



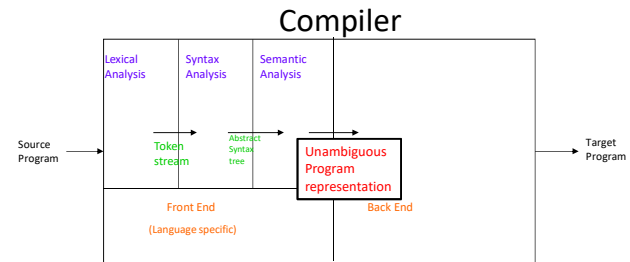
Compiler Design

I.R. and Symbol Tables

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Principles of Compiler Design

Intermediate Representation



Intermediate Representation Design

- More of a wizardry rather than science
- Compiler commonly use 2-3 IRs
- HIR (high level IR) preserves loop structure and array bounds
- MIR (medium level IR) reflects range of features in a set of source languages
 - language independent
 - good for code generation for one or more architectures
 - appropriate for most optimizations
- LIR (low level IR) low level similar to the machines

3

- Compiler writers have tried to define Universal IRs and have failed. (UNCOL in 1958)
- There is no standard Intermediate Representation. IR is a step in expressing a source program so that machine understands it
- As the translation takes place, IR is repeatedly analyzed and transformed
- Compiler users want analysis and translation to be fast and correct
- Compiler writers want optimizations to be simple to write, easy to understand and easy to extend
- IR should be simple and light weight while allowing easy expression of optimizations and transformations.

4

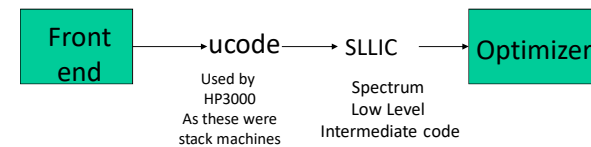
Issues in IR Design

- source language and target language
- porting cost or reuse of existing design
- whether appropriate for optimizations
- U-code IR used on PA-RISC and Mips.
Suitable for expression evaluation on stacks but less suited for load-store architectures
- both compilers translate U-code to another form
 - HP translates to very low level representation
 - Mips translates to MIR and translates back to U-code for code generator

5

Issues in new IR Design

- how much machine dependent
- expressiveness: how many languages are covered
- appropriateness for code optimization
- appropriateness for code generation
- Use more than one IR (like in PA-RISC)



6

Issues in new IR Design ...

- Use more than one IR for more than one optimization
- represent subscripts by list of subscripts: suitable for dependence analysis
- make addresses explicit in linearized form:
 - suitable for constant folding, strength reduction, loop invariant code motion, other basic optimizations

7

float a[10][20];
use a[i][j+2]

HIR

t1 ← a[i,j+2]

MIR

t1 ← j+2
t2 ← i*20
t3 ← t1+t2
t4 ← 4*t3
t5 ← addr a
t6 ← t4+t5
t7 ← *t6

LIR

r1 ← [fp-4]
r2 ← r1+2
r3 ← [fp-8]
r4 ← r3*20
r5 ← r4+r2
r6 ← 4*r5
r7 ← fp-216
f1 ← [r7+r6]

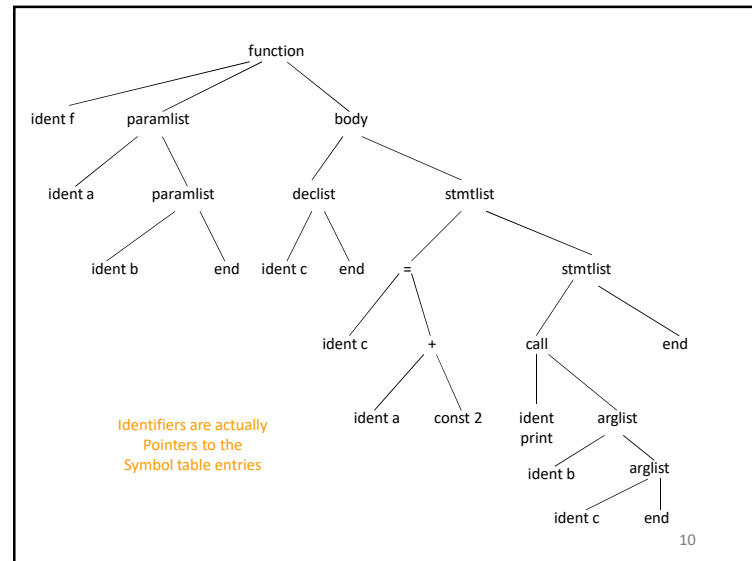
8

High level IR

```
int f(int a, int b) {
    int c;
    c = a + 2;
    print(b, c);
}
```

- Abstract syntax tree
 - keeps enough information to reconstruct source form
 - keeps information about symbol table

9



10

- Medium level IR
 - reflects range of features in a set of source languages
 - language independent
 - good for code generation for a number of architectures
 - appropriate for most of the optimizations
 - normally three address code
- Low level IR
 - corresponds one to one to target machine instructions
 - architecture dependent
- Multi-level IR
 - has features of MIR and LIR
 - may also have some features of HIR

11

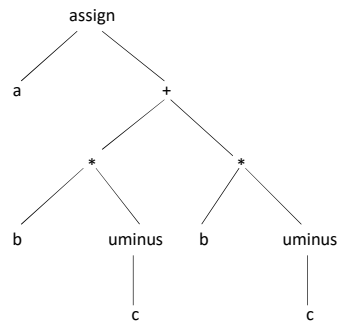
Abstract Syntax Tree/DAG

- Condensed form of a parse tree
- useful for representing language constructs
- Depicts the natural hierarchical structure of the source program
 - Each internal node represents an operator
 - Children of the nodes represent operands
 - Leaf nodes represent operands
- DAG is more compact than abstract syntax tree because common sub expressions are eliminated

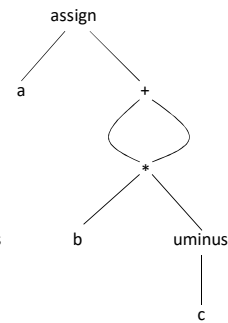
12

$a := b * -c + b * -c$

Abstract syntax tree



Directed Acyclic Graph



13

Postfix notation

- Linearized representation of a syntax tree
- List of nodes of the tree
- Nodes appear immediately after its children
- The postfix notation for an expression E is defined as follows:
 - If E is a variable or constant then the postfix notation is E itself
 - If E is an expression of the form $E_1 \text{ op } E_2$ where op is a binary operator then the postfix notation for E is
 - $E_1' E_2' \text{ op}$ where E_1' and E_2' are the postfix notations for E_1 and E_2 respectively
 - If E is an expression of the form (E_1) then the postfix notation for E_1 is also the postfix notation for E

14

Postfix notation ...

- No parenthesis are needed in postfix notation because
 - the position and parity of the operators permit only one decoding of a postfix expression
- Postfix notation for

$$a = b * -c + b * -c$$
 is

$$a \ b \ c \ - \ * \ b \ c \ - \ * \ + \ =$$

15

Three address code

- A linearized representation of a syntax tree where explicit names correspond to the interior nodes of the graph
- Sequence of statements of the general form

$$X := Y \text{ op } Z$$
 - X, Y or Z are names, constants or compiler generated temporaries
 - op stands for any operator such as a fixed- or floating-point arithmetic operator, or a logical operator
 - Extensions to handle arrays, function call

16

Three address code ...

- Only one operator on the right-hand side is allowed
- Source expression like $x + y * z$ might be translated into
 - $t_1 := y * z$
 - $t_2 := x + t_1$where t_1 and t_2 are compiler generated temporary names
- Unraveling of complicated arithmetic expressions and of control flow makes 3-address code desirable for code generation and optimization
- The use of names for intermediate values allows 3-address code to be easily rearranged

17

Three address instructions

- **Assignment**
 - $x = y \text{ op } z$
 - $x = \text{op } y$
 - $x = y$
- **Function**
 - param x
 - call p, n
 - return y
- **Jump**
 - goto L
 - if $x \text{ relop } y$ goto L
- **Indexed assignment**
 - $x = y[i]$
 - $x[i] = y$
- **Pointer**
 - $x = \&y$
 - $x = *y$
 - $*x = y$

18

Other IRs

- SSA: Single Static Assignment
- RTL: Register transfer language
- Stack machines: P-code
- CFG: Control Flow Graph
- Dominator Trees
- DJ-graph: dominator tree augmented with join edges
- PDG: Program Dependence Graph
- VDG: Value Dependence Graph
- GURRR: Global unified resource requirement representation. Combines PDG with resource requirements
- Java intermediate bytecodes
- The list goes on

19

Symbol Table

- Compiler uses symbol table to keep track of scope and binding information about names
- changes to table occur
 - if a new name is discovered
 - if new information about an existing name is discovered
- Symbol table must have mechanism to:
 - add new entries
 - find existing information efficiently

20

Symbol Table

- Two common mechanism:
 - linear lists
 - simple to implement, poor performance
 - hash tables
 - greater programming/space overhead, good performance
- Compiler should be able to grow symbol table dynamically
 - If size is fixed, it must be large enough for the largest program

21

Data Structures for Symbol Table

- List data structure
 - simplest to implement
 - use a single array to store names and information
 - search for a name is linear
 - entry and lookup are independent operations
 - cost of entry and search operations are very high, and lot of time goes into bookkeeping
- Hash table
 - The advantages are obvious

22

Symbol Table Entries

- each entry corresponds to a declaration of a name
- format need not be uniform because information depends upon the usage of the name
- each entry is a record consisting of consecutive words
 - If uniform records are desired, some entries may be kept outside the symbol table (e.g., variable length strings)

23

Symbol Table Entries

- information is entered into symbol table at various times
 - keywords are entered initially
 - identifier lexemes are entered by lexical analyzer
 - attribute values are filled in as information is available
- a name may denote several objects in the same block

```
int x;
struct x {float y, z; }
```

 - lexical analyzer returns the name itself and not pointer to symbol table entry
 - record in the symbol table is created when role of the name becomes clear
 - in this case two symbol table entries will be created

24

- attributes of a name are entered in response to declarations
- labels are often identified by colon (:)
- syntax of procedure/function specifies that certain identifiers are formals
- there is a distinction between token id, lexeme and attributes of the names
 - it is difficult to work with lexemes
 - if there is modest upper bound on length then lexemes can be stored in symbol table
 - if limit is large store lexemes separately

25

Storage Allocation Information

- information about storage locations is kept in the symbol table
 - if target is assembly code then assembler can take care of storage for various names
- compiler needs to generate data definitions to be appended to assembly code
- if target is machine code then compiler does the allocation
- for names whose storage is allocated at runtime no storage allocation is done
 - compiler plans out activation records

26

Representing Scope Information

- entries are declarations of names
- when a lookup is done, entry for appropriate declaration must be returned
- scope rules determine which entry is appropriate
- maintain separate table for each scope
- symbol table for a procedure or scope is compile time equivalent an activation record
- information about non local is found by scanning symbol table for the enclosing procedures
- symbol table can be attached to abstract syntax of the procedure (integrated into intermediate representation)

27

- most closely nested scope rule can be implemented in data structures discussed
 - give each procedure a unique number
 - blocks must also be numbered
 - procedure number is part of all local declarations
 - name is represented as a pair of number and name
- names are entered in symbol table in the order they occur
- most closely nested rule can be created in terms of following operations:
 - lookup: find the most recently created entry
 - insert: make a new entry
 - delete: remove the most recently created entry

28

Symbol table structure

- Assign variables to storage classes that prescribe scope, visibility, and lifetime
 - scope rules prescribe the symbol table structure
 - scope: unit of static program structure with one or more variable declarations
 - scope may be nested
 - Pascal: procedures are scoping units
 - C: blocks, functions, files are scoping units
- Visibility, lifetimes, global variables
- Automatic or stack storage
- Static variables

29

Symbol attributes and symbol table entries

- Symbols have associated attributes
- typical attributes are name, type, scope, size, addressing mode etc.
- a symbol table entry collects together attributes such that they can be easily set and retrieved
- example of typical names in symbol table

Name	Type
name	character string
class	enumeration
size	integer
type	enumeration

30

Nesting structure of an example Pascal program

```

program e;
var a, b, c: integer;

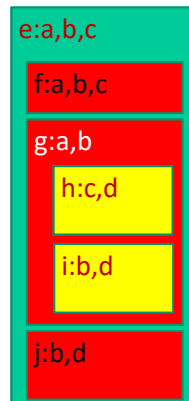
procedure f;
var a, b, c: integer;
begin
  a := b+c;
end;

procedure g;
var a, b: integer;

procedure h;
var c, d: integer;
begin
  c := a+d;
end;

procedure i;
var b, d: integer;
begin
  b := a+c;
end;

procedure j;
var b, d: integer;
begin
  b := a+d;
end;
    
```



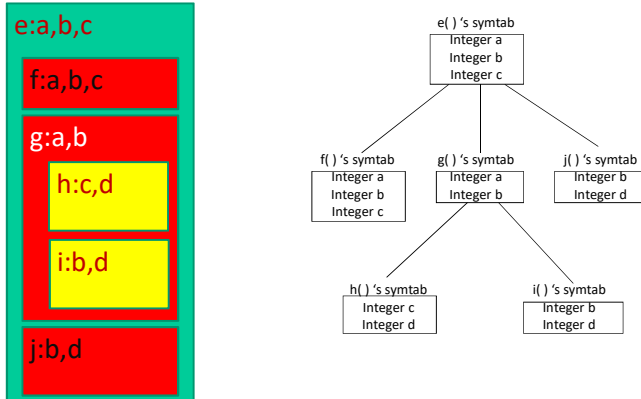
31

Global Symbol table structure

- scope and visibility rules determine the structure of global symbol table
- for Algol class of languages scoping rules structure the symbol table as tree of local tables
 - global scope as root
 - tables for nested scope as children of the table for the scope they are nested in

32

Global Symbol table structure



33

Example

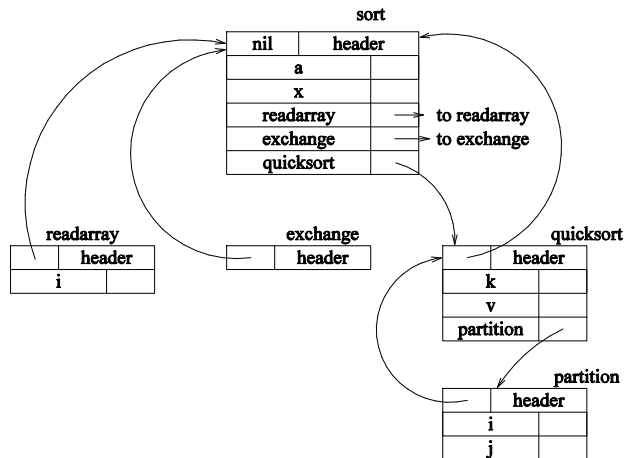
```

program sort;
  var a : array[0..10] of integer;

  procedure readarray;
    var i :integer;
    :
  procedure exchange(i, j
    :integer)
    :

  procedure quicksort (m, n :integer);
    var i :integer;
    function partition (y, z
      :integer) :integer;
      var i, j, x, v :integer;
      :
      i:= partition (m,n);
      quicksort (m,i-1);
      quicksort(i+1, n);
      :
  begin{main}
    readarray;
    quicksort(1,9)
  end.
    
```

34



35

Storage binding and symbolic registers

- Translates variable names into addresses
- This process must occur before or during code generation
- each variable is assigned an address or addressing method
- each variable is assigned an offset with respect to base which changes with every invocation
- variables fall in four classes: global, global static, stack, local (non-stack) static

36

- global/static: fixed relocatable address or offset with respect to base as global pointer
- stack variable: offset from stack/frame pointer
- allocate stack/global in registers
- registers are not indexable, therefore, arrays cannot be in registers
- assign symbolic registers to scalar variables
- used for graph coloring for global register allocation

37

a: global b: local c[0..9]: local
gp: global pointer fp: frame pointer

MIR	LIR	LIR
a \leftarrow a*2	r1 \leftarrow [gp+8]	s0 \leftarrow s0*2
	r2 \leftarrow r1*2	
	[gp+8] \leftarrow r2	
b \leftarrow a+c[1]	r3 \leftarrow [gp+8]	s1 \leftarrow [fp-28]
	r4 \leftarrow [fp-28]	s2 \leftarrow s0+s1
	r5 \leftarrow r3+r4	
	[fp-20] \leftarrow r5	
	Names bound to locations	Names bound to symbolic registers

38

Local Variables in Frame

- assign to consecutive locations; allow enough space for each
 - may put word size object in half word boundaries
 - requires two half word loads
 - requires shift, or, and
- align on double word boundaries
 - wastes space
 - machine may allow small offsets

39

- sort variables by the alignment they need
- store largest variables first
 - automatically aligns all the variables
 - does not require padding
- store smallest variables first
 - requires more space (padding)
 - for large stack frame makes more variables accessible with small offsets

40

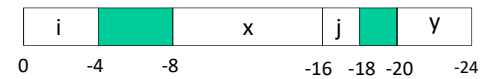
How to store large local data structures

- Requires large space in local frames and therefore large offsets
- If large object is put near the boundary other objects require large offset either from fp (if put near beginning) or sp (if put near end)
- Allocate another base register to access large objects
- Allocate space in the middle or elsewhere; store pointer to these locations from at a small offset from fp
- Requires extra loads

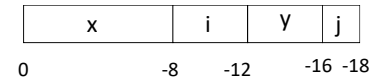
41

```
int i;
double float x;
short int j;
float y;
```

Unsorted aligned



Sorted frames



42

Symbol Table Creation

43

Declarations

$P \rightarrow D$

$D \rightarrow D ; D$

$D \rightarrow \text{id} : T$

$T \rightarrow \text{integer}$

$T \rightarrow \text{real}$

44

Declarations

For each name create symbol table entry with information like type and relative address

$P \rightarrow \{\text{offset}=0\} D$

$D \rightarrow D ; D$

$D \rightarrow \text{id} : T$

enter(id.name, T.type, offset);
offset = offset + T.width

$T \rightarrow \text{integer}$

T.type = integer; T.width = 4

$T \rightarrow \text{real}$

T.type = real; T.width = 8

45

Declarations ...

$T \rightarrow \text{array} [\text{num}] \text{ of } T_1$

T.type = array(num.val, T_1 .type)

T.width = num.val x T_1 .width

$T \rightarrow \uparrow T_1$

T.type = pointer(T_1 .type)

T.width = 4

46

Keeping track of local information

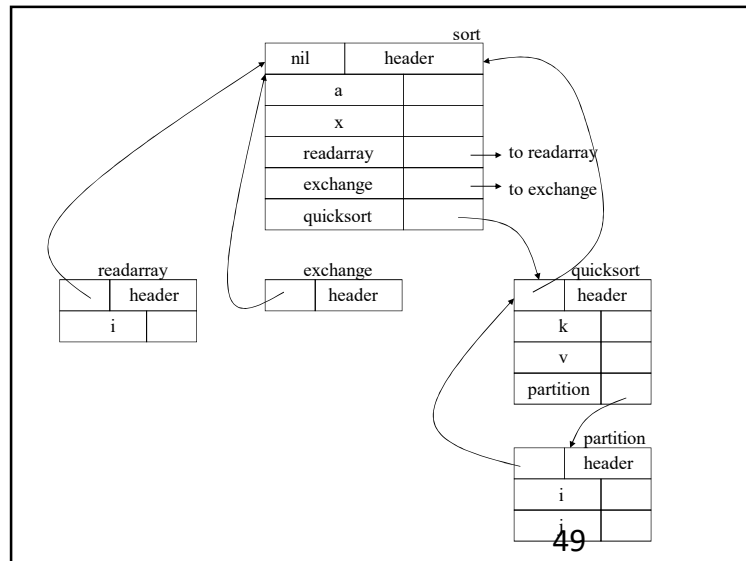
- when a nested procedure is seen, processing of declaration in enclosing procedure is temporarily suspended
- assume following language
 $P \rightarrow D$
 $D \rightarrow D ; D \mid \text{id} : T \mid \text{proc id} ; D ; S$
- a new symbol table is created when procedure declaration
 $D \rightarrow \text{proc id} ; D_1 ; S$ is seen
- entries for D_1 are created in the new symbol table
- the name represented by id is local to the enclosing procedure

47

Example

```
program sort;  
  var a : array[1..n] of integer;  
  x : integer;  
  procedure readarray;  
    var i : integer;  
    .....  
  procedure exchange(i,j:integer);  
    .....  
  procedure quicksort(m,n : integer);  
    var k,v : integer;  
    function partition(x,y:integer):integer;  
      var i,j: integer;  
      .....  
    .....  
  begin(main)  
    .....  
end.
```

48



Creating symbol table: Interface

- **mktable (previous)**
create a new symbol table and return a pointer to the new table. The argument previous points to the enclosing procedure
- **enter (table, name, type, offset)**
creates a new entry
- **addwidth (table, width)**
records cumulative width of all the entries in a table
- **enterproc (table, name, newtable)**
creates a new entry for procedure name. newtable points to the symbol table of the new procedure
- Maintain two stacks: (1) symbol tables and (2) offsets
- Standard stack operations: push, pop, top

50

Creating symbol table ...

```

D → proc id;
    {t = mktable(top(tblptr));
     push(t, tblptr); push(0, offset)}

D1; S
    {t = top(tblptr);
     addwidth(t, top(offset));
     pop(tblptr); pop(offset);
     enterproc(top(tblptr), id.name, t)}

D → id: T
    {enter(top(tblptr), id.name, T.type, top(offset));
     top(offset) = top (offset) + T.width}

```

51

Creating symbol table ...

```

P →
    {t=mktable(nil);
     push(t,tblptr);
     push(0,offset)}

D
    {addwidth(top(tblptr),top(offset));
     pop(tblptr); // save it somewhere!
     pop(offset)}

D → D ; D

```

52

Field names in records

```
T → record
    {t = mktable(nil);
     push(t, tblptr); push(0, offset)}
D end
    {T.type = record(top(tblptr));
     T.width = top(offset);
     pop(tblptr); pop(offset)}
```

53

Names in the Symbol table

```
S → id := E
    {p = lookup(id.place);
     if p <> nil then emit(p := E.place)
     else error}

E → id
    {p = lookup(id.name);
     if p <> nil then E.place = p
     else error}
```

54

Addressing Array Elements

- Arrays are stored in a block of consecutive locations
- assume width of each element is w
- i th element of array A begins in location
 $\text{base} + (i - \text{low}) \times w$
where base is relative address of $A[\text{low}]$
- the expression is equivalent to
 $i \times w + (\text{base} - \text{low} \times w)$
 $\rightarrow i \times w + \text{const}$

55

2-dimensional array

- storage can be either row major or column major
- in case of 2-D array stored in row major form address of $A[i_1, i_2]$ can be calculated as

$$\text{base} + ((i_1 - \text{low}_1) \times n_2 + i_2 - \text{low}_2) \times w$$

$$\text{where } n_2 = \text{high}_2 - \text{low}_2 + 1$$

- rewriting the expression gives

$$((i_1 \times n_2) + i_2) \times w + (\text{base} - ((\text{low}_1 \times n_2) + \text{low}_2) \times w)$$
$$\rightarrow ((i_1 \times n_2) + i_2) \times w + \text{constant}$$

- this can be generalized for $A[i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k]$

56

Example

- Let A be a 10x20 array, low indices at 1.
therefore, $n_1 = 10$ and $n_2 = 20$
and assume $w = 4$

- code to access $A[y,z]$ is

$$t_1 = y * 20$$

$$t_1 = t_1 + z$$

$$t_2 = 4 * t_1$$

$$t_3 = \text{addr}(A) - 84 \quad \{((\text{low}_1 \times n_2) + \text{low}_2) \times w = (1 \times 20 + 1) \times 4 = 84\}$$

$$t_4 = t_2 + t_3$$

$$x = t_4$$

57