CS3300 - Compiler Design

Semantic Analysis - IR Generation

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Intermediate representations

Why use an intermediate representation?

- break the compiler into manageable pieces good software engineering technique
- simplifies retargeting to new host
 - isolates back end from front end
- simplifies handling of "poly-architecture" problem

-m lang's, n targets $\Rightarrow m+n$ components

(myth)

enables machine-independent optimization - general techniques, multiple passes

An intermediate representation is a compile-time data structure

Acknowledgement

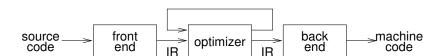
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Intermediate representations



Generally speaking:

- front end produces IR
- optimizer transforms that representation into an equivalent program that may run more efficiently
- back end transforms IR into native code for the target machine





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Intermediate representations

Representations talked about in the literature include:

- abstract syntax trees (AST)
- linear (operator) form of tree
- directed acyclic graphs (DAG)
- control flow graphs
- program dependence graphs
- static single assignment form
- 3-address code
- hybrid combinations



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IR design issues

- Is the chosen IR appropriate for the (analysis/ optimization/ transformation) passes under consideration?
- What is the IR level: close to language/machine.
- Multiple IRs in a compiler: for example, High, Medium and Low

- (a) High-, (b) medium-, and (c) low-level representations of a C array reference.
- In reality, the variables etc are also only pointers to other data structures.



Intermediate representations - properties

Important IR Properties

- ease of generation
- ease of manipulation
- cost of manipulation
- level of abstraction
- freedom of expression
- size of typical procedure

Subtle design decisions in the IR have far reaching effects on the speed and effectiveness of the compiler.

Level of exposed detail is a crucial consideration.



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Intermediate representations

Broadly speaking, IRs fall into three categories:

- Structural
 - structural IRs are graphically oriented
 - examples include trees, DAGs
 - heavily used in source to source translators
 - nodes, edges tend to be large
- Linear
 - pseudo-code for some abstract machine
 - large variation in level of abstraction
 - simple, compact data structures
 - easier to rearrange
- Hybrids

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combination of graphs and linear code

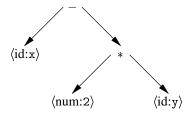
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- attempt to take best of each
- e.g., control-flow graphs
- Example: GCC Tree IR.



Abstract syntax tree

An abstract syntax tree (AST) is the procedure's parse tree with the nodes for most non-terminal symbols removed.



This represents "x - 2 * y".

For ease of manipulation, can use a linearized (operator) form of the tree.

e.g., in postfix form: x 2 y * -



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Control flow graph

The control flow graph (CFG) models the transfers of control in the procedure

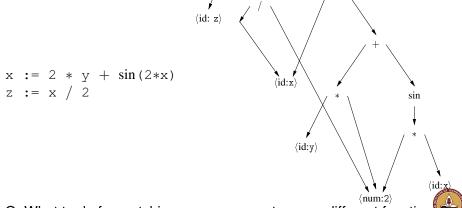
- nodes in the graph are <u>basic blocks</u> straight-line blocks of code
- edges in the graph represent control flow loops, if-then-else, case, goto

if (x=y) then true false
$$\frac{s1}{s2}$$
 else $\frac{s2}{s3}$



Directed acyclic graph

A directed acyclic graph (DAG) is an AST with a unique node for each value.



Q: What to do for matching names present across different function

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3-address code

- At most one operator on the right side of an instruction.
- 3-address code can mean a variety of representations.
- In general, it allows statements of the form:

$$x \leftarrow y op z$$

with a single operator and, at most, three names. Simpler form of expression:

$$x - 2 * y$$
 becomes

$$t1 \leftarrow 2 * y$$

$$t2 \leftarrow x - t1$$

Advantages

- compact form (direct naming)
- names for intermediate values

Can include forms of prefix or postfix code



3-address code: Addresses

Three-address code is built from two concepts: addresses and instructions.

- An address can be
 - A name: source variable program name or pointer to the Symbol Table name.
 - A constant: Constants in the program.
 - Compiler generated temporary.



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3-address code - implementation

Quadruples

- Has four fields: op, arg1, arg2 and result.
- Some instructions (e.g. unary minus) do not use arg2.
- For copy statement : the operator itself is =; for others it is implied.
- Instructions like param don't use neither arg2 nor result.
- Jumps put the target label in result.

	ор	result	arg1	arg2
(1)	load	t1	у	
(2)	loadi	t2	2	
(3)	mult	t3	t2	t1
(4)	load	t4	х	
(5)	sub	t5	t4	t3

- simple record structure with four fields
- easy to reorder
- explicit names



3-address code

Typical instructions types include:

- **1** assignments $x \leftarrow y \ \underline{op} \ z$
- ② assignments x ← op y
- assignments x ← y[i]
- lacktriangledown assignments $x \leftarrow y$
- **5** branches goto L
- conditional branches

if x goto L

oprocedure calls param x_1 , param x_2 , ... param x_n

and
call p, n

address and pointer assignments



How to translate:

S2

if (x < y) S1 else

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3-address code - implementation

Triples

I				
	x - 2	* У		
(1)	load	у		
(2)	loadi	2		
(3)	mult	(1)	(2)	
(4)	load	х		
(5)	sub	(4)	(3)	

- use table index as implicit name
- require only three fields in record
- harder to reorder



3-address code - implementation

Indirect Triples

x -	2	*	У
-----	---	---	---

	exec-order	stmt	ор	arg1	arg2
(1)	(100)	(100)	load	у	
(2)	(101)	(101)	loadi	2	
(3)	(102)	(102)	mult	(100)	(101)
(4)	(103)	(103)	load	X	
(5)	(104)	(104)	sub	(103)	(102)

- simplifies moving statements (change the execution order)
- more space than triples
- implicit name space management



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Other hybrids

An attempt to get the best of both worlds.

- graphs where they work
- linear codes where it pays off

Unfortunately, there appears to be little agreement about where to use each kind of IR to best advantage.

For example:

- PCC and FORTRAN 77 directly emit assembly code for control flow, but build and pass around expression trees for expressions.
- Many people have tried using a control flow graph with low-level, three address code for each basic block.

Indirect triples advantage

Optimized version

Execution Order (a): 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Execution Order (b): 3 4 1 2 5 6 7

8 9 10

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Intermediate representations

But, this isn't the whole story

Symbol table:

- identifiers, procedures
- size, type, location
- lexical nesting depth

Constant table:

- representation, type
- storage class, offset(s)

Storage map:

- storage layout
- overlap information
- (virtual) register assignments





Advice

- Many kinds of IR are used in practice.
- There is no widespread agreement on this subject.
- A compiler may need several different IRs
- Choose IR with right level of detail
- Keep manipulation costs in mind



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Translating expressions

- Builds the three-address code for an assignment statement.
- addr: a synthesized-attr of E denotes the address holding the val of E.
- Constructs a three-address instruction and appends the instruction to the sequence of instructions.
- top is the top-most (current) symbol table.



Gap between HLL and IR

Gap between HLL and IR

- High level languages may allow complexities that are not allowed in IR (such as expressions with multiple operators).
- High level languages have many syntactic constructs, not present in the IR (such as if-then-else or loops)

Challenges in translation:

- Deep nesting of constructs.
- Recursive grammars.
- We need a systematic approach to IR generation.

Goal:

- A HLL to IR translator.
- Input: A program in HLL.
- Output: A program in IR (may be an AST or program text)



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IR generation for flow-of-control statements

```
P \rightarrow S
                                 S.next = newlabel()
                                 P.code = S.code \mid\mid label(S.next)
S \rightarrow \mathbf{assign}
                                 S.code = assign.code
S \rightarrow \mathbf{if} (B) S_1
                                 B.true = newlabel()
                                 B.false = S_1.next = S.next
                                 S.code = B.code \mid | label(B.true) \mid | S_1.code
S \rightarrow \mathbf{if} (B) S_1 \mathbf{else} S_2
                                B.true = newlabel()
                                 B.false = newlabel()
                                 S_1.next = S_2.next = S.next
                                 S.code = B.code
                                               || label(B.true) || S_1.code
                                               || qen('goto' S.next)
                                              || label(B.false) || S_2.code
```

• *code* is an synthesized attribute: giving the code for that node.

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- Assume: gen only creates an instruction.
- || concatenates the code.



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IR generation for flow-of-control statements

```
S \rightarrow \textbf{while} (B) S_1 \\ begin = newlabel() \\ B.true = newlabel() \\ B.false = S.next \\ S_1.next = begin \\ S.code = label(begin) || B.code \\ || label(B.true) || S_1.code \\ || gen('goto' begin) \\ S \rightarrow S_1 S_2 \\ S_1.next = newlabel() \\ S_2.next = S.next \\ S.code = S_1.code || label(S_1.next) || S_2.code
```

- *code* is an synthesized attribute: giving the code for that node.
- Assume: *gen* only creates an instruction.
- || concatenates the code.



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Array elements dereference (Recall)

- Elements are typically stored in a block of consecutive locations.
- If the width of each array element is w, then the i^{th} element of array A (say, starting at the address base), begins at the location: $base + i \times w$.
- For multi-dimensions, beginning address of $A[i_1][i_2]$ is calculated by the formula:

 $base + i_1 \times w_1 + i_2 \times w_2$

where, w_1 is the width of the row, and w_2 is the width of one element.

• We declare arrays by the number of elements (n_j is the size of the j^{th} dimension) and the width of each element in an array is fixed (say w).

The location for $A[i_1][i_2]$ is given by $base + (i_1 \times n_2 + i_2) \times w$

- Q: If the array index does not start at '0', then?
- Q: What if the data is stored in column-major form?



IR generation for boolean expressions

```
B \rightarrow B_1 \mid \mid B_2 \mid
                        B_1.true = B.true
                         B_1.false = newlabel()
                         B_2.true = B.true
                         B_2.false = B.false
                         B.code = B_1.code \mid\mid label(B_1.false) \mid\mid B_2.code
B \rightarrow B_1 \&\& B_2
                        B_1.true = newlabel()
                         B_1.false = B.false
                         B_2.true = B.true
                         B_2.false = B.false
                         B.code = B_1.code \mid | label(B_1.true) \mid | B_2.code
B \rightarrow ! B_1
                         B_1.true = B.false
                         B_1.false = B.true
                        B.code = B_1.code
B \rightarrow E_1 \text{ rel } E_2
                        B.code = E_1.code \mid\mid E_2.code
                              || gen('if' E<sub>1</sub>.addr rel.op E<sub>2</sub>.addr 'goto' B.true)
                              || gen('goto' B.false)
                        B.code = gen('goto' B.true)
B \rightarrow true
B \rightarrow false
                        B.code = gen('goto' B.false)
```

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Translation of Array references

• Extending the expression grammar with arrays:

$$S \rightarrow \mathbf{id} = E$$
;
 $\mid L = E$;
 $E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$



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Translation of Array references (contd)

```
S 
ightarrow \mathbf{id} = E; { gen(top.get(\mathbf{id}.lexeme) '=' E.addr); }

| L = E; { gen(L.addr.base '[' L.addr ']' '=' E.addr); }

E 
ightarrow E_1 + E_2 { E.addr = \mathbf{new} \ Temp();

gen(E.addr '=' E_1.addr '+' E_2.addr); }

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

| L { E.addr = \mathbf{new} \ Temp();

gen(E.addr '=' L.array.base '[' L.addr ']'); }
```

Nonterminal L has three synthesized attributes

- 1 *L.addr* denotes a temporary that is used while computing the offset for the array reference.
- 2 *L.array* is a pointer to the ST entry for the array name. The field *base* gives the actual I-value of the array reference.

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Translation of Array references (contd)

Example:

- Let a denotes a 2×3 integer array.
- Type of a is given by array(2, array(3, integer))
- Width of a = 24 (size of *integer* = 4).
- Type of a[i] is array(3, integer), width = 12.
- Type of a[i][j] = integer

Exercise:

• Write three adddress code for c + a[i][j]

$$t_1 = i * 12$$
 $t_2 = j * 4$
 $t_3 = t_1 + t_2$
 $t_4 = a [t_3]$
 $t_5 = c + t_4$



Q: What if we did not know the size of *integer* (machine dependent)?

Translation of Array references (contd)

```
L 	o 	ext{id} 	extbf{[}E 	extbf{]} 	extbf{ } 	extbf{\{} 	extbf{$L.array = top.get(id.lexeme)$;} \ 	extbf{$L.type = L.array.type.elem$;} \ 	extbf{$L.addr = new Temp()$;} \ 	extbf{$gen(L.addr'=' E.addr'*' L.type.width)$; } \ 	extbf{\} 	extbf{\} 	extbf{$| L.array = L_1.array$;} \ 	extbf{$L.type = L_1.type.elem$;} \ 	extbf{$t = new Temp()$;} \ 	extbf{$L.addr = new Temp()$;} \ 	extbf{$L.addr = new Temp()$;} \ 	extbf{$gen(t'=' E.addr'*' L.type.width)$; } \ 	extbf{$gen(L.addr'=' L_1.addr'+' t)$; } \ 	extbf{$\}$}
```

- 3 L.type is the type of the subarray generated by L.
 - For any type t: t.width gives get the width of the type.
 - For any type t: t.elem gives the element type.



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Some challenges/questions

- Avoiding redundant gotos. ??
- Multiple passes. ??
- How to translate implicit branches: break and continue?
- How to translate switch statements efficiently?
- How to translate procedure code?



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Closing remarks

What have we done in last few classes?

• Intermediate Code Generation.

To read

• Dragon Book. Sections 6.4, 6.5, 6.6, 6.7, 6.8, 6.9 and 2.8



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