Partie 5

Intermediate code generation

Structure of a compiler



Outline

1. Intermediate representations

2. Illustration

3. Optimization

Intermediate code generation

- The final phase of the compiler front-end
- Goal: translate the program into a format expected by the compiler back-end
- In typical compilers: followed by intermediate code optimization and machine code generation
- Techniques for intermediate code generation can be used for final code generation (cf. your project)

Intermediate representations

Why use an intermediate representation?

- It's easy to change the source or the target language by adapting only the front-end or back-end (portability)
- It makes optimization easier: one needs to write optimization methods only for the intermediate representation
- The intermediate representation can be directly interpreted



(Appel)

Intermediate representations



• How to choose the intermediate representation?

- It should be easy to translate the source language to the intermediate representation
- It should be easy to translate the intermediate representation to the machine code
- > The intermediate representation should be suitable for optimization
- It should be neither too high level nor too low level
- One can have more than one intermediate representation in a single compiler

Some common intermediate representations

- Graphical representations: parse tree, abstract syntax trees, DAG...
- Java bytecode (executed on the Java Virtual Machine)
- LLVM (Low Level Virtual Machine), a general compiler infrastructure
- Three Address Code (TAC, of the form "result=op1 operator op2")
- C is used in several compilers as an intermediate representation (Lisp, Haskell, Cython...)
- Continuation-passing style (CPS): general form of IR for functional languages
- Microsoft's Common Intermediate Language (CIL)
- GNU Compiler Collection (GCC) uses several intermediate representations:
 - Abstract syntax trees
 - GENERIC (tree-based)
 - GIMPLE (SSA-based, static single assignment form)
 - Register Transfer Language (RTL, inspired by lisp lists)

(Google them)

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The intermediate language

We will illustrate the translation of typical high-level language constructions using the following low-level intermediate language:

Program	\rightarrow	[Instructions]	Instruction	\rightarrow	LABEL labelid
.		T	Instruction	\rightarrow	GOTO labelid
Instructions	\rightarrow	Instruction	*		
Instructions	\rightarrow	Instruction, Instructions	Instruction	\rightarrow	IF id relop Atom THEN laberid ELSE laberid
		,	Instruction	\rightarrow	<pre>id := CALL functionid(Args)</pre>
Instruction	\rightarrow	id := Atom			
Instruction	\rightarrow	id := unop Atom	Atom	\rightarrow	id
Instruction	\rightarrow	id := id binop Atom	Atom	\rightarrow	num
Instruction	\rightarrow	$\mathbf{id} := M[Atom]$	Args	\rightarrow	id
Instruction	\rightarrow	$M[Atom] := \mathbf{id}$	Args	\rightarrow	id, Args

Simplified three-address code, very close to machine code

See chapter 5 and 7 of (Mogensen, 2010) for full details

The intermediate language

Program
$$\rightarrow$$
 [*Instructions*]

Instructions	\rightarrow	Instruction	
Instructions	\rightarrow	Instruction ,	Instructions

Instruction	\rightarrow	id := Atom
Instruction	\rightarrow	id := unop Atom
Instruction	\rightarrow	id := id binop Atom
Instruction	\rightarrow	$\mathbf{id} := M[Atom]$
Instruction	\rightarrow	$M[Atom] := \mathbf{id}$
Atom	\rightarrow	id
Atom	\rightarrow	num

- All values are assumed to be integer
- Unary and binary operators include normal arithmetic and logical operations
- An atomic expression is either a variable or a constant
- *M*[*Atom*] := id is a tranfer from a variable to memory
- id := *M*[*Atom*] is a tranfer from memory to a variable

The intermediate language

Instruction Instruction	\rightarrow \rightarrow	LABEL l abelid GOTO labelid
Instruction Instruction	\rightarrow \rightarrow	IF id relop <i>Atom</i> THEN labelid ELSE labelid id := CALL functionid(<i>Args</i>)
Atom	\rightarrow	id
Atom Args	\rightarrow	num id
Args	\rightarrow	id, Args

- LABEL only marks a position in the program
- **relop** includes relational operators $\{=, \neq, <, >, \leq \text{ or } \geq\}$
- Arguments of a function call are variables and the result is assigned to a variable

Principle of translation

Syntax-directed translation using several attributes:

- Code returned as a synthesized attribute
- Symbol tables passed as inherited attributes
- Places to store intermediate values as synthesized or inherited attributes
- Implemented as recursive functions defined on syntax tree nodes (as for type checking)
- Since translation follows the syntax, it is done mostly independently of the context, which leads to suboptimal code
- Code is supposed to be optimized globally afterwards

Expressions

$$\begin{array}{rccc} Exps & \to & Exp \\ Exps & \to & Exp \ , \ Exps \end{array}$$

Principle of translation:

- Every operations is stored in a new variable in the intermediate language, generated by a function *newvar*
- The new variables for sub-expressions are created by parent expression and passed to sub-expression as inherited attributes (synthesized attributes are also possible)

Expressions

Trans _{Exp} (Exp, vta	ble, ftable, place) = case Exp of]	
num	$v = getvalue(\mathbf{num})$]	
	[place := v]			
id	x = lookup(vtable,getname(id))]	where to place the
	[place := x]		▶	translation of Exp_1
unop Exp_1	$place_1 = newvar()$	-		(inherited attribute)
	$code_1 = Trans_{Exp}(Exp_1, vtable, ftable, place)$	$ace_1)$		
	op = transop(getopname(unop))			
	$code_1 + [place := op \ place_1]$			
	String co	ncater	nation	

- getopname retrieves the operator associated to the token unop. transop translates this operator into the equivalent operator in the intermediate language
- [place := v] is a string where place and v have been replaced by their values (in the compiler)
 - Exemple: if place = t14 and v = 42, [place := v] is the instruction [t14:=42].

Expressions: binary operators and function call

$Trans_{Exp}(Exp, vtable, ftable, place) = case Exp of$		
Exp_1 binop Exp_2	$place_1 = newvar()$	
	$place_2 = newvar()$	
	$code_1 = Trans_{Exp}(Exp_1, vtable, ftable, place_1)$	
	$code_2 = Trans_{Exp}(Exp_2, vtable, ftable, place_2)$	
	op = transop(getopname(binop))	
	$code_1 + code_2 + [place := place_1 \ op \ place_2]$	
id(Exps)	$(code_1, [a_1, \ldots, a_n])$	
	$= Trans_{Exps}(Exps, vtable, ftable)$	
	$fname = lookup(ftable,getname(\mathbf{id}))$	
	$code_1$ ++[$place := CALL fname(a_1, \dots, a_n)$]	

Expressions: function arguments

$Trans_{Exps}(Exp)$	xps, vtable, ftable) = case Exps of
Exp	place = newvar()
	$code_1 = Trans_{Exp}(Exp, vtable, ftable, place)$
	$(code_1, [place])$
Exp, $Exps$	place = newvar()
	$code_1 = Trans_{Exp}(Exp, vtable, ftable, place)$
	$(code_2, args) = Trans_{Exps}(Exps, vtable, ftable)$
	$code_3 = code_1 + code_2$
	$args_1 = place :: args$
	$(code_3, args_1)$

Expressions: example of translation

Translation of 3+f(x-y,z):

$$t1 := 3$$

$$t4 := v0$$

$$t5 := v1$$

$$t3 := t4 - t5$$

$$t6 := v2$$

$$t2 := CALL _f(t3, t6)$$

$$t0 := t1 + t2$$

Assuming that:

- x, y, and z are bound to variables v0, v1, and v2
- Expression is stored in t0
- New variables are generated as t1, t2, t3...
- Indentation indicates depth of call to Trans_{Exp}

Statements

 $\begin{array}{rcl} Stat & \rightarrow & Stat ; Stat \\ Stat & \rightarrow & \mathbf{id} := Exp \\ Stat & \rightarrow & \mathbf{if} \ Cond \ \mathbf{then} \ Stat \\ Stat & \rightarrow & \mathbf{if} \ Cond \ \mathbf{then} \ Stat \ \mathbf{stat} \\ Stat & \rightarrow & \mathbf{while} \ Cond \ \mathbf{do} \ Stat \\ Stat & \rightarrow & \mathbf{repeat} \ Stat \ \mathbf{until} \ Cond \end{array}$

Cond \rightarrow *Exp* **relop** *Exp*

Principle of translation:

- New unused labels are generated by the function *newlabel* (similar to *newvar*)
- These labels are created by parents and passed as inherited attributes

Statements: sequence of statements and assignment

$Trans_{Stat}(Stat, vtable, ftable) = case Stat of$		
$Stat_1$; $Stat_2$	$code_1 = Trans_{Stat}(Stat_1, vtable, ftable)$	
	$code_2 = Trans_{Stat}(Stat_2, vtable, ftable)$	
	$code_1$ ++ $code_2$	
$\mathbf{id} := Exp$	place = lookup(vtable, getname(id))	
	$Trans_{Exp}(Exp, vtable, ftable, place)$	

Statements: conditions

$Trans_{Stat}(Stat, vtable, ftable) = case Stat of$		
if Cond	$label_1 = newlabel()$	
then Stat ₁	$label_2 = newlabel()$	
else Stat ₂	$label_3 = newlabel()$	
	$code_1 = Trans_{Cond}(Cond, label_1, label_2, vtable, ftable)$	
	$code_2 = Trans_{Stat}(Stat_1, vtable, ftable)$	
	$code_3 = Trans_{Stat}(Stat_2, vtable, ftable)$	
	$code_1$ ++[LABEL $label_1$]++ $code_2$	
	++[GOTO $label_3$, LABEL $label_2$]	
	++ $code_3$ ++[LABEL $label_3$]	

 $Trans_{Cond}(Cond, label_t, label_f, vtable, ftable) = case Cond of$

Exp_1 relop Exp_2	$t_1 = newvar()$
	$t_2 = newvar()$
	$code_1 = Trans_{Exp}(Exp_1, vtable, ftable, t_1)$
	$code_2 = Trans_{Exp}(Exp_2, vtable, ftable, t_2)$
	$op = transop(getopname(\mathbf{relop}))$
	$code_1 + code_2 + [IF t_1 op t_2 THEN label_t ELSE label_f]$

Statements: while loop

Trans _{Stat} (Stat,	vtable, ftable) = case Stat of
while Cond	$label_1 = newlabel()$
do <i>Stat</i> 1	$label_2 = newlabel()$
	$label_3 = newlabel()$
	$code_1 = Trans_{Cond}(Cond, label_2, label_3, vtable, ftable)$
	$code_2 = Trans_{Stat}(Stat_1, vtable, ftable)$
	[LABEL $label_1$]++ $code_1$
	++[LABEL $label_2$]++ $code_2$
	++[GOTO label ₁ , LABEL label ₃]

Logical operators

- Logical conjunction, disjunction, and negation are often available to define conditions
- Two ways to implement them:
 - Usual arithmetic operators: arguments are evaluated and then the operators is applied. Example in C: bitwise operators: '&' and '|'.
 - Sequential logical operators: the second operand is not evaluated if the first determines the result (lazy or short-circuit evaluation).
 Example in C: logical operators '&&' and '||'.
- First type is simple to implement:
 - by allowing any expression as condition

$$Cond \rightarrow Exp$$

- ▶ by including '&', '|', and '!' among binary and unary operators
- Second one requires more modifications

Sequential logical operators

Cond \rightarrow *Exp* **relop** *Exp*

- $Cond \rightarrow$ true
- $Cond \rightarrow \texttt{false}$
- $Cond \rightarrow ! Cond$
- $Cond \rightarrow Cond \&\& Cond$
- $Cond \ \rightarrow \ Cond \ | \ | \ Cond$

Trans _{Cond} (Cond,	$label_t, label_f, vtable, ftable) = case Cond of$
true	$[GOTO \ label_t]$
false	$[\texttt{GOTO}\ label_f]$
$! Cond_1$	$Trans_{Cond}(Cond_1, label_f, label_t, vtable, ftable)$
$Cond_1 \&\& Cond_2$	$arg_2 = newlabel()$
	$code_1 = Trans_{Cond}(Cond_1, arg_2, label_f, vtable, ftable)$
	$code_2 = Trans_{Cond}(Cond_2, label_t, label_f, vtable, ftable)$
	$code_1$ ++[LABEL arg_2]++ $code_2$
$Cond_1 \mid \mid Cond_2$	$arg_2 = newlabel()$
	$code_1 = Trans_{Cond}(Cond_1, label_t, arg_2, vtable, ftable)$
	$code_2 = Trans_{Cond}(Cond_2, label_t, label_f, vtable, ftable)$
	$code_1$ ++[LABEL arg_2]++ $code_2$

Other statements

More advanced control statements:

- Goto and labels: labels are stored in the symbol table (and associated with intermediate language labels). Generated as soon as a jump or a declaration is met (to avoid one additional pass)
- Break/exit: pass an additional (inherited) attribute to the translation function of loops with the label an break/exit should jump to. A new label is passed when entering a new loop.
- Case/switch-statements: translated with nested if-then-else statements.

. . .

Arrays

Language can be extended with one-dimensional arrays:

 $\begin{array}{rcl} Exp & \rightarrow & Index \\ Stat & \rightarrow & Index := Exp \\ Index & \rightarrow & \mathbf{id}[Exp] \end{array}$

Principle of translation:

- Arrays can be allocated statically (at compile-time) or dynamically (at run-time)
- Base address of the array is stored as a constant in the case of static allocation, or in a variable in the case of dynamic allocation
- The symbol table binds the array name with to the constant or variable containing its address

Arrays: translation

$$\begin{array}{l} Trans_{Stat}(Stat, vtable, ftable) = \texttt{case } Stat \texttt{ of} \\ \hline Index := Exp & (code_1, address) = Trans_{Index}(Index, vtable, ftable) \\ t = newvar() \\ code_2 = Trans_{Exp}(Exp, vtable, ftable, t) \\ code_1 + tcode_2 + M[address] := t] \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} Trans_{Index}(Index, vtable, ftable) = \texttt{case} \ Index \ \texttt{of} \\ \hline \texttt{id}[Exp] & base = lookup(vtable, getname(\texttt{id})) \\ t = newvar() \\ code_1 = Trans_{Exp}(Exp, vtable, ftable, t) \\ code_2 = code_1 \texttt{++}[t := t * 4, t := t + base] \\ (code_2, t) \end{array}$$

(Assuming arrays are indexed starting at 0 and integers are 64 bits long)

Multi-dimensional arrays

 $Index \rightarrow id[Exp]$ $Index \rightarrow Index[Exp]$

Principle of translation:

- Two ways to represent a 2-dimensional array in linear memory:
 - ▶ Row-major order: one row at a time. For a 3 × 2 array: a[0][0], a[0][1], a[1][0], a[1][1], a[2][0], a[2][1]
 - Column-major order: one column at a time. For a 3 × 2 array: a[0][0], a[1][0], a[2][0], a[0][1], a[1][1], a[2][1]
- Generalization: if *dim*₀, *dim*₁,..., *dim*_{n-1} are the sizes of the dimensions in a *n*-dimensional arrays, the element [*i*₀][*i*₁]...[*i*_{n-1}] has the address:
 - Row-major:
 - $base + ((\dots (i_0 \cdot dim_1 + i_1) \cdot dim_2 \dots + i_{n-2}) \cdot dim_{n-1} + i_{n-1}) \cdot size$
 - Column-major:

 $base + ((\dots (i_0 \cdot dim_1 + i_1) \cdot dim_2 \dots + i_{n-2}) \cdot dim_{n-1} + i_{n-1}) \cdot size$

 Dimension sizes are stored as constant (static), in variables or in memory next to the array data (dynamic)

Multi-dimensional arrays: translation

 $\frac{Trans_{Index}(Index, vtable, ftable) =}{(code_1, t, base, []) = Calc_{Index}(Index, vtable, ftable)}$ $code_2 = code_1 + [t := t * 4, t := t + base]$ $(code_2, t)$

$Calc_{Index}(Index, vtable, ftable) = case Index of$	
id[Exp]	(base, dims) = lookup(vtable, getname(id))
	t = newvar()
	$code = Trans_{Exp}(Exp, vtable, ftable, t)$
	(code, t, base, tail(dims))
Index[Exp]	$(code_1, t_1, base, dims) = Calc_{Index}(Index, vtable, ftable)$
	$dim_1 = head(dims)$
	$t_2 = newvar()$
	$code_2 = Trans_{Exp}(Exp, vtable, ftable, t_2)$
	$code_3 = code_1 + code_2 + [t_1 := t_1 * dim_1, t_1 := t_1 + t_2]$
	$(code_3, t_1, base, tail(dims))$

(Assume dimension sizes are stored in the symbol table, as constant or variable)

Other structures

- Floating point values: can be treated the same way as integers (assuming the intermediate language has specific variables and operators for floating point numbers)
- Records/structures: allocated in a similar way as arrays
 - Each field is accessed by adding an offset to the base-address of the record
 - Base-addresses and offsets for each field are stored in the symbol table for all record-variables
- Strings: similar to arrays of bytes but with a length that can vary at run-time

...

Variable declaration

 $\begin{array}{rcl} Stat & \rightarrow & Decl \; ; \; Stat \\ Decl & \rightarrow & {\tt int } {\tt id} \\ Decl & \rightarrow & {\tt int } {\tt id} [{\tt num}] \end{array}$

Principle of translation:

- Information about where to found scalar variables (e.g. integer) and arrays after declaration is stored in the symbol table
- Allocations can be done in many ways and places (static, dynamic, local, global...)

Variable declaration

$Trans_{Stat}(Stat, vtable, ftable) = case Stat of$		
$Decl$; $Stat_1$	$(code_1, vtable_1) = Trans_{Decl}(Decl, vtable)$	
	$code_2 = Trans_{Stat}(Stat_1, vtable_1, ftable)$	
	$code_1$ ++ $code_2$	

$Trans_{Decl}(Decl, vtable) = case Decl of$		
int id	$t_1 = newvar()$	
	$vtable_1 = bind(vtable, getname(\mathbf{id}), t_1)$	
	$([], vtable_1)$	
int id[num]	$t_1 = newvar()$	
	$vtable_1 = bind(vtable, getname(\mathbf{id}), t_1)$	
	$([t_1 := HP, HP := HP + (4 * getvalue(\mathbf{num}))], vtable_1)$	

(Assumes scalar variables are stored in intermediate language variables and arrays are allocated in the heap, with their base-addresses stored in a variable. *HP* points to the first free position of the heap.)

Comments

- Needs to add error checking in previous illustration (array index out of bound in arrays, wrong number of dimensions, memory/heap overflow, etc.)
- In practice, results of translation are not returned as strings but either:
 - output directly into an array or a file
 - or stored into a structure (translation tree or linked list)

The latter allows subsequent code restructuring during optimization

- We have not talked about:
 - memory organization: typically subdivided into static data (for static allocation), heap (for dynamic allocation) and stack (for function calls)
 - translation of function calls: function arguments, local variables, and return address are stored on the stack (similar to what you have seen in INFO-0012, computation structures)

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IR code optimization

- IR code generation is usually followed by code optimization
- Why?
 - IR generation introduces redundancy
 - To compensate for laziness of programmers
- Improvement rather than optimization since optimization is undecidable
- Challenges in optimization:
 - Correctness: should not change the semantic of the program
 - Efficiency: should produce IR code as efficient as possible
 - Computing times: should not take too much time to optimize
- What to optimize?
 - Computing times
 - Memory usage
 - Power consumption

▶ ...

Control-flow graph

- A basic block is a series of IR instructions where:
 - there is one entry point into the basic block, and
 - there is one exit point out of the basic block.
- Control-flow graph: nodes are basic blocks and edges are jumps between blocks



Local optimizations

Local optimization: optimization within a single basic block

Examples:

- Constant folding: evaluation at compile-time of expressions whose operands are contant
 - ▶ $10+2*3 \rightarrow 16$
 - ▶ [If 1 then Lab1 Else Lab2] \rightarrow [GOTO Lab1]
- Constant propagation: if a variable is assigned to a constant, then propagate the constant into each use of the variable

• $[x:=4;t:=y^*x;]$ can be transformed into $[t:=y^*4;]$ if x is not used later

Local optimizations

Examples:

 Copy propagation:: similar to constant propagation but generalized to non constant values

tmp2 = tmp1; tmp3 = tmp2 * tmp1; tmp4 = tmp3; tmp5 = tmp3 * tmp2;c = tmp5 + tmp4;

tmp3 = tmp1 * tmp1; tmp5 = tmp3 * tmp1;c = tmp5 + tmp3;

- Dead code elimination: remove instructions whose result is never used
 - Example: Remove [tmp1=tmp2+tmp3;] if tmp1 is never used

Local optimizations

Examples:

- Common subexpression elimination: if two operations produce the same results, compute the result once and reference it the second time
 - Example: in a[i]=a[i]+2, the address of a[i] is computed twice. When translating, do it once and store the result in a temporary variable
- Code moving/hoisting: move outside of a loop all computations independent of the variables that are changing inside the loop
 - Example: part of the computation of the address for a[i][j] can be removed from this loop

```
while (j<k) {
   sum = sum + a[i][j];
   j++;
}</pre>
```

IR code optimization

- Local optimizations can be interleaved in different ways and applied several times each
- Optimal optimization order is very difficult to determine
- Global optimization: optimization across basic blocks
 - Implies performing data-flow analysis, i.e., determine how values propagate through the control-flow graph
 - More complicated than local optimization

For your project

- No need to use an intermediate language (except for the syntax tree if needed)
- Syntax-directed translation as illustrated here should be enough
- Implementation:
 - During parsing: faster and requires less memory
 - On the syntax tree: more flexible but less efficient
 - Hybrid approaches are possible, i.e., developing explicitely syntax trees only for some language constructions
- If your target language is high-level, then:
 - You can pre-defined structures/functions that mimic structures/functions in the source language to ease translation. For example, implement scheme lists with linked lists in C.
 - You can use memory allocation facilities of the target language (instead of doing all work manually)
- No need to optimize code explicitely but avoid obvious sources of inefficiency