1 The Factor Compiler

If we could sort programming languages by the fuzzy notions we tend to have about how "high-level" they are, toward the high end we'd find dynamically-typed languages like Python, Ruby, and PHP—all of which are generally more interpreted than compiled. Despite being as high-level as these popular languages, Factor's implementation is driven by performance. Factor source is always compiled to native machine code using either its simple, non-optimizing compiler or (more typically) the optimizing compiler that performs several sorts of data and control flow analyses. In this section, we look at the general architecture of Factor's implementation, after which we place a particular emphasis on the transformations performed by the optimizing compiler.

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1.1 High-level Optimizations

To manipulate source code abstractly, we must have at least one intermediate representation (IR)—a data structure representing the instructions. It's common to convert between several IRs during compilation, as each form offers different properties that facilitate particular analyses. The Factor compiler optimizes code in passes across two different IRs: first at a high-level using the compiler.tree vocabulary, then at a low-level with the compiler.cfg vocabulary.

The high-level IR arranges code into a vector of node objects, which may themselves have children consisting of vectors of node—a tree structure that lends to the name compiler.tree. This ordered sequence of nodes represents control flow in a way that's effectively simple, annotated stack code. Listing 1 on the following page shows the definitions of the tuples that represent the "instruction set" of this stack code. Each object inherits (directly or indirectly) from the node class, which itself inherits from identity-tuple. This is a tuple whose equal? method is defined to always return f so that no two instances are equivalent unless they are the same instance.

Notice that most nodes define some sort of in-d and out-d slots, which mark each of them with the input and output data stacks. This represents the flow of data through the program. Here, stack values are denoted simply by integers, giving each value a unique identifier. An #introduce instance is inserted wherever the next node requires stack values that have not yet been named. Thus, while #introduce has no in-d, its out-d introduces the necessary stack values. Similarly, #return is inserted at the end of the sequence to indicate the final state of the data stack with its in-d slot.

The most basic operations of a stack language are, of course, pushing literals and calling functions. The #push node thus has a literal slot and an out-d slot, giving a name to the single element it pushes to the data stack. #call, of course, is used for normal word invocations. The in-d and out-d slots effectively serve as the stack effect declaration. In later analyses, data about the word's definition may be stored across the body, method, class, and info slots.

The word build-tree takes a Factor quotation and constructs the equivalent high-level IR form. In Listing 2 on page 3, we see the output of the simple example [1 +] build-tree. Note that T{ class { slot1 value1 } { slot2 value2 } ... } is the syntax for tuple literals. The first node is a #push for the 1 literal. Since + needs two input values, an #introduce pushes a new "phantom" value. + gets turned into a #call instance. Notice the in-d slot refers to the values in the order that they're passed to the word, not necessarily the order they've been introduced in the

```
TUPLE: node < identity-tuple;
TUPLE: #introduce < node out-d ;
TUPLE: #return < node in-d info ;
TUPLE: #push < node literal out-d;
TUPLE: #call < node word in-d out-d body method class info ;
TUPLE: #renaming < node ;
TUPLE: #copy < #renaming in-d out-d;
TUPLE: #shuffle < #renaming mapping in-d out-d in-r out-r;
TUPLE: #declare < node declaration ;
TUPLE: #terminate < node in-d in-r;
TUPLE: #branch < node in-d children live-branches;
TUPLE: #if < #branch;
TUPLE: #dispatch < #branch;
TUPLE: #phi < node phi-in-d phi-info-d out-d terminated;
TUPLE: #recursive < node in-d word label loop? child;
TUPLE: #enter-recursive < node in-d out-d label info;
TUPLE: #call-recursive < node label in-d out-d info;
TUPLE: #return-recursive < #renaming in-d out-d label info;
TUPLE: #alien-node < node params;
TUPLE: #alien-invoke < #alien-node in-d out-d;
TUPLE: #alien-indirect < #alien-node in-d out-d;
TUPLE: #alien-assembly < #alien-node in-d out-d;
TUPLE: #alien-callback < node params child;
```

Listing 1: High-level IR nodes

Listing 2: [1 +] build-tree

IR. The sum is pushed to the data stack, so the out-d slot is a singleton that names this value. Finally, #return indicates the end of the routine, its in-d containing the value left on the stack (the sum pushed by #call).

```
V{
    T{ #introduce { out-d { 6256132 6256133 } } }
    T{ #shuffle
        { mapping { 6256134 6256133 } { 6256135 6256132 } } }
        { in-d V{ 6256132 6256133 } }
        { out-d V{ 6256134 6256135 } }
    }
    T{ #return { in-d V{ 6256134 6256135 } } }
}
```

Listing 3: [swap] build-tree

The next tuples in Listing 1 on the preceding page reassign existing values on the stack to fresh identifiers. The #renaming superclass has the two subclasses #copy and #shuffle. The former represents the bijection from elements of in-d to elements of out-d in the same position; corresponding values are copies of each other. The latter represents a more general mapping. Stack shufflers are translated to #shuffle nodes with mapping slots that dictate how the fresh values in out-d correspond to the input values in in-d. For instance, Listing 3 shows how swap takes in the values 6256132 and 6256133 and outputs 6256134 and 6256135, where the former is mapped to the second element (6256133) and the latter to the first (6256132). Thus, out-d swaps the two elements of in-d, mapping them to fresh identifiers. The in-r and out-r slots of #shuffle correspond to the retain stack, which is an implementation detail beyond the scope of this discussion.

#declare is a miscellaneous node used for the declare primitive. It simply annotates type information to stack values, as in Listing 4 on the following page. #terminate is another one-off node, but a much more interesting one. While Factor normally requires a balanced stack,

```
V{
    T{ #introduce { out-d { 6256069 } } }
    T{ #declare { declaration { { 6256069 fixnum } } } }
    T{ #return { in-d V{ 6256069 } } }
}
```

Listing 4: [{ fixnum } declare] build-tree

```
V{
    T{ #push { literal "Error!" } { out-d { 6256051 } } }
    T{ #call
        { word throw }
        { in-d V{ 6256051 } }
        { out-d { } }
}
    T{ #terminate { in-d V{ } } { in-r V{ } } }

T{ #return { in-d V{ } }
}
```

Listing 5: ["Error!" throw] build-tree

sometimes we purposefully want to throw an error. #terminate is introduced where the program halts prematurely. When checking the stack height, it gets to be treated specially so that terminated stack effects unify with any other effect. That way, branches will still be balanced even if one of them unconditionally throws an error. Listing 5 shows #terminate being introduced by the throw word.

Next, Listing 1 on page 2 defines nodes for branching based off the superclass #branch. The children slot contains vectors of nodes representing different branches. live-branches is filled in during later analyses to indicate which branches are alive so that dead ones may be removed. For instance, #if will have two elements in its children slot representing the true and false branches. On the other hand, #dispatch has an arbitrary number of children. It corresponds to the dispatch primitive, which is an implementation detail of the generic word system used to speed up method dispatch.

You may have noted the emphasis on introducing new values, instead of reassigning old ones. Even #shuffles output fresh identifiers, letting their values be determined by its mapping. The reason for this is that compiler.tree uses static single assignment (SSA) form, wherein every variable is defined by exactly one statement. This simplifies the properties of variables, which helps optimizations perform faster and with better results. By giving unique names to the targets of each assignment, the SSA property is guaranteed. However, #branches introduce ambiguity: after, say, an #if, what will the out-d be? It depends on which branch is taken. To remedy this problem, after any #branch node, Factor will place a #phi node—the classical SSA "phony function", ϕ . While it doesn't perform any literal computation, conceptually ϕ selects between its inputs, choosing the "correct" argument depending on control flow. This can then be assigned to

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a unique value, preserving the SSA property. In Factor, this is represented by a phi-in-d slot, which is a sequence of sequences. Each element corresponds to the out-d of the child at the same position in the children of the preceding #branch node. The #phi's out-d gives unique names to the output values.

```
٧{
    T{ #introduce { out-d { 6256247 } } }
    T{ #if
        { in-d { 6256247 } }
        { children
            {
                ₹\
                    T{ #push
                         { literal 1 }
                         { out-d { 6256248 } }
                    }
                }
                ٧{
                    T{ #push
                         { literal 2 }
                         { out-d { 6256249 } }
                }
            }
        }
    T{ #phi
        { phi-in-d { { 6256248 } { 6256249 } } }
        { out-d { 6256250 } }
        { terminated V{ f f } }
    T{ #return { in-d V{ 6256250 } } }
```

Listing 6: [[1] [2] if] build-tree

For example, the #phi in Listing 6 will select between the 6256248 return value of the first child or the 6256249 output of the second. Either way, we can refer to the result as 6256250 afterwards. The terminated slot of the #phi tells us if there was a #terminate in any of the branches.

The #recursive node encapsulates *inline recursive* words. In Factor, words may be annotated with simple compiler declarations, which guide optimizations. If we follow a standard colon definition with the **inline** word, we're saying that its definition can be spliced into the call-site, rather than generating code to jump to a subroutine. Inline words that call themselves must additionally be declared **recursive**. For example, we could write: foo (--) foo; **inline recursive**. The nodes #enter-recursive, #call-recursive, and #return-recursive denote different stages

of the recursion—the beginning, recursive call, and end, respectively. They carry around a lot of metadata about the nature of the recursion, but it doesn't serve our purposes to get into the details. Similarly, we gloss over the final nodes of Listing 1 on page 2 correspond to Factor's foreign function interface (FFI) vocabulary, called alien. At a high level, #alien-node, #alien-invoke, #alien-indirect, #alien-assembly, and #alien-callback are used to make calls to C libraries from within Factor.

```
: optimize-tree ( nodes -- nodes' )
      analyze-recursive
      normalize
      propagate
      cleanup
      dup run-escape-analysis? [
          escape-analysis
          unbox-tuples
      when
      apply-identities
      compute-def-use
      remove-dead-code
      ?check
      compute-def-use
      optimize-modular-arithmetic
      finalize
 ] with-scope ;
```

Listing 7: Optimization passes on the high-level IR

Shouldn't bold "cleanup" in Listing 7

Now that we're familiar with the structure of the high-level IR, we can turn our attention to optimization. Listing 7 shows the passes performed on a sequence of nodes by the word optimize-tree. Before optimization can begin, we must gather some information and clean up some oddities in the output of build-tree. analyze-recursive is called first to identify and mark loops in the tree. Effectively, this means we detect tail-recursion introduced by #recursive nodes. Future passes can then use this information for data flow analysis. Then, normalize makes the tree more consistent by doing two things:

- All #introduce nodes are removed and replaced by a single #introduce at the beginning of the whole program. This way, further passes needn't handle #introduce nodes.
- As constructed, the in-d of a #call-recursive will be the entire stack at the time of the call. This assumption happens because we don't know how many inputs it needs until the #return-recursive is processed, because of row polymorphism. So, here we figure out exactly what stack entries are needed, and trim the in-d and out-d of each #call-recursive accordingly.

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Once these passes have cleaned up the tree, propagate performs probably the most extensive analysis of all the phases. In short, it performs an extended version of sparse conditional constant propagation (SCCP). The traditional data flow analysis combines global copy propagation, constant propagation, and constant folding in a flow-sensitive way. That is, it will propagate information from branches that it knows are definitely taken (e.g., because #if is always given a true input). Instead of using the typical single-level (numeric) constant value lattice, Factor uses a lattice augmented by information about classes, numeric value ranges, array lengths, and tuple slots' classes. Classes can be used in the lattice with the partial-order protocol described briefly in ??. Additionally, the transfer functions are allowed to inline certain calls if enough information is present. This occurs in the transfer function since generic words' inline expansions into particular methods provide more information, thus giving us more opportunities for propagation. This is particularly useful for arithmetic words. In Factor, words like + and * are generics that work across all sorts of numeric representations, be they fixnums, floats, bignums, etc. If the operation overflows, the values are automatically cast up to larger representations. But iterated refinement of the inputs' classes can let the compiler select more specific, efficient methods (e.g., if both arguments are fixnums).

Interval propagation also helps propagate class information. By refining the range of possible values a particular item can have, we might discover that, say, it's small enough to fit in a **fixnum** rather than a **bignum**. There are plenty more things that interval propagation can tell us, too. For example, it may give us enough information to remove overflow checks performed by numeric words. And if the interval has zero length, we may replace the value with a constant. This then continues getting propagated, contributing to constant folding and so forth.

propagate iterates through the nodes collecting all of this data until reaching a stable point where inferences can no longer be drawn. Technically, this information doesn't alter the tree at all; we merely store it so that speculative decisions may be realized later. The next word in Listing 7 on the preceding page, cleanup, does just this by inlining words, folding constants, removing overflow checks, deleting unreachable branches, and flattening inline-recursive words that don't actually wind up calling themselves (e.g., because the calls got constant-folded).

```
TUPLE: data-struct
  { a read-only }
  { b read-only };

: escaping-via-#return ( -- data-struct )
  1 2 data-struct boa;

: escaping-via-#call ( -- )
  1 2 data-struct boa pprint;

: non-escaping ( -- )
  1 2 data-struct [ a>> ] [ b>> ] bi +;
```

Listing 8: Escaping vs. non-escaping tuple allocations

The next major pass is escape-analysis, whose information is used for the actual transformation unbox-tuples. This discovers tuples that escape by getting passed outside of a word. For instance, the inputs to #return obviously escape, as they are passed to the world outside of the word in question. Similarly, inputs to the #call of another word escape. So, though the tuples in escaping-via-#return and escaping-via-#call in Listing 8 on the previous page both escape, we can see the one in non-escaping does not. In fact, the last allocation is unnecessary. By identifying this, unbox-tuples can then rewrite the code to avoid allocating a data-struct altogether, instead manipulating the slots' values directly. Note that this only happens for immutable tuples, all of whose slots are read-only. Otherwise, we would need to perform more advanced pointer analyses to discover aliases.

apply-identities follows to simplify words with known identity elements. If, say, an argument to + is 0, we can simply return the other argument. This converts the #call to + into a simple #shuffle. These identities are defined for most arithmetic words.

Another simple few passes come next in Listing 7 on page 6. True to its name, compute-def-use computes where SSA values are defined and used. Values that are never used are eliminated by remove-dead-code. ?check conditionally performs some consistency checks on the tree, mostly to make sure that no errors were introduced in the stack flow. If a global variable isn't toggled on, this part is skipped. We run compute-def-use again to update the information after altering the tree with dead code elimination.

Finally, optimize-modular-arithmetic performs a form of strength-reduction on artihmetic words that only use the low-order bits of their inputs/results, which may also remove more unnecessary overflow checks. finalize cleans up a few random miscellaneous bits of the tree (removing empty shufflers, deleting #copy nodes, etc.) in preparation for lower-level optimizations.

Double-check zealous syntax-highlighting