{out}) = \perp$  everywhere else
3. Repeat until all points satisfy 1-8:  
Pick  $s$  not satisfying 1-8 and update using the appropriate rule

## 1503 Analysis of Loops

① to avoid entering into a infinite loop during analysis, we need to set an initial value  $\perp$  to break the loop.

## 1504 Ordering

① ordering of abstract value

$$\perp < c < T$$

② lub operation on abstract value

then rules 1-4 (in 1502) can represented

Q5

$$C(s, \infty, \text{in}) = \text{lub} \{ C(p, \infty, \text{out}) \mid p \text{ is a predecessor of } s \}$$

- ③ ordering explains why constance propagation terminates, since lub operation only increase at most to T

then

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Number of Steps (for constance propagation)} \\ &= \text{Number of } C(\dots) \text{ values computed} * 2 \\ &= \text{Number of program statements} * 4 \end{aligned}$$

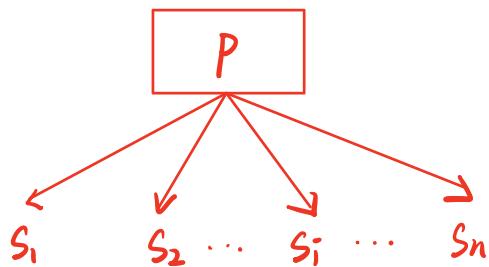
## 1505 Liveness Analysis

① Live means may be used in the future

- ② A variable  $x$  is live at statement  $s$  if
- There exists a statement  $\underline{s'}$  that uses  $x$
  - There is a path from  $s$  to  $s'$
  - That path has no intervening assignment to  $x$

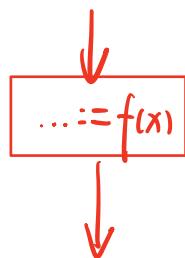
③

rule 1:



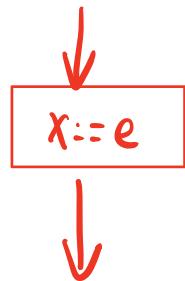
$$L(p, \varpi, \text{out}) = \bigvee \{ L(s, \varpi, \text{in}) \mid s \text{ a successor of } p \}$$

rule 2:



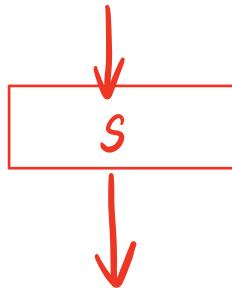
$$L(s, \varpi, \text{in}) = \text{true if } s \text{ refers to } \varpi \text{ on rhs}$$

rule 3:



$$L(x := e, \varpi, \text{in}) = \text{false if } e \text{ does not refer to } \varpi$$

rule 4:



$L(s, x, \text{in}) = L(s, x, \text{out})$  if  $s$  does not refer to  $x$

## ② algorithm

1. Let all  $L(\dots) = \text{false}$  initially
2. Repeat until all statements  $s$  satisfy rules 1-4  
Pick  $s$  where one of 1-4 does not hold and update  
using the appropriate rule

## 160 | Register Allocation

① rewrite intermediate code to use no more temporaries than there are machine registers

method:

- assign multiple temporaries to each register
- without changing problem behavior

②

Temporaries  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  can share the same register if at any point in the program at most one of  $t_1$  or  $t_2$  is live.

Or

If  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are live at the same time, they cannot share a register

③ register Interference graph (RIG)

- a node for each temporary
- an edge between  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  if they are live simultaneously at some point in the program

## 1602 Graph Coloring

① graph coloring is NP-hard problem

use heuristic method:

Observation:

- Pick a node  $t$  with fewer than  $k$  neighbors in RIG
- Eliminate  $t$  and its edges from RIG
- If resulting graph is  $k$ -colorable, then so is the original graph

## algorithm:

### Graph Coloring

1

- The following works well in practice:
  - Pick a node  $t$  with fewer than  $k$  neighbors
  - Put  $t$  on a stack and remove it from the RIG
  - Repeat until the graph is empty

2

- Assign colors to nodes on the stack
  - Start with the last node added
  - At each step pick a color different from those assigned to already colored neighbors

## 1603 Spilling

① When graph-coloring fails with given number of registers in machine, we need to spill some registers, i.e., store them

some where in memory stack

Steps:

When we can not choose any nodes with less than  $k$  edges ( $k$  is number of registers in machine)

a. random pick one node  $N$ , and

remove it from graph and continue  
do graph-coloring for rest of the nodes

b. after all nodes are removed from graph  
and pop nodes from stack.

when popping  $N$ , we can check whether it  
can be properly colored, which is  
called optimistic coloring

if optimistic coloring fails, we need to  
allocate a memory location for  $f$ , we  
call the address  $fa$ .

then we need insert codes into original  
codes:

- Before each operation that reads  $f$ , insert  
 $f := \text{load } fa$
- After each operation that writes  $f$ , insert  
store  $f, fa$

## ② when deciding which node to do spilling

Possible heuristics:

- Spill temporaries with most conflicts
- Spill temporaries with few definitions and uses
- Avoid spilling in inner loops

## 1604 Managing Caches

(elaborate cache managing by showing an example of loop interchanging)

## 1701 Automatic Memory Management

① an object  $x$  is reachable if and only if:

- a register contains a pointer to  $x$ , or
- another reachable object  $y$  contains a pointer to  $x$

② reachability is an approximation:

an object allocated but not referenced will never be able to be used again.

However, an object<sup>is</sup> being referenced does not guarantee it is always needed in future, since we can assign value to a variable but never use that variable.

Thus, reachability is an approximation.

### ③ algorithm for garbage collection in CooL

- Every garbage collection scheme has the following steps
  1. Allocate space as needed for new objects
  2. When space runs out:
    - a) Compute what objects might be used again (generally by tracing objects reachable from a set of "root" registers)
    - b) Free the space used by objects not found in (a)
- Some strategies perform garbage collection before the space actually runs out

## 1702 Mark and Sweep

### ① mark phase:

mark all reachable object with 1 in the special bit

```

// mark phase

let todo = { all roots }
while todo ≠ ∅ do
    pick v ∈ todo
    todo ← todo - { v }
    if mark(v) = 0 then    // v is unmarked yet
        mark(v) ← 1
        let v1,...,vn be the pointers contained in v
        todo ← todo ∪ {v1,...,vn}
    fi
od

```

## ② Sweep phase

- The sweep phase scans the heap looking for objects with mark bit 0
  - these objects were not visited in the mark phase
  - they are garbage
- Any such object is added to the free list
- Objects with a mark bit 1 have their mark bit reset to 0

```

// sweep phase
// sizeof(p) is the size of block starting at p

p ← bottom of heap
while p < top of heap do
    if mark(p) = 1 then
        mark(p) ← 0
    else
        add block p...(p+sizeof(p)-1) to freelist
    fi
    p ← p + sizeof(p)
od

```

### ③ Space for todo list when mark phase:

when we do GC, we usually run out of heap. thus, we may not be able to allocate enough space to store all nodes for todo list in heap directly.

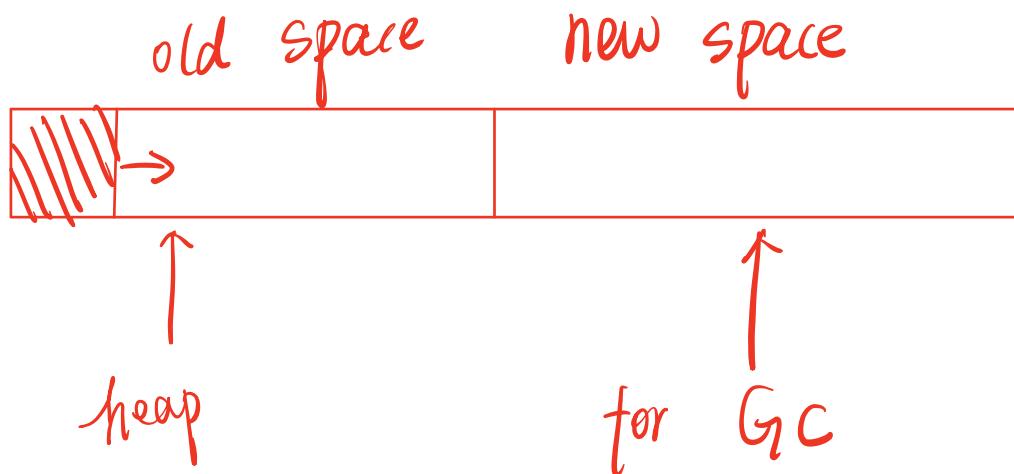
then we can use reverse pointer to handle this

### ④ a. Mark and Sweep do not move position of pointers

b. mark and sweep can fragment memory after sweeping. thus, it is necessary to merge free space into one big block

## 1703 Stop and Copy

- ① reserve half of the space for GC



When old space is full, GC would copy reachable objects in heap into new space, and switch roles of old and new space

- ② update value of pointers in new copied area

### ③ complete algorithm for Stop and copy

```
while scan <> alloc do
    let O be the object at scan pointer
    for each pointer p contained in O do
        find O' that p points to
        if O' is without a forwarding pointer
            copy O' to new space (update alloc pointer)
            set a word of old O' to point to the new copy
            change p to point to the new copy of O'
        else
            set p in O equal to the forwarding pointer
        fi
    end for
    increment scan pointer to the next object
od
```

## 1704 Conservative Collection

① treat all data looks like a memory address as pointer

a. it must be aligned

b. it must point to a valid address in data segment

② we can not move an object. if we do so, we may change the value of something not like integer (e.g. integer)

## 1705 Reference Counting

① using a counter to record the number of being referenced. When the counter goes to 0, the object will become unreachable and be freed

## 1801 Java

(talking about history of Java)

## 1802 Java Arrays

① Subtyping rule for Java Array:

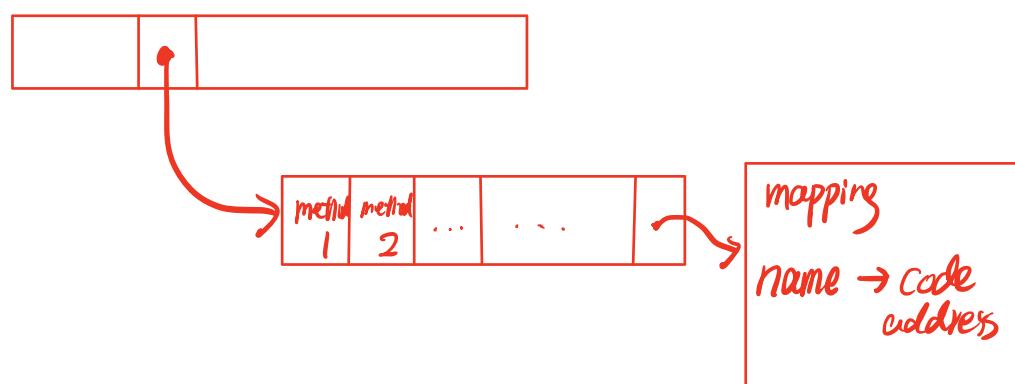
$A[] \subset B[]$  if  $A=B$

## 1803 Java Exception

- ① exception happened in object finalization  
if it is not handled by itself in  
that finalization would simply be ignored

## 1804 Java Interface

- ① Since Java class could implements multiple interfaces, it is not possible to guarantee methods are put in a fixed offset.



## 1805 Java Coercions

① a coercion is just a primitive function the compiler inserts for programmer

② types of coercions/casts

widening = always succeed ( $\text{int} \rightarrow \text{float}$ )

narrowing = may fail if data can't be converted to desired type  
( $\text{float} \rightarrow \text{int}$ , downcasts)

③ coercion could lead to surprising result

## 1806 Java Threads

(talking about thread features of Java)

## 1807 Other Topics

① a class is initialized when a symbol in the class is first used instead of loading class.

→ this makes initialization error predictable.  
If we do so on class loading, it will become somehow random since when a class loading is hard to predicate.

② brief steps of how to initialize a class

1. Lock the class object for the class
  - Wait on the lock if another thread has locked it
2. If the same thread is already initializing this class, release lock and return
3. If class already initialized, return normally
4. Otherwise, mark initialization as in progress by this thread and unlock class

5. Initialize superclass, fields (in textual order)
  - But initialize static, final fields first
  - Give every field a default value before initialization
6. Any errors result in an incorrectly initialized class, mark class as erroneous
7. If no errors, lock class, label class as initialized, notify threads waiting on class object, unlock class