CS322 Languages and Compiler Design II

Spring 2012

Lecture 7

Uses of Boolean Expressions

Used to drive **conditional execution** of program sections, e.g.

```
IF (a < 17) OR (b = 12) THEN ... ELSE ...;

WHILE NOT ((x+1) > 39) DO ... END;
```

(In some languages) may be assigned to **boolean variables** or passed as parameters, e.g.:

```
VAR b : BOOLEAN := (a < 17) OR (b = 12);
...
IF b THEN ... ELSE ...
...
myproc(b);   (* procedure call *)
...
```


Boolean Expressions

Two representations may be useful:

• **Value** Representation.

Encode `true` and `false` numerically, e.g., as 1 and 0, and treat boolean expressions like arithmetic expressions.

Pro: Language may support boolean values.
Con: Often a bad match to hardware.

• **Flow-of-control** Representation.

Position in generated code represents boolean value.

Pro: Good when **"short-circuit"** evaluation is allowed (or required), e.g., in C expression `e1 || e2`, `e2` should be evaluated **only** if `e1` is false.

Reminder: Some languages mandate short-circuit evaluation; others prohibit it; still others leave it up to the compiler writer.

Pro: Convenient for control statements.

• For fab, we'll use flow-of-control approach, and convert to values when necessary.

Sample Productions for Value-based Booleans

```
B := E1 '<' E2
     B.place = newtemp()
     B.code =
       let true = newlabel()
           after = newlabel()
       in E1.code @
          E2.code @
          [gen(true,if<,E1.place,E2.place),
           gen(B.place,:=,0,_),
           gen(after,goto,_,_),
           gen(true,:,_,_),
           gen(B.place,:=,1,_),
           gen(after,:,_,_)]
```

Generates:

```
    IF E1 < E2 GOTO L1
    T := 0
    GOTO L2
L1: T := 1
L2: ...
```

More Sample Value-based Productions

```
B := B1 OR B2                                   (non-short-circuiting form)
     B.place = newtemp()
     B.code = B1.code @ B2.code @
              [gen(B.place,|,B1.place,B2.place)]          (bit-wise OR)

S := IF B THEN S1 ELSE S2
     S.code = let false = newlabel()
                  after = newlabel()
              in B.code @
                 [gen(false,if=,B.place,0)] @
                 S1.code @ [gen(after,goto,_,_)] @
                 [gen(false,:,_,_)] @
                 S2.code @
                 [gen(after,:,_,_)]
```

Generates:

```
     IF B = 0 GOTO L1
     S1
     GOTO L2
L1:  S2
L2:  ...
```


Example Value-based Code

```
IF (a > 7) OR (b = 5) THEN x = 7 ELSE y = 2;

    t1 := addr a
    t2 := *t1
    t3 := const 7
    if t2 > t3 goto L1
    t4 := const 0
    goto L2
L1:
    t4 := const 1
L2:
    t5 := addr b
    t6 := *t5
    t7 := const 5
    if t6 = t7 goto L3
    t8 := const 0
    goto L4
L3:
    t8 := const 1
L4:
    t9 := t4 | t8
    if t9 = 0 goto L5
    t10 := const 7
    t11 := addr x
    *t11 := t1 0
    goto L6
L5:
    t12 := const 2
    t13 := addr y
    *t13 := t12
L6:
```


Basic Control-flow Representation

Idea: Code generated for boolean and relational expressions has **true and false "exits"**, i.e., code evaluates expression and then jumps to one place if true and another place if false.

- Relational expressions perform test and jump to `true` or `false` exit accordingly.
- Boolean variables and constants jump directly to appropriate `true` or `false` exit.
- Boolean expressions simply adjust/combine `true`/`false` exits of their sub-expressions.
- Conditional statements define `true` and `false` exits of boolean sub-expression to point to appropriate code blocks, e.g., `THEN` and `ELSE` branches.
- If boolean-typed expression must deliver a value, `true` and `false` exits are defined to point to code that loads the value.

Example (assuming short-circuiting)

```
IF (a > 7) OR (b = 5) THEN x = 7 ELSE y = 2;

    t1 := addr a
    t2 := *t1
    t3 := const 7
    if t2 > t3 goto L1
    goto L4
L4:
    t4 := addr b
    t5 := *t4
    t6 := const 5
    if t5 = t6 goto L1
    goto L2
L1:
    t7 := const 7
    t8 := addr x
    *t8 := t7
    goto L3
L2:
    t9 := const 2
    t10 := addr y
    *t10 := t9
L3:
```

Conditional Statements (Somewhat Naive Approach)

Use control flow representation for boolean-typed expressions; define labels on per-statement basis.

```
S := IF B THEN S1 ELSE S2
        B.true = newlabel();
        B.false = newlabel();
        S.code =
          let after = newlabel()
          in B.code @
             [gen(B.true,:,_,_)] @ S1.code @ [gen(after,goto,_,_)] @
             [gen(B.false,:,_,_)] @ S2.code @
             [gen(after,:,_,_)]
```

Generates:

```
      IF B GOTO L1
      GOTO L2
L1:   S1
      GOTO L3
L2:   S2
L3:
```


Relational Expressions

Inherit `true` and `false` label attributes.

Synthesize `code` to perform appropriate test and jump to appropriate label.

Code doesn't build a value, so no `place` attribute.

```
B := E1 '=' E2
       B.code = E1.code @
                E2.code @
                [gen(B.true,if=,E1.place,E2.place),
                 gen(B.false,goto,_,_)]

B :=  E1 '<' E2
       B.code = E1.code @
                E2.code @
                [gen(B.true,if<,E1.place,E2.place),
                 gen(B.false,goto,_,_)]

...
```


Short-circuiting Boolean Expressions

Inherit `true` and `false` label attributes.

Pass them down to subexpressions, after suitable manipulation; synthesize `code` attribute.

Again, no `place` attribute.

...


```
B := B1 OR B2
       B1.true = B.true
       B1.false = newlabel()
       B2.true = B.true
       B2.false = B.false
       B.code = B1.code @
                [gen(B1.false,:,_,_)] @
                B2.code

B := B1 AND B2
       B1.true = newlabel()
       B1.false = B.false
       B2.true = B.true
       B2.false = B.false
       B.code = B1.code @
                [gen(B1.true,:,_,_)] @
                B2.code

B := NOT B1
       B1.true = B.false
       B1.false = B.true
       B.code = B1.code
```

CONVERSION FROM VALUE FORM

Boolean-typed identifiers (variables, `true` and `false` constants) must be "converted" to control-flow form when tested.

```
B := V
      B.code = V.code @
               [gen(B.false,if=,V.place,0),
                gen(B.true,goto,_,_)]
```

(Assuming 0 = false, non-0 = true)

CONVERSION TO VALUE FORM

Similarly, must convert other way when a value is needed, generating code to build a value into a `place`.

```
E := B
     B.true = newlabel()
     B.false = newlabel()
     E.place = newtemp()
     E.code =
         let after = newlabel()
         in  B.code @
             [gen(B.true,:,_,_),
              gen(E.place,:=,1,_),
              gen(after,goto,_,_),
              gen(B.false,:,_,_),
              gen(E.place,:=,0,_),
              gen(after,:,_,_)]
```


CAPTURING RELATIONAL TEST OUTCOMES

Many processors implement conditional jumps in two parts:

- a comparison instruction sets internal **condition codes**
- a conditional branch instruction tests the condition codes to decide whether or not to branch

Some processors allow the condition codes to be used to drive instructions other than conditional branches, e.g., the X86 supports

- `set` instructions that place a 1 or 0 value directly in a register based on the condition codes
- `cmov` instructions that conditionally move data (or not) based on the condition codes

Either of these can be used to generate much more efficient code when the value form of a relational expression is needed. (To express these, we would need to expand our IR, of course.)

HANDLING LOOP EXITS

Same label-passing approach can be used to implement `break` or `exit` statements that can cause jumps out of loops. We simply add a `.break` inherited attribute to statements!

```
S := BREAK
    S.code = gen(S.break,goto,_,_)

S := LOOP S END
    S.break = newlabel();
    S.code =
      let top = newlabel()
      in [gen(top,:,_,_)] @
         S.code @
         [gen(top,goto,_,_),
          gen(S.break,:,_,_)]
```

Other loop statements (like `WHILE`) must define and pass a similar approprirate label to their child statement.

All other (non-loop) statement translations must pass the `.break` attribute through (unchanged) to their children!

IMPROVING JUMP GENERATION

- Code for each statement always ends by "falling through" to next statement.
- There is no information flow between code generation for statements.

```
S := S1 ';' S2
      S.code = S1.code @ S2.code
```

This can lead to bad code, e.g.,

```
WHILE B1 DO (WHILE B2 DO S)

L1: IF B1 GOTO L2
    GOTO L3
L2: IF B2 GOTO L4
    GOTO L5     ''jump to jump''
L4: S
    GOTO L2
L5: GOTO L1
L3:
```

We can eliminate problems like this during optimization, but it's easy to avoid some of them in the first place.

IDEA: DEFER DEFINITION OF TARGET LABELS

- Give each statement an inherited attribute `.next`, which says where to transfer control after statement.
- Code generated for each statement guarantees **either** to transfer control to `.next` label **or** to "fall through."

```
S := S1 ';' S2
      S1.next = newlabel()
      S2.next = S.next
      S.code = S1.code @
               [gen(S1.next,:,_,_)] @
               S2.code
S := WHILE B DO S1
      B.true = newlabel()
      B.false = S.next
      S1.next = newlabel()
      S.code = [gen(S1.next,:,_,_)] @
               B.code @
               [gen(B.true,:,_,_)] @
               S1.code @
               [gen(S1.next,goto,_,_)]
```


DEFERRED LABEL DEFINITION (CONTINUED)

Now get better code, e.g.

```
WHILE B1 DO (WHILE B2 DO S)
```

now generates

```
L1: IF B1 GOTO L2
    GOTO L?
L2: If B2 GOTO L3
    GOTO L1
L3: S
    GOTO L2
...
L?:
```


BACKPATCHING

Target label attributes (`true`,`false`,`break`, etc.) are **inherited**, so won't work with one-pass bottom-up code generation, e.g. when generating code while doing bottom-up parsing.

Solution: Instead, keep **lists** of locations of `goto`s that need to be filled in ("**backpatched**") when final target is known. These **backpatch lists** are **synthesized** attributes.

Example (to fill in): `(a > 7) OR (b = 5)`

```
 1. t1 := addr a
 2. t2 := *t1
 3. t3 := const 7
 4. if t2 > t3 goto _____
 5. goto _____

 6. t4 := addr b
 7. t5 := *t4
 8. t6 := const 5
 9. if t5 = t6 goto _____
10. goto _____
```

At reduction for `B := B1 OR B2`

- Backpatch `B1.false` list with address of first instruction in `B2`.
- Merge `B1.true` and `B2.true` to form `B.true`.
- Make `B2.false` into `B.false`.

BACKPATCHING (CONTINUED)

At reduction for conditional statement, backpatch `true` and `false` lists for expression.

E.g.: On reducing `if B then S1 else S2`, backpatch `B.true` to location of `S1` and `B.false` to location of `S2`.

Example (to fill in):

```
IF (a > 7) OR (b = 5) THEN x := 7 ELSE y := 2;

 1. t1 := addr a
 2. t2 := *t1
 3. t3 := const 7
 4. if t2 > t3 goto _____
 5. goto __6__
 6. t4 := addr b
 7. t5 := *t4
 8. t6 := const 5
 9. if t5 = t6 goto _____
10. goto _____

11. t7 := const 7
12. t8 := addr x
13. *t8 := t7
14. goto _18__
15. t9 := const 2
16. t10 := addr y
17. *t10 := t9
18. ...
```


CASE STATEMENTS

```
case e of
  v1 : s1
| v2 : s2
| ...
| vn : sn
else s
end
```

Good code generation for case statement depends on analysis of the **values** on the case labels v_i .

Options include:

- List of conditional tests and jumps (linear search).
- Binary decision code (binary tree).
- Other search code (e.g., hash table).
- Jump table (constant time).
- Hybrid schemes.

CASE STATEMENTS (CONTINUED)

Best option depends on range of values (min and max) and their "density," i.e., what percentage of the values in the range are used as labels.

Jump tables work well for dense value sets (even if large), but waste lots of space for sparse sets. Linear search works well for small value sets.