

IR Generation

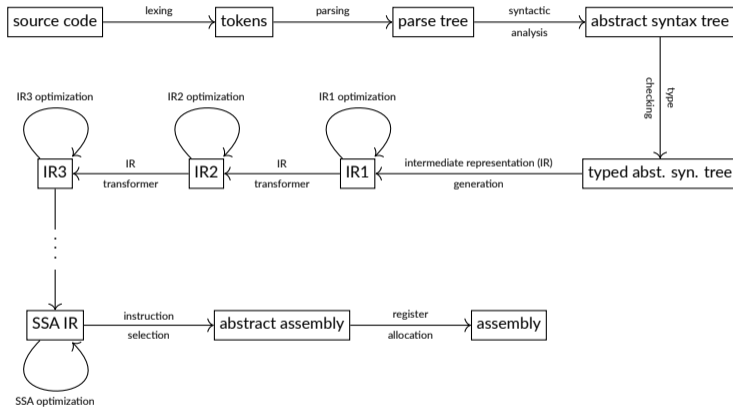
(CSC 3F002 EP) Compilers

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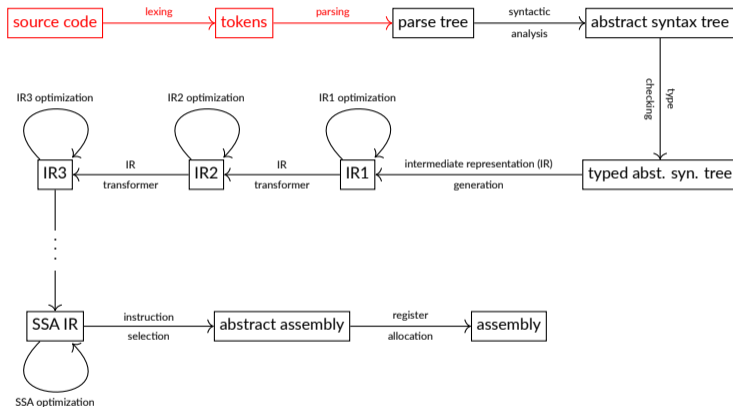
(Slide deck author: **Kaustuv Chaudhuri**)

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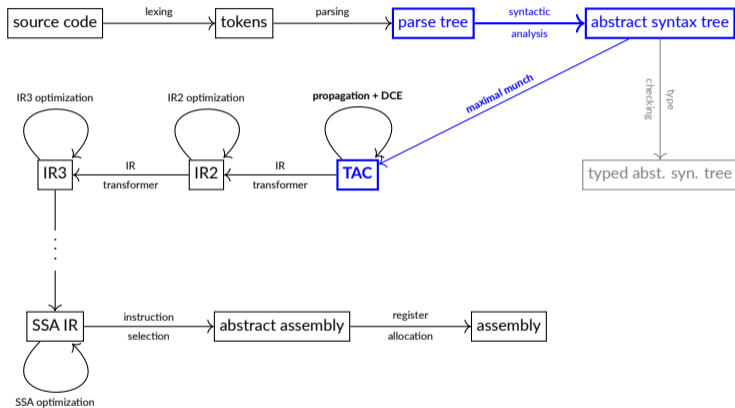
Compiler Stages: Block Diagram



Last lecture



Today



Reminder: straightline BX

- A simplification of BX with:
 - Only one type of variables, signed 64-bit `ints`
 - No control structures
 - Only one function, `main()`
 - Only I/O: printing `ints`
- BX **expressions**:
 - Arithmetic (+, -, *, /, %)
 - Bitwise ops (~, &, |, ^)
 - Arithmetic shifting (<<, >>)
- BX **statements**:
 - **Assignment**: `x = expression;`
 - **Print**: `print(expression);`

Reminder: BX Expressions and Assignments

```
x = 10;           // assign immediate

y = 2 * x;        // compute and assign
z = y / 2;        // compute and assign

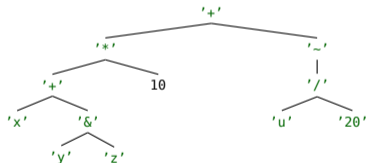
w = z - x - y;    // compound expression

v = - w - - w;    // - is both binary and unary
                  // parsed as (- w) - (- w), i.e., 0

m = x + y * 2;    // precedence: * binds tighter than +
                  // so, parsed as x + (y * 2)
n = (x + y) * 2;  // parentheses to force evaluation orders
```

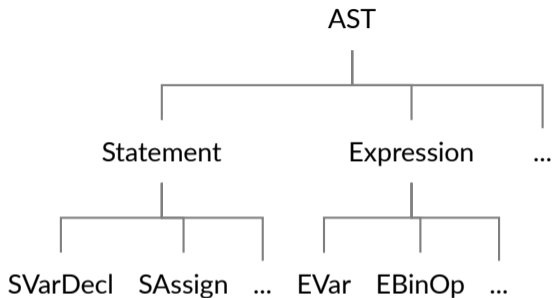
Abstract Syntax Tree

- Programs are represented using an Parse Tree (PST) / Abstract Syntax Tree (AST)
- PST is what is given by the parser. AST is more abstract, can contain extra information (e.g. typing information). The line between PST/AST is thin and sometimes the parser outputs an AST directly.
- For example, $\langle \text{expr} \rangle$ s are **tree-like** with arbitrary depth



- Order of evaluation of an $\langle \text{expr} \rangle$ depends on traversal (preorder, postorder, ...)
- In OOP, PST/AST are defined using a *class hierarchy*

Example of an AST hierarchy



- Each class has several data attributes that store the relevant information. For example, the **SVarDecl** class (Variable Declaration) contains the variable name (a `str`), its type and its initializer (an **Expression**)
- This hierarchy is recursive. For example, the **EBinOp** (Binary Operator Application) contains two **Expression** (the operands).

AST definition in Python

```
1  import abc
2  import dataclasses as dc
3
4  @dc.dataclass
5  class AST(abc.ABC):
6      pass
7
8  @dc.dataclass
9  class Statement(AST):
10     pass
11
12 @dc.dataclass
13 class Expression(AST):
14     pass
```

```
1  @dc.dataclass
2  class SVarDecl(Statement):
3      name: str
4      type: str
5      init: Expression
6
7  @dc.dataclass
8  class SAssignment(Statement):
9      lvalue: str
10     rvalue: Expression
11
12 @dc.dataclass
13 class EVar(Expression):
14     name: str
15
16 @dc.dataclass
17 class EBinOp(Expression):
18     binop: str
19     left: Expression
20     right: Expression
```

AST transformers

There are different ways to work with an AST. **The ugly one:**

```
1  def do_something(ast : AST):  
2      if isinstance(ast, EVar):  
3          # Do something  
4      elif isinstance(ast, EBinOp):  
5          # Do something else  
6      # ...
```

- Error prone, hard to read, huge functions, ...
- Pass your way

AST transformers

The OOP way:

```
1  @dc.dataclass
2  class AST(abc.ABC):
3      @abc.abstractmethod
4      def transformer1(self):
5          pass
6
7      @abc.abstractmethod
8      def transformer2(self, thearg):
9          pass
```

```
1  @dc.dataclass
2  class SAssignment:
3      lvalue: str
4      rvalue: Expression
5
6      def transformer1(self):
7          # Do something (1)
8
9      def transformer2(self, thearg):
10         # Do something (2)
```

- Classic representation in OOP, but...
- ...transformers' bodies are spread across multiple classes.
- it is also possible to use the visitor design pattern.

AST transformers

Python has now a notion of **pattern matching** that plays well with the `dataclasses` module:

```
1  def transformer1_expr(e : Expression):
2      match e:
3          case EVar(name):
4              # Do something. Can use the 'name'
              variable
5          case EBinOp(_, left, right):
6              # Do something. '_' means that the
7              # first data attribute has been
8              # ignored (not bound)
```

```
1  def transformer1_stmt(s : Statement):
2      match e:
3          case SVarDecl(name = x, init = e):
4              # Data attributes can be matched
5              # using their names (more robust).
6          case SAssign(lvalue, rvalue):
7              # Do something.
```

- Close to **algebraic pattern matching**
- Widely used in functional programming
- Very effective when dealing with an AST

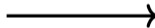
AST Linearization

- Order of evaluation of an $\langle \text{expr} \rangle$ depends on traversal (preorder, postorder, ...)
-
- **Instructions** are shallow –
operands can be registers, memory addresses, or numbers (depth 0)
 - Instructions are sequence-like
 - Order of evaluation is explicit – top-to-bottom
-
- **Instruction Generation**: going from tree-like to list-like structures

BX (AST) to TAC: Example

BX

```
def main() {  
    // variable declarations  
    var x = 0 : int;  
    var y = 0 : int;  
  
    // straightline code  
    x = 10;  
    y = 2 * x;  
    x = y * y / 2;  
    print(9 * x * x + 3 * x - 8);  
}
```



TAC

```
proc @main:  
    %0 = const 0;  
    %1 = const 0;  
    %0 = const 10;  
    %2 = const 2;  
    %1 = mul %2, %0;  
    %4 = mul %1, %1;  
    %7 = const 2;  
    %0 = div %4, %7;  
    %12 = const 9;  
    %11 = mul %12, %0;  
    %10 = mul %11, %0;  
    %16 = const 3;  
    %15 = mul %16, %0;  
    %9 = add %10, %15;  
    %18 = const 8;  
    %8 = sub %9, %18;  
    print %8;
```

Three Address Code (TAC)

(our first intermediate representation, IR)

- A (low-level) language that is **closer** to assembly than BX

- **Temporaries:**

- Think: *abstract* register
- Infinite supply – can use arbitrarily many
- Anonymous temporaries: %0, %1, %42, ...
- Named temporaries: %x, %foo, ...

(we will use these mostly)

- **Instructions:**

- Unique **opcode**
- Zero, one, or two **argument temporaries**
- Zero or one **result temporary** that is written
- Prototype syntax:

$\underbrace{\%42}_{\text{result}} = \underbrace{\text{add}}_{\text{opcode}} \underbrace{\%10, \%3}_{\text{args}}$

(with one exception: **const**)

TAC Instructions Reference

(%1, %2 = examples of **reads**; %0 = example of **write**; 42 = example of **immediate**)

Instruction	Description
%0 = const 42;	Set temporary %0 to the value 42.
%0 = copy %1;	Copy the value of %1 to %0.
%0 = binop %1, %2;	Compute the value of binary operator $\text{binop} \in \{\text{add}, \text{sub}, \text{mul}, \text{div}, \text{mod}, \text{and}, \text{or}, \text{xor}, \text{shl}, \text{shr}\}$ applied to %1 and %2 and store in %0.
%0 = unop %1;	Compute the value of a unary operator $\text{unop} \in \{\text{neg}, \text{not}\}$ applied to %1 and store in %0.
print %1;	Print the value of %1 to the standard output.

Algorithm 1: Top-Down Maximal Munch (TMM)

High-level overview

- Start from the **root** of the AST and do a postorder (i.e., children before root) traversal
- Allocate fresh temporaries for each child node (if any) and generate instructions (recursively!) to output the value fo that child to that temporary
- Finally, generate the instruction for the root using the temporaries of the children

Algorithm 1: Top-Down Maximal Munch (TMM)

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- Finally, generate the instruction for the root using the temporaries of the children

We will now flesh this out.

Top-Down Maximal Munch: Expressions

`code (e, x)`

- Generate code for the expression e .
- Storing the result in the temporary x .
- Returns: list of instructions.

e	<code>code (e, x)</code>	proviso
42	<code>[x = const 42;]</code>	—
y	<code>[x = copy y;]</code>	—
$e_1 + e_2$	<code>code (e₁, y) + code (e₂, z) + [x = add y, z;]</code>	y, z fresh
$- e_1$	<code>code (e₁, y) + [x = neg y;]</code>	y fresh

Top-Down Maximal Munch: Statements

code (s)

- Generate code for the statement s.
- Returns: list of instructions.

s	code (s)	proviso
$x = e;$	code (e, x)	—
<code>print</code> (e);	code (e, x) + [<code>print</code> x;]	x fresh

Top-Down Maximal Munch — Example

BX

```
x = 10;  
y = 2 * x;  
x = y * y / 2;  
print(9 * x * x + 3 * x - 8);
```

TMM



TAC

```
%0 = const 10;  
%2 = const 2;  
%3 = copy %0;  
%1 = mul %2, %3;  
%5 = copy %1;  
%6 = copy %1;  
%4 = mul %5, %6;  
%7 = const 2;  
%0 = div %4, %7;  
%12 = const 9;  
%13 = copy %0;  
%11 = mul %12, %13;  
%14 = copy %0;  
%10 = mul %11, %14;  
%16 = const 3;  
%17 = copy %0;  
%15 = mul %16, %17;  
%9 = add %10, %15;  
%18 = const 8;  
%8 = sub %9, %18;  
print %8;
```

Top-Down Maximal Munch — Example

BX

```
x = 10;  
y = 2 * x;  
x = y * y / 2;  
print(9 * x * x + 3 * x - 8);
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TMM



TAC

```
%0 = const 10;  
%2 = const 2;  
%3 = copy %0;  
%1 = mul %2, %3;  
%5 = copy %1;  
%6 = copy %1;  
%4 = mul %5, %6;  
%7 = const 2;  
%0 = div %4, %7;  
%12 = const 9;  
%13 = copy %0;  
%11 = mul %12, %13;  
%14 = copy %0;  
%10 = mul %11, %14;  
%16 = const 3;  
%17 = copy %0;  
%15 = mul %16, %17;  
%9 = add %10, %15;  
%18 = const 8;  
%8 = sub %9, %18;  
print %8;
```

TMM generates many (often redundant) copies!

Algorithm 2: Bottom-Up Maximal Munch (BMM)

Key idea: make the destination temporary an **output** instead of an **input**.

$(x, L) = \text{code}(e)$

- Generate code (L) for the expression e .
- Storing the result in the temporary x .
- Returns: both x and L

e	$\text{code}(e)$	proviso
42	$x, [x = \text{const } 42;]$	x fresh
y	$y, []$	—
$e_1 + e_2$	$x, L_1 + L_2 + [x = \text{add } y, z;]$ where $(y, L_1) = \text{code}(e_1)$ and $(z, L_2) = \text{code}(e_2)$	x fresh
$- e_1$	$x, L_1 + [x = \text{neg } y;]$ where $(y, L_1) = \text{code}(e_1)$	x fresh

Bottom-Up Maximal Munch: Statements

$\text{code}(s) = L$

- Generate code for the statement s
- Returns: list L of instructions

s	$\text{code}(s)$	proviso
$x = e;$	$L + [x = \text{copy } y;]$ where $(y, L) = \text{code}(e)$	—
$\text{print}(e);$	$L + [\text{print } x;]$ where $(x, L) = \text{code}(e)$	—

Both Maximal Munches — Example

TAC

```
%0 = const 10;
%2 = const 2;
%3 = copy %0;
%1 = mul %2, %3;
%5 = copy %1;
%6 = copy %1;
%4 = mul %5, %6;
%7 = const 2;
%0 = div %4, %7;
%12 = const 9;
%13 = copy %0;
%11 = mul %12, %13;
%14 = copy %0;
%10 = mul %11, %14;
%16 = const 3;
%17 = copy %0;
%15 = mul %16, %17;
%9 = add %10, %15;
%18 = const 8;
%8 = sub %9, %18;
print %8;
```

BX

```
x = 10;
y = 2 * x;
x = y * y / 2;
print(9 * x * x + 3 * x -
      8);
```

TAC

```
%0 = const 10;
%1 = copy %0;
%2 = const 2;
%3 = mul %2, %1;
%4 = copy %3;
%5 = mul %4, %4;
%6 = const 2;
%7 = div %5, %6;
%1 = div %7, %0;
%8 = const 9;
%9 = mul %8, %1;
%10 = mul %9, %1;
%11 = const 3;
%12 = mul %11, %1;
%13 = add %10, %12;
%14 = const 8;
%15 = sub %13, %14;
print %15;
```

TMM

BMM

Summary of Lecture 1

- The frontend produces an parse/abstract syntax **tree** (AST)
- Parse/abstract syntax tree are represented using tree-like structures. The concrete representation depends on the programming language
 - Class hierarchy,
 - Algebraic datatypes,
 - ...
- AST is linearized into instructions with maximal munch
 - Top-Down: **copy** on reads
 - Bottom-Up: **copy** on writes