CSE 401/M501 – Compilers

Intermediate Representations Hal Perkins Autumn 2019

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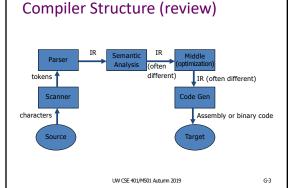
Agenda

- Survey of Intermediate Representations
 - Graphical
 - Concrete/Abstract Syntax Trees (ASTs)
 - · Control Flow Graph
 - · Dependence Graph
 - Linear Representations
 - · Stack Based
 - 3-Address
- · Several of these will show up as we explore program analysis and optimization

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Intermediate Representations

- · In most compilers, the parser builds an intermediate representation of the program
 - Typically an AST, as in the MiniJava project
- Rest of the compiler transforms the IR to improve ("optimize") it and eventually translate to final target code
 - Typically will transform initial IR to one or more different IRs along the way
- Some general examples now; more specifics later as needed

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IR Design

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- · Decisions affect speed and efficiency of the rest of the compiler
 - General rule: compile time is important, but performance/quality of generated code often more important
 - Typical case for production code: compile a few times, run many times
 - Although the reverse is true during development
 - So make choices that improve compiler speed as long as they don't compromise the result

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IR Design

- · Desirable properties
 - Easy to generate
 - Easy to manipulate
 - Expressive
 - Appropriate level of abstraction
- · Different tradeoffs depending on compiler goals
- Different tradeoffs in different parts of the same
 - So often different IRs in different parts

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IR Design Taxonomy

- Structure
 - Graphical (trees, graphs, etc.)
 - Linear (code for some abstract machine)
 - Hybrids are common (e.g., control-flow graphs whose nodes are basic blocks of linear code)
- Abstraction Level
 - High-level, near to source language
 - Low-level, closer to machine (exposes more details to compiler)

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A[i,j]subscript

 $t1 \leftarrow A[i,j]$

loadI 1 => r1 sub rj,r1 => r2 loadI 10 => r3 mult r2,r3 => r4 sub ri,r1 => r5 add r4.r5 => r6 loadI @A => r7 add r7,r6 => r8 load r8 => r9

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Levels of Abstraction

- Key design decision: how much detail to expose
 - Affects possibility and profitability of various optimizations
 - Depends on compiler phase: some semantic analysis & optimizations are easier with high-level IRs close to the source code. Low-level usually preferred for other optimizations, register allocation, code generation, etc.
 - Structural (graphical) IRs are typically fairly high-level
 - but are also used for low-level
 - Linear IRs are typically low-level
 - But these generalizations don't always hold

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Graphical IRs

- · IRs represented as a graph (or tree)
- · Nodes and edges typically reflect some structure of the program
 - E.g., source code, control flow, data dependence
- May be large (especially syntax trees)
- High-level examples: syntax trees, DAGs - Generally used in early phases of compilers
- Other examples: control flow graphs and data dependency graphs
- Often used in optimization and code generation

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Concrete Syntax Trees

- The full grammar is needed to guide the parser, but contains many extraneous details
 - Chain productions
 - Rules that control precedence and associativity
- Typically the full syntax tree (parse tree) is not used explicitly, but sometimes we want it (structured source code editors or transformations, ...)

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Abstract Syntax Trees

- · Want only essential structural information Omit extra junk
- Can be represented explicitly as a tree or in a linear form
 - Example: LISP/Scheme/Racket S-expressions are essentially ASTs (e.g., (* 2 (+ 3 4))
- Common output from parser; used for static semantics (type checking, etc.) and sometimes high-level optimizations

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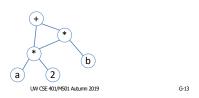
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DAGs (Directed Acyclic Graphs)

- · Variation on ASTs to capture shared substructures
- · Pro: saves space, exposes redundant sub-expressions
- · Con: less flexibility if part of tree should be changed
- Example: (a*2) + ((a*2) * b)



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Linear IRs

- · Pseudo-code for some abstract machine
- · Level of abstraction varies
- · Simple, compact data structures
 - Commonly used: arrays, linked structures
- Examples: 3-address code, stack machine code



- Fairly compact Compiler can control reuse of names - cleve choice can reveal optimizations ILOC & similar code
- push 2 push b multiply push a subtract
- Each instruction consumes top of stack & pushes result Very compact Easy to create and
- interpret
- Java bytecode, MSIL LIW CSF 401/M501 Autumn 2019 G-14

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Abstraction Levels in Linear IR

- · Linear IRs can also be close to the source language, very low-level, or somewhere in
- · Example: Linear IRs for C array reference a[i][j+2]
- High-level: t1 ← a[i,j+2]

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More IRs for a[i][j+2]

 Medium-level $t1 \leftarrow j + 2$

 $t2 \leftarrow i * 20$

t3 ← t1 + t2 t4 ← 4 * t3

t5 ← addr a

t6 ← t5 + t4

t7 ← *t6

 Low-level $r1 \leftarrow [fp-4]$

 $r2 \leftarrow r1 + 2$

 $r3 \leftarrow [fp-8]$

r4 ← r3 * 20 r5 ← r4 + r2

r6 ← 4 * r5

 $r7 \leftarrow fp - 216$ $f1 \leftarrow [r7+r6]$

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Abstraction Level Tradeoffs

- High-level: good for some high-level optimizations, semantic checking; but can't optimize things that are hidden – like address arithmetic for array subscripting
- Low-level: need for good code generation and resource utilization in back end but loses some semantic knowledge (e.g., variables, data aggregates, source relationships are usually missing)
- Medium-level: more detail but keeps more higher-level semantic information – great for machine-independent optimizations. Many (all?) optimizing compilers work at this level
- Many compilers use all 3 in different phases

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Three-Address Code (TAC)

- Usual form: $x \leftarrow y \text{ op } z$
 - One operator
 - Maximum of 3 names
 - (Copes with: nullary x ← y and unary x ← op y)
- Eg: x = 2 * (m + n) becomes
 - $t1 \leftarrow m+n; \quad t2 \leftarrow 2*t1; \quad x \leftarrow t2$
 - You may prefer; add t1, m, n; mul t2, 2, t1; mov x, t2
 - Invent as many new temp names as needed. "expression temps" don't correspond to any user variables; de-anonymize expressions
- Store in a quad(ruple)
 - <lhs, rhs1, op, rhs2>

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Three Address Code

- Advantages
 - Resembles code for actual machines
 - Explicitly names intermediate results
 - Compact
 - Often easy to rearrange
- · Various representations
 - Quadruples, triples, SSA (Static Single Assignment)
 - We will see much more of this...

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Stack Machine Code Example Hypothetical code for x = 2 * (m + n)pushaddr > pushconst 2 pushval n pushval add mult Compact; common opcodes just 1 byte wide; instructions have 0 or 1 operand LIW CSE 401/M501 Autumn 2019 G-20

· Combination of structural and linear

· Most common example: control-flow graph

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· Level of abstraction varies

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Stack Machine Code

- Originally used for stack-based computers (famous example: B5000, ~1961)
- · Often used for virtual machines:
 - Pascal pcode
 - Forth
 - Java bytecode in a .class files (generated by Java compiler)
 - MSIL in a .dll or .exe assembly (generated by C#/F#/VB compiler)
- Compact; mostly 0-address opcodes (fast download over slow network)
 Easy to generate; easy to write a front-end compiler, leaving the "heavy lifting" and optimizations to the JIT
 Simple to interpret or compile to machine code

- Disadvantages
 - Somewhat inconvenient/difficult to optimize directly
 - Does not match up with modern chip architectures

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Control Flow Graph (CFG)

- Nodes: basic blocks
- Edges: represent possible flow of control from one block to another, i.e., possible execution
 - Edge from A to B if B could execute immediately after A in some possible execution
- Required for much of the analysis done during optimization phases

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Basic Blocks

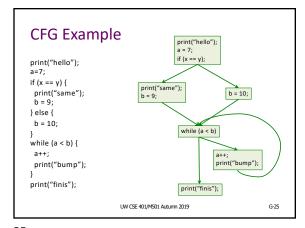
Hybrid IRs

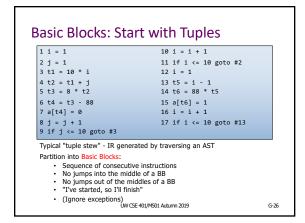
(CFG)

- · Fundamental concept in analysis/optimization
- A basic block is:
 - A sequence of code
 - One entry, one exit
 - Always executes as a single unit ("straightline code") – so it can be treated as an indivisible unit
 - · We'll ignore exceptions, at least for now
- · Usually represented as some sort of a list although Trees/DAGs are possible

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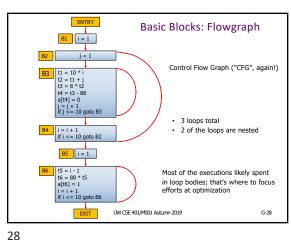
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Basic Blocks: Leaders
                                      10 i = i + 1
                                      11 if i <= 10 goto #2
  3 t1 = 10 * i
                                      12 i = 1
  4 t2 = t1 + j
                                      13 t5 = i - 1
  5 t3 = 8 * t2
                                     14 t6 = 88 * t5
  6 t4 = t3 - 88
                                     15 a[t6] = 1
  7 a[t4] = 0
                                      17 if i <= 10 goto #13
  9 if j <= 10 goto #3
  Identify Leaders (first instruction in a basic block):
         First instruction is a leader
Any target of a branch/jump/goto
         Any instruction immediately after a branch/jump/goto
  Leaders in red. Why is each leader a leader?
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```



Dependency Graphs

reference common data

Examples

write)

dependence)

· Often used in conjunction with another IR

· Data dependency: edges between nodes that

- Block A reads x then B writes it (WAR - "anti-

must reflect original program semantics

- Block A defines x then B reads it (RAW - read after

- Blocks A and B both write x (WAW) - order of blocks

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Identifying Basic Blocks: Recap

- · Perform linear scan of instruction stream
- · A basic blocks begins at each instruction that is:
 - The beginning of a method
 - The target of a branch
 - Immediately follows a branch or return

· These restrict reorderings the compiler can do UW CSE 401/M501 Autumn 2019 G-29 30 29

What IR to Use?

- Common choice: all(!)
 - AST used in early stages of the compiler
 - Closer to source code
 - Good for semantic analysis
 - Facilitates some higher-level optimizations
 - Lower to linear IR for optimization and codegen
 - Closer to machine code
 - Exposes machine-related optimizations
 - Use to build control-flow graph
 - Hybrid (graph + linear IR = CFG) for dataflow & opt

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Coming Attractions

- Survey of compiler "optimizations"
- Analysis and transformation algorithms for optimizations (including SSA IR)
- Back-end organization in production compilers

 Instruction selection and scheduling, register allocation
- Other topics depending on time

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