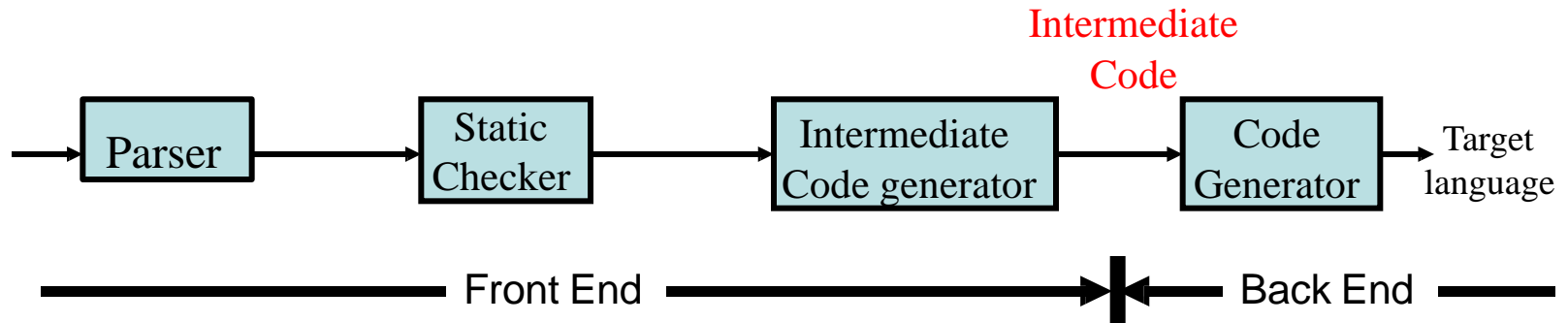


CSE 4102

Intermediate Code Generation

Compilers principles, techniques, & tools-ULLMAN
Chapter 06

Compiler Architecture



- $m \times n$ compilers can be built by writing m front ends and n back ends – save considerable amount of effort
- We assume parsing, static checking and IC generation is done sequentially
 - These can be combined and done during parsing
- Static checking
 - Operator operand compatibility
 - Proper placement of break/continue keywords etc.

Intermediate Code (IC)

- The given program in a source language is converted to an equivalent program in an intermediate language by the IC generator.
- Ties the front and back ends together
- Language and Machine neutral
- Many forms
- Level depends on how being processed
- More than one intermediate language may be used by a compiler

Intermediate Representations

- In most compilers, the parser builds an *intermediate representation* of the program
- Rest of the compiler transforms the IR to “improve” (optimize) it and eventually translates it to final code
 - Often will transform initial IR to one or more different IRs along the way

IR Design

- Decisions affect speed and efficiency of the rest of the compiler
- 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 compiler

Types of IRs

- Three major categories
 - Structural
 - Linear
 - Hybrid
- Some basic examples now; more when we get to later phases of the compiler

Levels of Abstraction

- Key design decision: how much detail to expose
 - Affects possibility and profitability of various optimizations
 - Structural IRs are typically fairly high-level
 - Linear IRs are typically low-level
 - But these generalizations don't always hold

Intermediate language levels

- **High**

$T1 \leftarrow a[i,j+2]$

- **Medium**

$t1 \leftarrow j + 2$

$t2 \leftarrow i * 20$

$t3 \leftarrow t1 + t2$

$t4 \leftarrow 4 * t3$

$t5 \leftarrow \text{addr } a$

$t6 \leftarrow t5 + t4$

$t7 \leftarrow *t6$

- **Low**

$r1 \leftarrow [fp-4]$

$r2 \leftarrow r1 + 2$

$r3 \leftarrow [fp-8]$

$r4 \leftarrow r3 * 20$

$r5 \leftarrow r4 + r2$

$r6 \leftarrow 4 * r5$

$r7 \leftarrow fp - 216$

$f1 \leftarrow [r7+r6]$

Intermediate Languages Types

- **Graphical IRs:**
 - Syntax trees
 - Abstract Syntax trees
 - Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAGs)
 - Control Flow Graphs
- **Linear IRs:**
 - Stack based (postfix)
 - Three address code (quadruples)

Graphical IRs

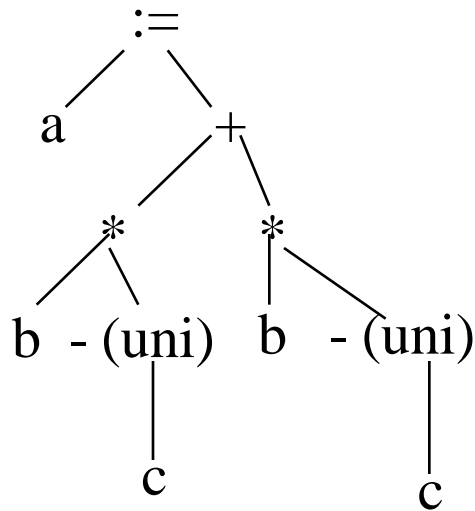
- Concrete Syntax Trees -Parse Trees
- Abstract Syntax Trees (AST) – retain essential structure of the parse tree, eliminating unneeded nodes.
- Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAG) – compacted AST to avoid duplication – smaller footprint as well
- Control flow graphs (CFG) – explicitly model control flow

Structural IRs

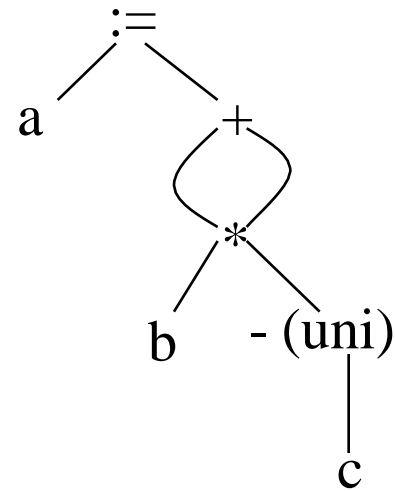
- *Typically reflect source (or other higher-level) language structure*
- *Tend to be large*
- Examples: syntax trees, DAGs
- Particularly useful for source-to-source transformations
- The full grammar is needed to guide the parser, but contains many extraneous details
- Typically the full syntax tree does not need to be used explicitly

ASTs and DAGs:

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



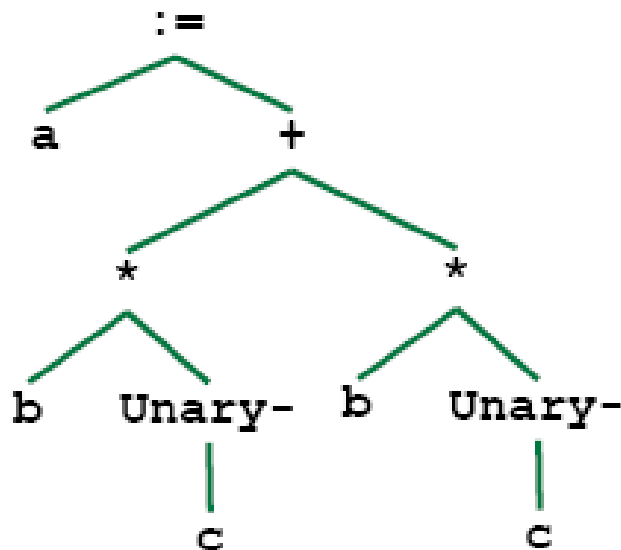
AST



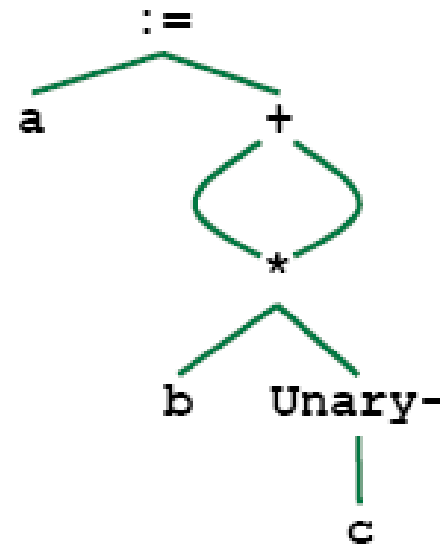
DAG

Implementation of DAG/AST: Value Number Method

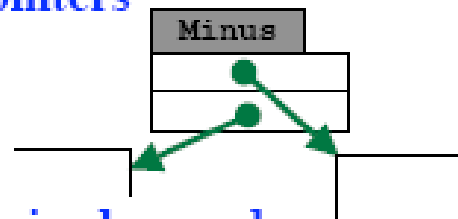
Tree:



DAG:



Structures and Pointers



An array of fixed-sized records

Q: How to build DAG's (i.e., trees with shared, common parts)?

A: When you are about to allocate a new node; look to see if you already have one with the same info.

0	id	b	-
1	id	c	-
2	unary-	1	-
3	mult	0	2
4	id	b	-
5	id	c	-
6	unary-	5	-
7	mult	4	6
8	add	3	7
9	id	a	-
10	assign	9	8

Three-Address code

- Many different representations
- General form: $x \leftarrow y \text{ (op) } z$
 - One operator
 - Maximum of three names
- Example: $x = 2 * (n + m)$; becomes
 - $t1 \leftarrow n + m$
 - $t2 \leftarrow 2 * t1$
 - $x \leftarrow t2$

Three Address Code (cont)

- Advantages
 - Resembles code for actual machines
 - Explicitly names intermediate results
 - Compact
 - Often easy to rearrange
- Various representations
 - Quadruples, triples, SSA
 - Much more later...

Three-Address Code

- A three-address code is:

$x := y \text{ op } z$

where x , y and z are names, constants or compiler-generated temporaries; op is any operator.

- But we may also the following notation for three-address code (it looks like a machine code instruction)

$\text{op} \quad y, z, x$

apply operator op to y and z , and store the result in x .

- We use the term **“three-address code”** because each **statement usually contains three addresses** (two for operands, one for the result).

Linearized Representation of DAG/AST

- Source Code

– $a = b * -c + b * -c$

- Three address code

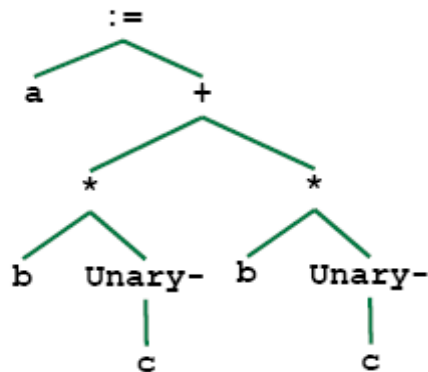
Each instruction has (up to) 3 operands.

```
t1 := -c
t2 := b * t1
t3 := -c
t4 := b * t3
t5 := t2 + t4
a := t5
```

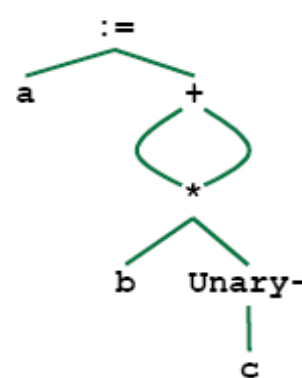
```
neg    c    ⇒ t1
mult   b,t1 ⇒ t2
neg    c    ⇒ t3
mult   b,t3 ⇒ t4
add    t2,t4 ⇒ t5
move   t5    ⇒ a
```

- Tree Representation

Tree:



DAG:



Three-Address Statements

Binary Operator: `op y,z,result` or
`result := y op z`

where `op` is a binary arithmetic or logical operator. This binary operator is applied to `y` and `z`, and the result of the operation is stored in `result`.

Ex:

`add a,b,c`

`gt a,b,c`

`addr a,b,c`

`addi a,b,c`

Unary Operator: `op y,,result` or
`result := op y`

where `op` is a unary arithmetic or logical operator. This unary operator is applied to `y`, and the result of the operation is stored in `result`.

Ex:

`uminus`

`a,,c`

Three-Address Code

- **Two concepts**
 - Address
 - Instruction
- **Address**
 - Name: source-program names to appear as addresses
 - Constant: Different types of constants
 - Compiler Generated temporary:

Three-Address Instruction

Assignment Type 1: $x := y \text{ op } z$

op is a binary arithmetic or logical operation

x , y and z are addresses

Assignment Type 2: $x := op \ z$

op is a unary arithmetic or logical operation

x and z are addresses

Copy Instruction: $x := y$

x and z are addresses and x is assigned the value of y

Three-Address Instructions

Unconditional Jump: `goto L`

We will jump to the three-address code with the label `L`, and the execution continues from that statement.

```
Ex:      goto    L1      // jump to L1
         jmp     7        // jump to the statement 7
```

Conditional Jump 1: `if x goto L` and `if False x goto L`

We will jump to the three-address code with the label `L` if `x` is TRUE and FALSE, respectively. Otherwise, the following three-address instruction in sequence is executed next.

Conditional Jump 2: `if x relop y goto L`

We will jump to the three-address code with the label `L` if the result of `y relop z` is true, and the execution continues from that statement. If the result is false, the execution continues from the statement following this conditional jump statement.

Three-Address Statements (cont.)

Procedure Parameters: `param x`

Procedure Calls: `call p,n`

where x is an actual parameter, we invoke the procedure p with n parameters.

Ex:

```
param x1
param x2
.....
param xn
call p,n,
```

$\rightarrow p(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

\leftarrow n is necessary because call can be nested

```
f(x+1,y)  $\rightarrow$ 
    add    x,1,t1
    param t1,,
    param y,,
    call   f,2,
```

Three-Address Statements (cont.)

Indexed Assignments:

$x := y[i]$

sets x to the value in location i memory units beyond location y

$y[i] := x$

sets contents of the location i memory units beyond location y to the value of x

Address and Pointer Assignments:

$x := \&y$

sets the **r-value** of x to **l-value** of y

$x := *y$ where y is a pointer whose **r-value** is a location

sets the **r-value** of x equal to the contents of that location

$*x := y$

sets the **r-value** of the object pointed by x to the **r-value** of y

Three address code example

do $i=i+1$; while ($a[i] < v$)

L: $t_1=i+1$

 $i=t_1$
 $t_2=i*8$
 $t_3=a[t_2]$
 if $t_3 < v$ goto L

(A) Symbolic Labels

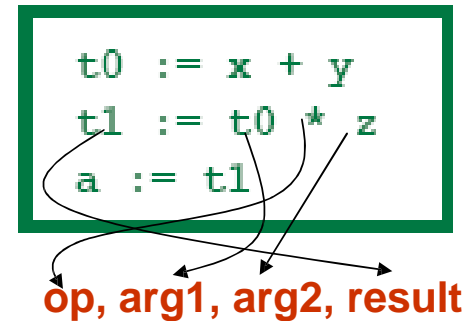
100: $t_1 = i + 1$

101: $i = t_1$
102: $t_2 = i * 8$
103: $t_3 = a[t_2]$
104: if $t_3 < v$ goto 100

(B) Position Numbers

Representing 3-Address Statements

- Quadruples (“Quads”)
- Triples
- Indirect Triples



- `x = minus y`
 - Does not use arg2
- `x = y`
 - Op is =
- `param a1`
 - Uses neither arg2 nor result
- Conditional/Unconditional jumps
 - Put the target label in result

Quadruples

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

`t1 := -c`

`t2 := b * t1`

`t3 := -c`

`t4 := b * t3`

`t5 := t2 + t4`

`a := t5`

Instr	Operation	Arg 1	Arg 2	Result
(0)	uminus	c		t_1
(1)	mult	b	t_1	t_2
(2)	add	a	t_2	t_3
(3)	move	t_3		a

Quadruples

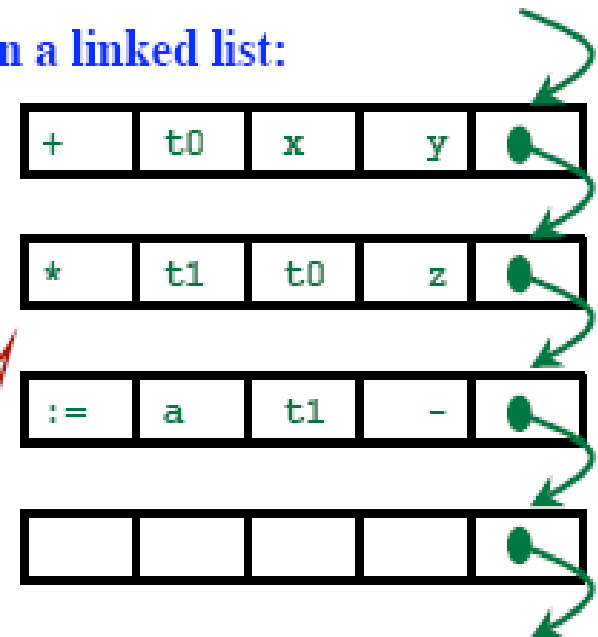
- Store each fields directly

... In an array:

0	+	t1	x	y
1	*	t2	t1	z
2	:=	a	t2	-
3				

Less Space

... In a linked list:



Easier to re-order

Triples

Don't store the result directly.

Implicitly associate a temporary result with each triple.

```
t0 := x + y
t1 := t0 * z
a := t1
```

Avoids creating the temporaries.

Saves storage.

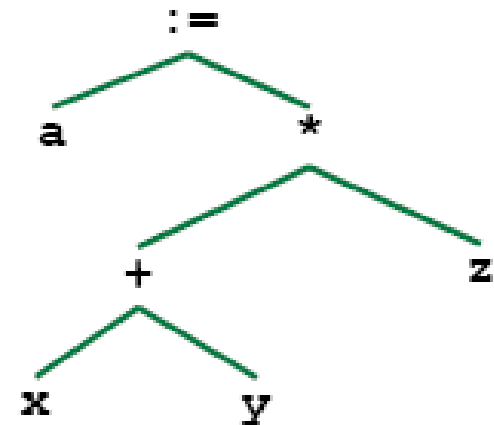
Difficult to re-order instructions.

0	+	x	y
1	*	0	z
2	:=	a	1
3			

The following instruction is difficult

```
x[i] := y
```

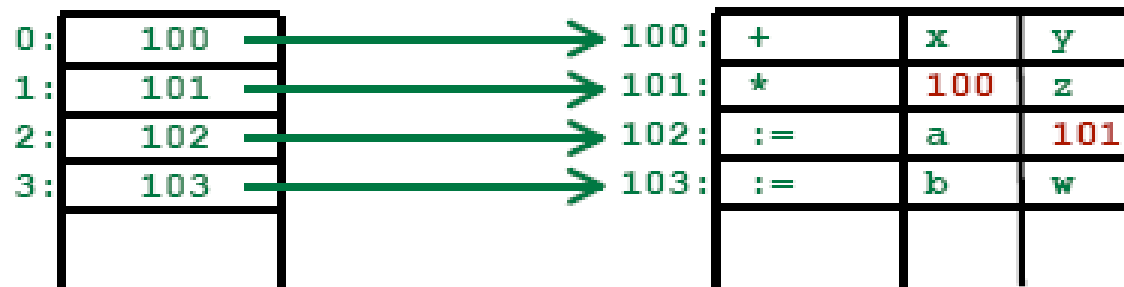
It takes 2 triples.



	op	arg1	arg2
0	[]=	x	i
1	:=	0	y

Indirect Triples

Get around the re-ordering problem
... by introducing another data structure.



Quadruples

- Less indirection, simpler
- Easier to manipulate, reorder

Triples

Indirect Triples

- About same amount of space as quadruples
- May save space when lots of shared sub-expressions
- More complex



Three Address Code: Quadruples

Naïve representation of three address code

- Table of $k * 4$ small integers
- Simple record structure
- Easy to reorder
- Explicit names

The original FORTRAN compiler used "quads"

load r1, y
loadl r2, 2
mult r3, r2, r1
load r4, x
sub r5, r4, r3

RISC assembly code

load	1	y	
loadl	2	2	
mult	3	2	1
load	4	x	
sub	5	4	3

Quadruples



Three Address Code: Triples

- Index used as implicit name
- 25% less space consumed than quads
- Much harder to reorder

(1)	load	y	
(2)	loadl	2	
(3)	mult	(1)	(2)
(4)	load	x	
(5)	sub	(4)	(3)

Implicit names occupy no space

Remember, for a long time, 640Kb was a lot of RAM



Three Address Code: Indirect Triples

- List first triple in each statement
- Implicit name space
- Uses more space than triples, but easier to reorder

Stmt List	Implicit Names	Indirect Triples		
(100)	(100)	load	y	
(105)	(101)	loadl	2	
	(102)	mult	(100)	(101)
	(103)	load	x	
	(104)	sub	(103)	(102)

- Major tradeoff between quads and triples is compactness versus ease of manipulation
 - In the past compile-time space was critical
 - Today, speed may be more important

Comparison

- By using quadruples, we can move a statement that computes A without requiring any changes in the statements using A, because the result field is explicit.
- However, in a triple representation, if we want to move a statement that defines a temporary value, then we must change all of the pointers in the operand1 and operand2 fields of the records in which this temporary value is used.
- Thus, quadruple representation is easier to work with when using an optimizing compiler, which entails a lot of code movement.
- Indirect triple representation presents no such problems, because a separate list of pointers to the triple structure is maintained.
- When statements are moved, this list is reordered, and no change in the triple structure is necessary; hence, the utility of indirect triples is almost the same as that of quadruples.

Goal

Take a source statement and produce a sequence of IR quads:

Example:

```
x := y + z;
```

IR Quads:

```
t1 := y + z  
x := t1
```

Example:

```
x := (y + z) * (u + v);
```

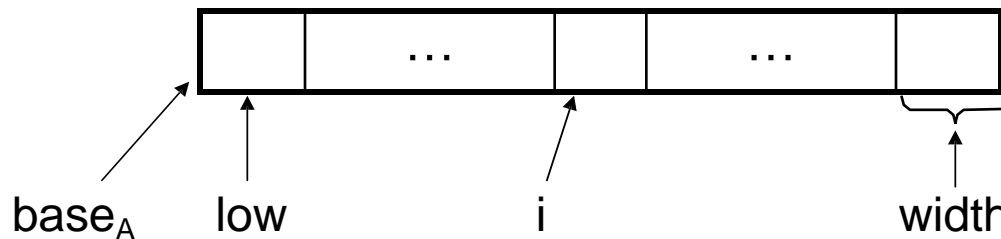
IR Quads:

```
t1 := y + z  
t2 := u + v  
t3 := t1 * t2  
x := t3
```

Addressing Array Elements

- Elements of arrays can be accessed quickly if the elements are stored in a block of consecutive locations.

A one-dimensional array **A**:



base_A is the address of the first location of the array A,
width is the width of each array element. **low** is the
index of the first array element

$$\text{location of } A[i] \rightarrow \text{base}_A + (i - \text{low}) * \text{width}$$

Addressing Array Elements (cont.)

$\text{base}_A + (i - \text{low}) * \text{width}$

can be re-written as $\underbrace{i * \text{width}} + \underbrace{(\text{base}_A - \text{low} * \text{width})}$

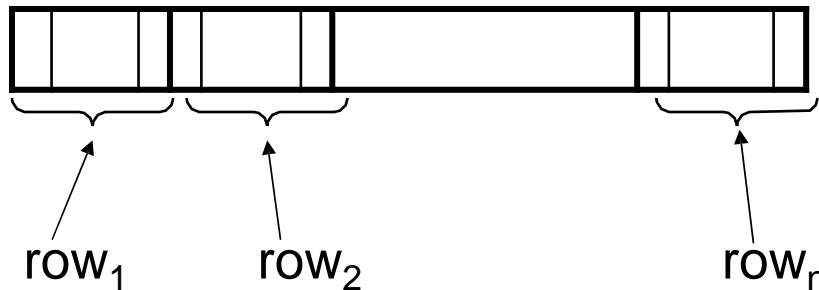
should be computed
at run-time

can be computed
at compile-time

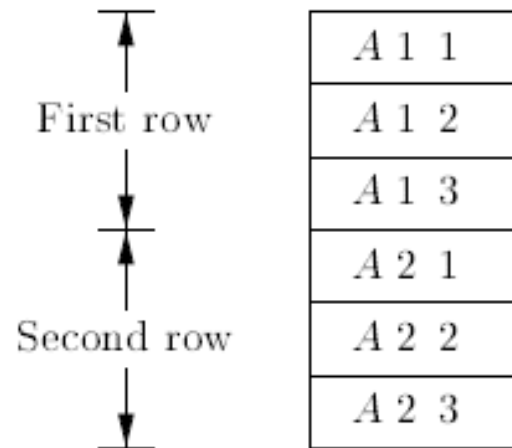
- So, the location of $A[i]$ can be computed at the run-time by evaluating the formula $i * \text{width} + c$ where c is $(\text{base}_A - \text{low} * \text{width})$ which is evaluated at compile-time.
- Intermediate code generator should produce the code to evaluate this formula $i * \text{width} + c$ (one multiplication and one addition operation).

Two-Dimensional Arrays

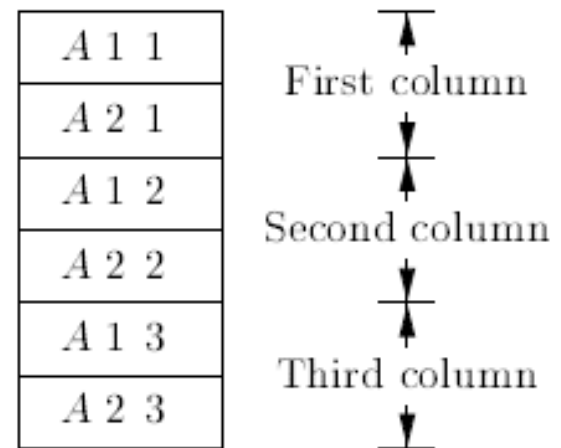
- A two-dimensional array can be stored in
 - either **row-major** (*row-by-row*) or
 - **column-major** (*column-by-column*).
- Most of the programming languages use **row-major** method.
- Row-major representation of a two-dimensional array:



Layout of Two-Dimensional Arrays



a Row Major



b Column Major

Two-Dimensional Arrays (cont.)

- The location of $A[i_1, i_2]$ is

$$\text{base}_A + ((i_1 - \text{low}_1) * n_2 + i_2 - \text{low}_2) * \text{width}$$

base_A is the location of the array

low₁ is the index of the first row

low₂ is the index of the first column

n₂ is the number of elements in each row

width is the width of each array element

- Again, this formula can be re-written as

$$\underbrace{((i_1 * n_2) + i_2) * \text{width}}_{\text{should be computed at run-time}} + \underbrace{(\text{base}_A - ((\text{low}_1 * n_1) + \text{low}_2) * \text{width})}_{\text{can be computed at compile-time}}$$

Multi-Dimensional Arrays

- In general, the location of $A[i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k]$ is
- $((\dots ((i_1 * n_2) + i_2) \dots) * n_k + i_k) * \text{width} + (\text{base}_A - ((\dots ((\text{low}_1 * n_1) + \text{low}_2) \dots) * n_k + \text{low}_k) * \text{width})$
- So, the intermediate code generator should produce the codes to evaluate the following formula (to find the location of $A[i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k]$) :
- $((\dots ((i_1 * n_2) + i_2) \dots) * n_k + i_k) * \text{width} + c$
- To evaluate the $((\dots ((i_1 * n_2) + i_2) \dots) * n_k + i_k)$ portion of this formula, we can use the recurrence equation:
- $e_1 = i_1$
- $e_m = e_{m-1} * n_m + i_m$

Translation of Array Elements

- One dimensional
 - $\text{base} + i \times w$
 - w : width of each array element
- Two Dimensional
 - $\text{base} + i_1 \times w_1 + i_2 \times w_2$
 - w_1 : width of a row
 - w_2 : width of an element in a row
- k dimensional (generalized)
 - $\text{base} + i_1 \times w_1 + i_2 \times w_2 + \dots + i_k \times w_k$

Any Question?