

# Location for Activation Record

- Depending upon language, activation record can be created in the static, stack or heap area
- Creation in Static Area:
  - Early languages, like FORTRAN
  - Address of all arguments, local variables etc. are preset at compile time itself
  - To pass parameters, values are copied into these locations at the time of invoking the procedure and copied back on return
  - There can be a single activation of a procedure at a time
  - Recursive procedures cannot be implemented



# Location for Activation Record

- Creation in Stack Area:
  - Used for languages like C, Pascal, Java etc.
  - As and when a procedure is invoked, corresponding activation record is pushed onto the stack
  - On return, entry is popped out
  - Works well if local variables are not needed beyond the procedure body
- For languages like LISP, in which a full function may be returned, activation record created in the heap



# Processor Registers

- Also a part of the runtime environment
- Used to store temporaries, local variables, global variables and some special information
- Program counter points to the statement to be executed next
- Stack pointer points to the top of the stack
- Frame pointer points to the current activation record
- Argument pointer points to the area of the activation record reserved for arguments



# Environment Types

- Stack based environment without local procedures – common for languages like C
- Stack based environment with local procedures – followed for block structured languages like Pascal



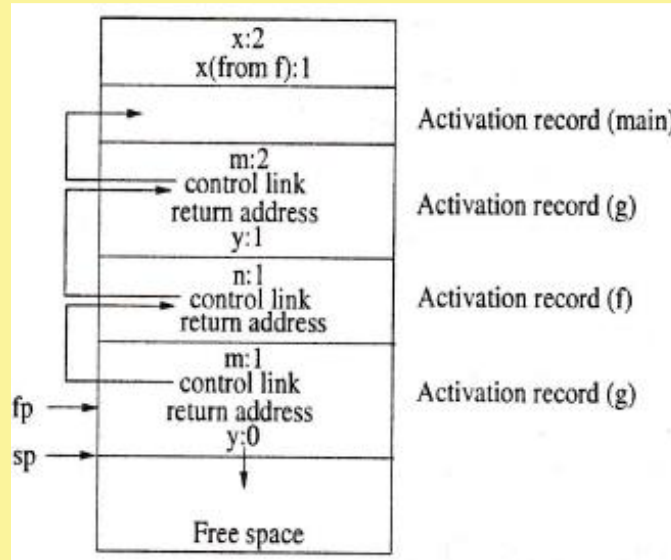
# Environment without Local Procedures

- For languages where all procedures are global
- Stack based environment needs two things about activation records
  - Frame pointer: Pointer to the current activation record to allow access to local variables and parameters
  - Control link / Dynamic link: Kept in current activation record to record position of the immediately preceding activation record



# Environment without Local Procedures

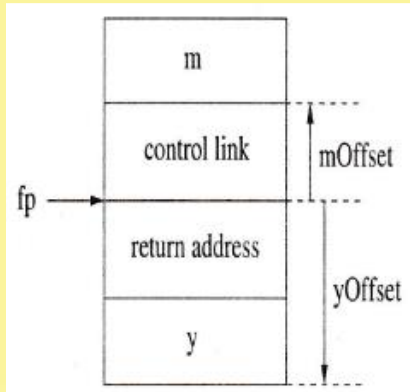
```
int x = 2;
void f( int n ) {
    static int x = 1;
    g(n);
    x--;
}
void g( int m ) {
    int y = m - 1;
    if (y > 0) {
        f(y);
        x--;
    }
}
main() {
    g(x); return 0;
}
```



Snapshot of program execution after main has called g, g has called f and f has in turn called g

# Accessing Variables

- Parameters and local variables found by offset from the current frame pointer
- Offsets can be calculated statically by the compiler
- Consider procedure g with parameter m and local variable y



$mOffset = \text{size of control link} = +4 \text{ bytes}$

$yOffset = -(\text{size of } y + \text{size of return address}) = -6$

Hence, m and y can be accessed by  $4(fp)$  and  $-6(fp)$

# Activation Record Creation

At a call	
Caller	Callee
<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Allocate basic frame</li><li>2. Store parameters</li><li>3. Store return address</li><li>4. Save caller-saved registers</li><li>5. Store self frame pointer</li><li>6. Set frame pointer for child</li><li>7. Jump to child</li></ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Save callee saved registers, state</li><li>2. Extend frame for locals</li><li>3. Initialize locals</li><li>4. Fall through to code</li></ol>
At a return	
Caller	Callee
<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Copy return value</li><li>2. Deallocate basic frame</li><li>3. Restore caller-saved registers</li></ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Store return value</li><li>2. Restore callee-saved registers, state</li><li>3. Unextend frame</li><li>4. Restore parent's frame pointer</li><li>5. Jump to return address</li></ol>



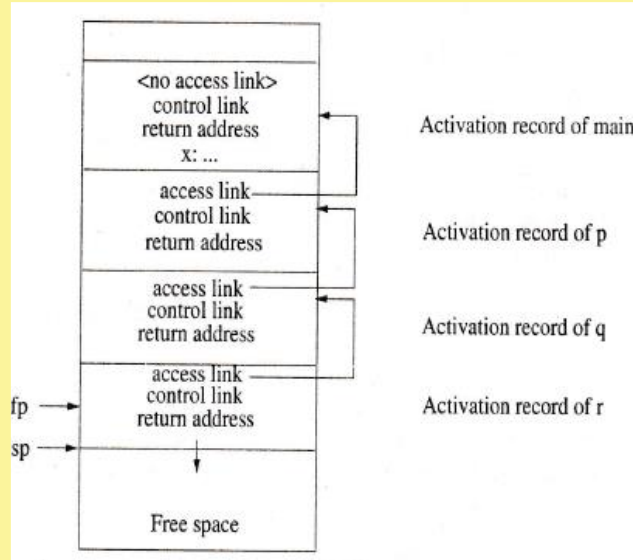
# Environment with Local Procedures

- For supporting local procedures, variables may have various scopes
- To determine the definition to be used for a reference to a variable, it is needed to access non-local, non-global variables
- These definitions are local to one of the procedures nesting the current one – need to look into the activation records of nesting procedures
- Solution is to keep extra bookkeeping information, called *access link*, pointing to the activation record for the defining environment of a procedure



# Environment with Local Procedures

```
program chaining;  
procedure p;  
var x: integer;  
procedure q;  
  procedure r  
  begin  
    x := 2;  
    ...  
    if ... Then p;  
  end {of r}  
begin  
  r;  
end {of q}  
begin  
  q;  
end {of p}  
begin {of main}  
  p;  
end.
```



- Current procedure r
- To locate definition of x, it has to traverse through the activation records using access links
- When the required procedure containing definition of x is reached, it is accessed via offset from the corresponding frame pointer

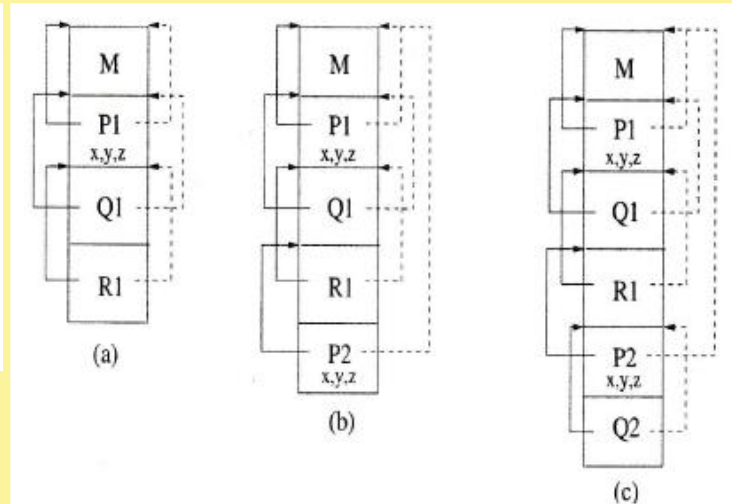
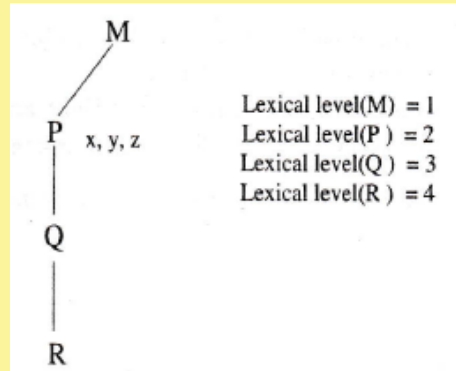
# Compiler's Responsibility

- Proper code to access the correct definitions:
  - Find difference  $d$  between the lexical nesting level of declaration of the name and the lexical nesting level of the procedure referring to it
  - Generate code for following  $d$  access links to reach the right activation record
  - Generate code to access the variable through offset mechanism



# Example

```
program M;  
  procedure P;  
    var x, y, z;  
    procedure Q;  
      procedure R;  
        begin  
          ... z = P; ...  
        end R;  
      begin  
        ... y = R; ...  
      end Q;  
    begin  
      ... x = Q; ...  
    end P;  
  begin  
    ... P; ...  
  end M;
```



# DISPLAY

- Difficulty in non-local definitions is to search by following access links
- Particularly for virtual paging environment, certain portion of the stack containing activation records may be swapped out, access may be very slow
- To access variables without search, *display* is used



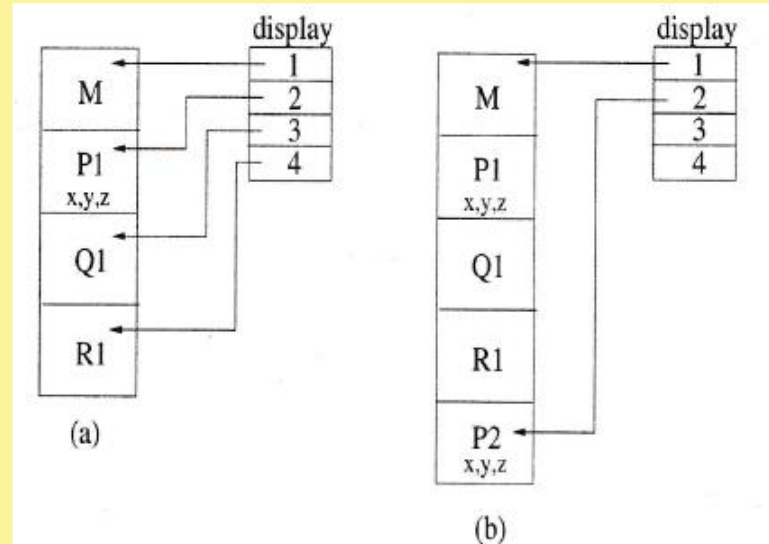
# Display

- Display  $d$  is a global array of pointers to activation records, indexed by the lexical nesting depth
- Element  $d[i]$  points to the most recent activation of the block at nesting depth  $i$
- A nonlocal  $X$  is found as follows:
  - If the most closely nested declaration of  $X$  is at nesting depth  $i$ , then  $d[i]$  points to activation record containing the location for  $X$
  - Use relative address within the activation record to access  $X$



# Example

- Maximum nesting depth 4, so 4 entries in the display
- In Fig (a), M has called P, P has called Q and Q has in turn called R
- Compiler knows that x is in procedure P at lexical level 2
- Code is generated to access second entry of the display to reach the activation record of P directly
- Same is in Fig (b)



# Maintaining Display

- When a procedure  $P$  at nesting depth  $i$  is called, following actions are taken:
  - Save value of  $d[i]$  in the activation record for  $P$
  - Set  $d[i]$  to point to new activation record
- When a procedure  $P$  finishes:
  - $d[i]$  is reset to the value stored in the activation record of  $P$





# Example

1. Program X
2. var x, y, z;
3. Procedure P
4.     var a;
5.     begin (of P)
6.         a = Q
7.     end (of P)
8. Procedure Q
9.     Procedure R
10.     begin (of R)
11.         P
12.     end (of R)
13.     begin (of Q)
14.         R
15.     end (of Q)
16.     begin (of X)
17.         P
18.         Q
19.     end (of X)

- Show the snapshots of the stack of activation records at the time of executing line nos. 6, 11, 14, 17, 18
- Show the corresponding displays

# Conclusion

- Data structure activation record contains necessary information to control program execution
- Compiler writer must generate appropriate code for operations
- A small array, display, helps in the process
- Display management becomes a part of compiler's responsibility





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# Compiler Design

## Intermediate Code Generation

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- ☐ Intermediate Languages
- ☐ Intermediate Language Design Issues
- ☐ Intermediate Representation Techniques
- ☐ Statements in Three-Address Code
- ☐ Implementation of Three-Address Instructions
- ☐ Three-Address Code Generation
- ☐ Conclusion

# Intermediate Code

- Compilers are designed to produce a representation of input program in some hypothetical language or data structure
- Representations between the source language and the target machine language programs
- Offers several advantages
  - Closer to target machine, hence easier to generate code from
  - More or less machine independent, makes it easier to retarget the compiler to various different target processors
  - Allows variety of machine-independent optimizations
  - Can be implemented via syntax-directed translation, can be folded into parsing by augmenting the parser



# Intermediate Languages

- Can be classified into – High-level representation and Low-level representation

## High-level Representation

- Closer to source language program
- Easy to generate from input program
- Code optimization difficult, since input program is not broken down sufficiently

## Low-level Representation

- Closer to target machine
- Easy to generate final code from
- Good amount of effort in generation from the source code



# Intermediate Language Design Issues

- Set of operators in intermediate language must be rich enough to allow the source language to be implemented
- A small set of operations in the intermediate language makes it easy to retarget
- Intermediate code operations that are closely tied to a particular machine or architecture can make it harder to port
- A small set of intermediate code operations may lead to long instruction sequences for some source language constructs. Implies more work during optimization



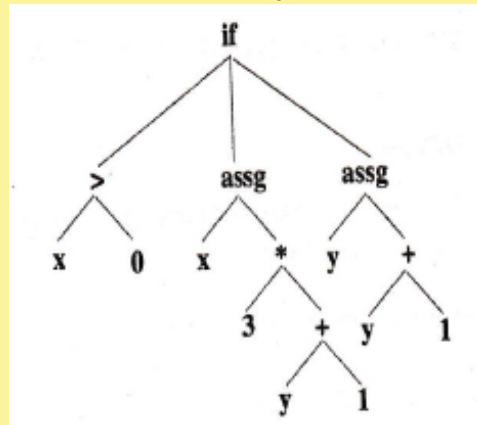


# Intermediate Representation Techniques

- High-level Representation
  - Abstract Syntax Trees
  - Directed Acyclic Graphs
  - P-code
- Low-level Representation

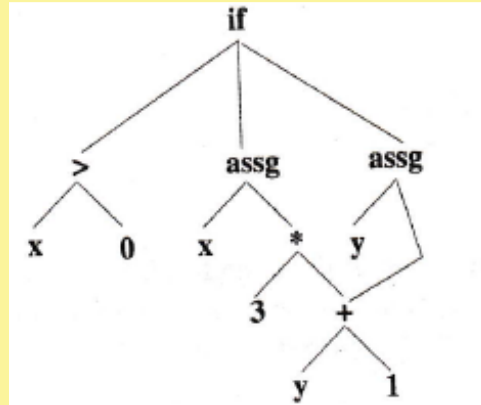
# Abstract Syntax Tree

- Compact form of parse tree
- Represents hierarchical structure of a program
- Nodes represent operators, children of a node the operands
- Example: “if  $x > 0$  then  $x = 3 * (y + 1)$  else  $y = y + 1$ ”



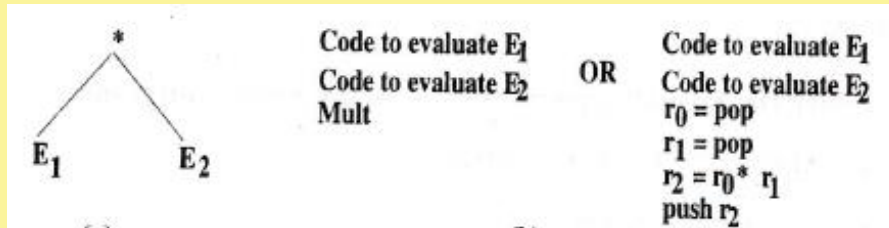
# Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG)

- Similar to syntax tree
- Common subexpressions represented by single node



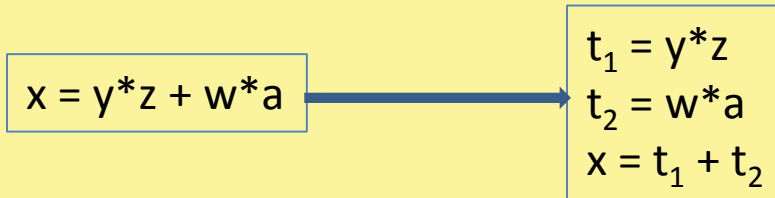
# P-code

- Used for stack based virtual machines
- Operands are always found on the top of the stack
- May need to push operands to the stack first
- Syntax tree to P-code:



# Low-level Representation – Three Address Code

- Sequence of instructions of the form “ $x = y \text{ op } z$ ”
- Only one operator permitted in the right hand side
- Due to its simplicity, offers better flexibility in terms of target code generation and code optimization



# Statements in Three-Address Code

- Intermediate languages usually have the following types of statements
  - Assignment
  - Jumps
  - Address and Pointer Assignments
  - Procedure Call/Return
  - Miscellaneous

# Assignment Statement

- Three types of assignment statements
  - $x = y \text{ op } z$ ,  $\text{op}$  being a binary operator
  - $x = \text{op } y$ ,  $\text{op}$  being a unary operator
  - $x = y$
- For all operators in the source language, there should be a counterpart in the intermediate language



# Jump Statement

- Both conditional and unconditional jumps are required
  - goto L, L being a label
  - if x relop y goto L





# Indexed Assignment

- Only one-dimensional arrays need to be supported
- Arrays of higher dimensions are converted to one-dimensional arrays
- Statements to be supported
  - $x = y[i]$
  - $x[i] = y$

# Address and Pointer Assignments

- Statements required are of following types
  - $x = \&y$ , address of  $y$  assigned to  $x$
  - $x = *y$ , content of location pointed to by  $y$  is assigned to  $x$
  - $x = y$ , simple pointer assignment, where  $x$  and  $y$  are pointer variables



# Procedure Call/Return

- A call to the procedure  $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is converted as  
param x1  
param x2  
...  
param xn
- A procedure is implemented using the following statements  
enter f, Setup and initialization  
leave f, Cleanup actions (if any)  
return  
return x  
retrieve x, Save returned value in x

