

## 1. P-Code

2. Three Address Code

## Intermediate Representation

- Abstract Syntax Tree

Most Suitable data structure perhaps for the intermediate representation but miles away from the actual target code representation.

Especially, for

## Control Flow Constructs Jumps

Therefore, a transformation/Translation is required to make intermediate representation more look like a target code, so intermediate code is that translation construct.

## Forms of Intermealiate Code (IC)


$\varepsilon_{\text {SBJERG }}$

- Sequential Form (linearization of syntax tree)

Intermediate code is very useful for creating efficient compiler, because;

1. Analysis can be made regarding target code properties.
2. Machine independent which can be ported later to any specific machine.

## Three Address Code (3AC)


$\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{y}$ op z
Basically, represent addresses in memory, so
called three address code.
Although, $x$ is different then $y$ and $z$
Example: $2 * \mathbf{a}+(\mathrm{b}-3)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{T} 1=2 * \mathbf{a} \\
& \mathbf{T} 2=b-3 \\
& \mathbf{T} 3=\mathbf{T} 1+\mathbf{T} 2
\end{aligned}
$$



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { So the compiler generates temporaries and basically, each inner node } \\
& \text { represents a temporary. T3 has a distinction being root node. This a left fo } \\
& \text { right linearization of the syntax tree, as the evaluation of starts from leff } \\
& \text { sub-tree, there is no hard rule for such evaluation it could be different as } \\
& \text { well. } \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example

$$
\geqslant \quad \mathbf{a}=\mathbf{b} *-\mathbf{c}+\mathbf{b} *-\mathbf{c}
$$

tl $=-\mathrm{c}$
t2 $=\mathrm{b} * \mathrm{tI}$
t3 $=-\mathrm{c}$
$t 4=b * t 3$
$\mathrm{t} 5=\mathrm{t} 2+\mathrm{t} 4$
$a=\mathbf{t 5}$

## Implementation of $\mathbf{3 A C}$



3AC requires 4 fields, one for the operation and the rest for addresses, for cases of fewer than 3 addresses, one or more fields can be empty/null. So we can use a quadruple as:

Qualioples (op, argi, arg2, result)

Example: $\mathbf{a}=\mathbf{b}^{*}-\mathbf{c}+\mathbf{b}^{*}$ - c

| Quadiouples (opp, argl, argit, resuli) |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | op | arg 1 | arg2 | resul |
| (0) | - | c |  | t1 |
| (1) | * | b | t1 | t2 |
| (2) | - | c |  | t3 |
| (3) | * | b | t3 | t4 |
| (4) | + | t2 | t4 | t5 |
| (5) | = |  |  | a |
| Each column of this table is a pointer to the symbol table, if you don't want temporaries to be stored in symbol table use registers.$\mathbf{a}=\mathbf{b} *-\mathbf{c}+\mathbf{b} *-\mathbf{c}$ |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| 1. |  | Direct access to the location of temporaries |  |  |
| 2. |  | Easier for optimization Dr. D. M. Akbar Hussain |  |  |
|  |  | Department of Flectronic Systems |  |  |

## Triples (op, argil, arg2)



|  | op | argl | arg2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $(0)$ | - | c |  |
| $(1)$ | $*$ | b | $(0)$ |
| $(2)$ | - | c |  |
| $(3)$ | $*$ | $(1)$ | $(2)$ |
| $(4)$ | + | a | $(3)$ |
| $(5)$ | $=$ |  | $(4)$ |

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Properties: } \quad \mathbf{a}=\mathbf{b}^{*} \text { - } \\
>\quad \text { Space efficiency }
\end{gathered}
$$

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | op | arg1 | arg2 |  |
| (0) | (14) | - | c |  |  |
| (1) | (15) | * | b | (14) |  |
| (2) | (16) | - | c |  |  |
| (3) | (17) | * | b | (16) |  |
| (4) | (18) | + | (15) | (17) |  |
| (5) | (19) | $=$ | a | (18) |  |
| Properties: $\quad \mathbf{a}=\mathbf{b}^{*}$ - $\mathbf{c}+\mathbf{b}^{*}$ - |  |  |  |  |  |
| , Space efficiency |  |  |  |  |  |
| , Easier for optimization |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | Department of Electronic Systems |




## Intermediate code as Synthesized attribute <br> Synthesized 3AC




## Practical Code Generation

If a syntax tree is not generated, a recursive procedure can be used to generate code. Which not only has post-order traversal but also has pre-order and in-order component as well. In general every action that tree generation represent will require a slightly different version of pre-order and in-order preparation cade.

## Practical Code Generation



## Generating Target Code from IC

```
It is fairly complex process; can be done with
these two methods.
    Macro Expansion
    Basically, replacing each kind of IC
    instruction with an equivalent sequence
    of target code instruction.
    Static Simulation
    A straight line process, IC effects are
    directly matched to target code effects.
```


## P-Code



## P-Code to BAC (Static Simmlation)



## BAC to P-Code (Macro Expansion)

Example: $(x=x+3)+4$

$\mathrm{X}=\mathrm{T} 1$
$T 2=T 1+4$
$\frac{\text { P-Code }}{\text { lda } T 1}$
lod $x$
ldc 3
adi
sto
lda x
lod T1
sto
lda $T 2$
lod T1
Idc 4
adi
sto

## BAC for Address Calculation

${ }^{\text {ESBJJRG }}$

Simple variables identified by names
Actual target code requires to replace these names with addresses (registers or absolute memory addresses or activation record off-sets.

- Storing a constant value 100 at the address of the variable $x$ plus 10 bytes.

*T1 $=100$


Actually, we can augment quadruple with an address field.

## P-Code for Address Calculation

$E_{S_{B J E R} G}$
Indirect Load (ind)
Stack Before Stack After

| a | ind $i \quad{ }^{*}(a+i)$ |
| :--- | :--- |

Indexed Load (ixa)
Stack Before Stack After

| $i$ |
| :---: |
| $a$ |
| ixa $s$ |
| $a+s * i$ |

1da x
ldc 10
ixa 1
ldc 100
sto

## Array Reference

```
            This subscripting produce value at the computed address
```



```
This subscripting produce an address
In \(C\) array reference for array[i+1] is:
array \(+(i+1)\) * sizeof (int)
Basically, \&a represent base address of array a in 3AC
And lda a ( P -Code)
Generally address of an array element a[t] in any language is:
base_address (a) + (t - lower_bound(a)) * element_size(a)
23

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{P-Codle for Array References} \\
\hline & \(\frac{\mathrm{T} 2=\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{T} 1]}{\text { in } \mathrm{P} \text {-code }}\) array reference can & as \\
\hline & ```
    lda T2
    lda a
    lod T1
    ixa elem_size(a)
    ind 0
    sto
a[T2] = T1
``` & \\
\hline & ```
lda a
lod T2
ixa elem_size(a)
lod Tl
Sto Dr. D. M. Akbar Hussain
Department of Electronic Systems
``` & 25 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}



\section*{Code Generation}

- Control Statements and logical expressions require labels for both \(3 A C\) and \(P\)-Code intermediate code generation. It is similar to have temporary name generation but stands for address to which jumps are made.

\section*{If and While}
if-stmt \(\rightarrow\) if (exp) stmt /if (exp) stmt else stmt
while stmt \(\rightarrow\) while (exp) stmt.
Job is to construct these structured control statements into unstructured statements coupled with jumps.
- Basically there are two kinds of jumps:
- Conditional
- Un-Conditional \{e.g: gote\}
- For true case, there is no jump (Fall through) reducing the number of jumps to two.


\section*{Control Statement Code for "io"}
if (E) \(S_{1}\) else \(S_{2}\)
\(L_{1}, L_{2} \ldots\). label sequences generated by the compiler
\[
\frac{3 \Lambda C}{}
\]
<code to evaluate \(E\) to \(t_{1}>\)
if_false \(t_{1}\) goto \(L_{1}\)
<code for \(S_{1}>\)
goto \(L_{2}\)
label \(L_{1}\)
\({\text { <code for } S_{2}>}_{\text {label } L_{2}}\)
\[
\text { P-Cusle }
\]
<code to evaluate E>
fjp \(L_{1}\)
\(<\) code for \(S_{1}>\)
ujp \(L_{2}\)
lab \(L_{1}\)
\(<\operatorname{code}^{\prime}\) for \(S_{2}>\)
lab \(L_{2}\)

\section*{P-Curie}
<code to evaluate E > fjp \(\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{I}}\)
<code for \(\mathrm{S}_{1}\) >
ujp \(L_{2}\)
<code for \(S_{2}\) >
lab \(\mathrm{L}_{2}\)

> we can see that all these control code sequences end with a label called exit label, which basically becomes an inherited attribute during code generation. Some languages like \(C\) provides break statement to exit form arbitrary location.



\section*{Back-patching}
- A dummy jump instruction to a fake location is generated.
- Code is kept in a buffer or on stack or in a temporary file.
- When the label is known back-patching is performed.
- Additional consideration when machines (architecture) have two varieties of jumps, short jump or branch (within say 128 bytes) or long jump.
- Therefore, nop or multiple passes are used to condense the code.

\section*{Code Generation for Lagical Expression}
, For Boolean and logical expressions like "and" "or" are computed in a similar fashion like arithmetic expressions in the intermediate code generation.
r Standard approach is using 0 and 1 for false and true respectively.
- Then bitwise and or operators are used to compute the value of Boolean expression.
- Typically, comparison operation results are normalized to 0 and 1, because comparison operator itself only sets a condition code.

\section*{Short Circuit Logical Operations}


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A logical operation is short circuit if it fails to evaluate its second argument.
e.g;

Boolcan expression
a and b
if a is false, then it is immediately determined without evaluating \(b\).
e.g;
a or b
If \(a\) is true, no need to evaluate \(b\).

\section*{Short Circuit Legical Operations}

It is important that short circuit operations are extremely useful to the coder.

Another example if there are no short circuit operation available then evaluation of \(P \rightarrow v a l\) if \(P\) is NULL would cause memory fault in the following expression:
\[
\text { if }((P!=\text { NULL }) \& \&(P \rightarrow \text { val }==0))
\]

\section*{Short Circuit Logical Operations}


Short circuit operations are similar to if-statements.
e.g (X ! \(=0) \& \&(Y==X)\)
\(\operatorname{lod} X\)
lde 0
neg
fjp \(\mathrm{L}_{1}\) lod Y
lod \(X\)
equ
ujp \(\mathbf{L}_{2}\)
lab \(L_{1}\)
lad false
lab \(\mathrm{L}_{2}\)

\section*{Procedure \& Function Calls}

Most machines have different mechanisms for performing calls which depend on runtime environment. Therefore, it is difficult to have a more generalized intermediate code representation.

Intermediate Code for Procedure and Function:
Definition:
Creates a function name, parameters and code.
Call:
Creates actual values of the arguments and performs a jump to the code.

\section*{Procednie at Function Calls}
\(\varepsilon_{\text {SBJUR }}\)

Importantly when IC is generated for function/procedure the runtime environment is not known.
r Therefore, definition must include an entry point of the code and an instruction marking the end (return point).
- Also call must indicate the beginning of the computation of the arguments and then actual call instruction (indicating point where the argument have been constructed) and the actual jump to the code of the function.

\section*{BAC for function/procedure}


\section*{P-Code for function/procedine}

Esbjer

Int foo (int \(x\), int \(y\) )
\(\{x+y+1 ;\}\)
Definition: ent foo
(entry)
lod x
lod \(y\)
adi
lde 1
adi
ret (return) no necd of parameter as return value is on top of stack.

Call:
foo \((2+3,4)\)
mst (Equal to begin_args and coneerned with setting-up of activation record)
lde 2
lde 3
adi
lde 4
cup foo (call user procedure equal to cally

\section*{Borland 3.0 C Compiler}
\[
\begin{aligned}
& (x=x+3)+4 \\
& \text { mov ax, word ptr [bp-2] } \\
& \text { add ax, } 3 \\
& \text { mov word ptr }[b p-2], \text { ax } \\
& \text { add ax, } 4
\end{aligned}
\]

\section*{Horland 3.0 C Compiler}

\(E_{S_{B J, J R G}}\)
\((x=x+3)+4\)
Variable \(\mathbf{x}\) in this expression is stored locally on the stack frame.
Assembly code for this expression:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
mov & ax, word ptr [bp-2] \\
add & ax, 3 & \\
mov & word ptr & [bp-2], ax \\
add & ax, 4
\end{tabular}
mov word ptr [bp-2], ax
Register \(\mathbf{a x}\) is
Location of the local variable \(\mathbf{x}\) is \(\mathbf{b p - 2}\)
bp base pointer register as the frame pointer and integer variables occupy two bytes on this machine.

The first instruction moves the value of the \(\mathbf{x}\) to \(\mathbf{a x}\) (the brackets in the addresses [bp-2] indicate an indirect rather than an immediate load).
The second instruction adds the constant 3 to this register.
The third instruction then moves this value to the location of \(\mathbf{x}\).
Finally, the forth instruction adds 4 to ax, so that the final vale of the expression is left in this register, where it may be used for further computations.
Note the address of \(\mathbf{x}\) for this assignment in the third instruction is not pre-computed (as an I da P-code instruction would suggest). A static simulation of the intermediate code, together with knowledge of available addressing modes, can delay the computation of the address of x until this point.

\section*{Borland 3.0 C Compiler}
\((a[i+1]=2)+a[j]\), assuming \(i\), \(j\),and a are local variables declared as int \(i, j\); int a [10];
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
(1) & mov & bx,word ptr [bp-2] \\
(2) & shI & bx, \\
(3) & lea & ax, word ptr [bp-22] \\
(4) & add & bx, ax \\
(5) & mov & ax,2 \\
(6) & mov & word ptr [bx \(], a x\) \\
(7) & mov & bx,word ptr[bp-4] \\
(8) & shI & bx, \\
(9) & lea & dx,word ptr [bp-24] \\
(10) & add & bx,dx \\
(11) & add & ax,word ptr \([b x]\)
\end{tabular}

\section*{if and while}

> Code generated by the Borland C compiler for the following statements: if \((x>y) y++\); else \(x--; \quad\) and \(\quad\) While \((x<y) y--x\);

For if:
emp bx, dx
jle short (iala86
inc \(d x\)
jmp short@1@114
(it (ai86:
dec bx
(a10114:

For while:
jmp short@1@170
(a) (a142:
sub dx,bx
(i1) 1a170:
cmp dx,bx
jl short@1@142

\section*{Function \& Definition Call}


\section*{Example:}
int f(int \(x\), int \(y\) )
\(\{\) return \(x+y+1 ;\}\)
Consider calling \(f(2+3,4)\) :
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
mov & \(a x, 4\) \\
push & ax \\
mov & ax,5 \\
push & ax \\
call & near ptr_f \\
pop & cx \\
pop & cx
\end{tabular}

\section*{Fminction at Definidion Call}


The return address is on the stack between the control link (the old bp) and the argument as a result of the caller's execution of a call instruction. This, the old \(b p\) is at the top of the stack, the return address is at location \(b p+2\) (addresses are two bytes in this example), the parameter x is at location \(b p+4\), and the parameter \(y\) is at location \(b p+6\). The body of \(f\) then corresponds to the code that comes next:
```

Mdd ax, word ptr [bp+4
ax,word ptr [bp+6]

```
which loads x into ax , adds y to it, and then increment it by one

\section*{Array References}


Example:
\((a[i+1]=2)+a[j]\)
Assuming \(i, j\), and a are local variables declared as

> int \(\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{j} ;\)
> int a \([10 \tau\);

Borland Compiler generates the following assembly code:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline (1) & mov & bx,word ptr [bp-2] \\
\hline (2) & sh1 & \(b x, 1\) \\
\hline (3) & Tea & ax , word ptr [bp-22才 \\
\hline (4) & add & bx, ax \\
\hline (5) & mov & ax,2 \\
\hline (6) & mov & word ptr [bx],ax \\
\hline (7) & mov & bx , word \(\mathrm{ptr}[\mathrm{bp}-4]\) \\
\hline (8) & sh1 & \(\mathrm{bx}, 1\) \\
\hline (9) & 1ea & dx , word ptr [bp-24] \\
\hline (10) & add & bx, dx \\
\hline (11) & add & ax,word ptr [bx \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Painter and Fielal References}

We assume the declarations of previous examples:
typedef struct rec
\{ int i;
char c ;
int j;
\} Rec;
typedef struct treenode
\{ int val; struct treeNode * 1child * rchild
\} Treenode;

Rec x ;
Treenode *p;
\(x\) and \(p\) are declared as local variables and that appropriate allocation of pointers has been done.

\section*{Painter and Fielal IReferences}

The code generated for this statement:
\(\mathbf{x} . \mathbf{j}=\mathbf{x . i}\);
mov ax, word ptr [bp-6] (loads \(x . i\) into ax)
mov word ptr [bp-3], ax (stores this value to \(\mathbf{x . j}\) )
The offset computation for \(\mathbf{j}(-6+3=-3)\) is performed statically by the compiler.

The code generated for the statement:
p -> lchild = p;
mov word ptr [si+2], si
Note how the indirection and the offset computation are combined into a single instruction.

Finally, the code generated for the statement:
p = p -> rchild;
mov si, word ptr [si+4]

Code generated by the Borland \(C\) compiler for the following statements:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { if }(x>y) y++; \text { else } x-- \text {; } \\
& \text { and } \\
& \text { while }(x<y) \text { y }=x
\end{aligned}
\]

In both cases, \(x\) and \(y\) are local integer variables.
The Borland compiler code for the given if-statement, \(x\) is located in register \(b x\) and \(y\) is located in register \(d x\) :

cmp \(b x, d x\)
jle short @1@86
inc dx
jmp short @1@114
@1 @8 6 :
@1 @1 14 :
\(d e c \quad b x\)
This code uses the same sequential organization shown earlier but note this code does not compute the actual logical value of the expression \(x>y\) but simply uses the condition code directly.
The code generated by the Borland compiler for the while-statement is as follows:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
& j mp & short @1 @170 \\
@1 12: & sub & \(d x, b x\) \\
@170: & \(c m p\) & \(d x, b x\) \\
& jup & short @1 @142
\end{tabular}

This uses a slightly different sequential organization given earlier, here test is placed at the end, and an initial unconditional jump is made to this test.

ESBJERG
1. Register Allocation
2. Unnecessary Operations
3. Costly Operations
4. Program Behavior Prediction (Profiling)

\section*{Optimization in General}


Optimization is one of many desirable goals in compiler and particularly in soffware engincering.
2. Optimization is beneficial and should always be applied. However,

Inline assembly.
Pre-compiled/self-modified code.
Loop unrolling.
Bit-fielding.
Supersealar and vectorizing.
could be an unending source of time consuming implementation and bughunting.
3.

Be cautious and wary of the cost of optimizing your code.

\section*{Optimization}
1. Code optimization has evolved to include "exceution profiling" (i.c., direct measurement of "hotspots" in the code from a test run) as its guiding strategy.
2. What one should also notice is that if the strategy for improving performance of code is to improve the efficiency of the code for one particular tasf we see that its possible to reach a point of diminishing returns, because each term cannot go below 0 in its overall contribution to the time consumption.
3. The classic example here is that tweaking bubble sort is not going to be as useful as switching to a better algorithm, such as quick-sort or heap-sort if you are sorting a lot of data.

\section*{Optimization}


\section*{Optimization}

One of the most powerful techniques for algorithmic performanes optimization in programming is hoisfirg. This is a technique where redundancies from your inner loops are pulled out to your outer loops. In its simplest form, this concept may be obvious to many, but what is commonly overlooked are cases where intentional outer loop complexification can lead to faster ituer loops.

\section*{Optimization}

One of the most impressive examples of this is in the field of artificial intelligence where Shannon's famous Min-Max algorithm (for calculating a game tree value) is substantialy improved using a technique called Alpha-Bera Pranitgs. The performance improvement is exponential even though the algorithms contain substantially the same content and identical leaf calculations. Further problemspecific improvements are found by henristical ordering according to game specific factors which often yield further performance improvements by large factors.

\section*{Optimization}

Profiling. One way or another, you have to *know* where your performance botlenceks arc. Good compilers will have comprehensive tools for measuring performance analysis which makes this job casicr. Rut even with the best tools, care is often required in analyzing profiling information when algorithms become complex. For example most UNIX kernels will spend the vast majority of their processen cycles in the "idleloop". Clearly, no amonnt of optimization of the "idle-foop" will have any impact on performance.

\section*{Costly Operations}
\(>\) Multiplication vs Shift
- Exponential vs Multiplication
- Multiplication with a Constant
-Constant Folding
-Constant Propagation
- Procedure Inline
-Tail Recursion


\section*{Classification of Optimization}
r Time \& Area of the program
, Source Level Optimization
- Target Level Optimization
\(\checkmark \quad\) Peephole Optimization

\section*{Optimization Spillage}
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\section*{Local, Global \& Inter-processor Optimization}
, Basic Block
- Global (Limited to procedure \& functions)
- Beyond boundaries of procedures/functions


\section*{Data Structure \& Implementation Techniques}
- Graphical Representation: A flow graph
\(\checkmark \quad\) The first instruction begins a basic block.
\(\checkmark\) Each label that is the target of a jump begins a new basic block.
\(\checkmark\) Each instruction that follows a jump begins a new block.

\section*{Example}

\{ Simple Program
in Tiny Language -
computing factorial
;
read \(x\); Input an Integer;
if \(0<x\) then ( don't compute if \(x<=0\);
fact :=1;
repeat
fact := fact * \(\boldsymbol{x}\);
\(x:=x-1 ;\)
until \(x=0\);
12: write fact ; output factorial of \(x\) \}
13: end
```

