

Intermediate Representations

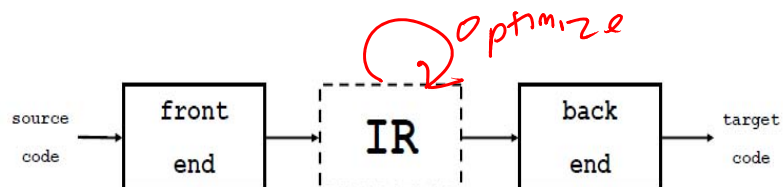
(Slides adapted from
<http://moodle.bracu.ac.bd/course/view.php?id=90>)

Blue?

COMP 621 – McGill University – Laurie Hendren

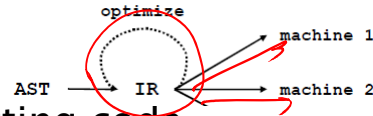
Intermediate code

- ▶ Intermediate code provides an abstraction which can be produced by the front-end, and consumed by the back-end.
- ▶ **Front end** – produces IR of source program
- ▶ **Back end** – generates target code from IR
- ▶ Optimizations may operate on the IR



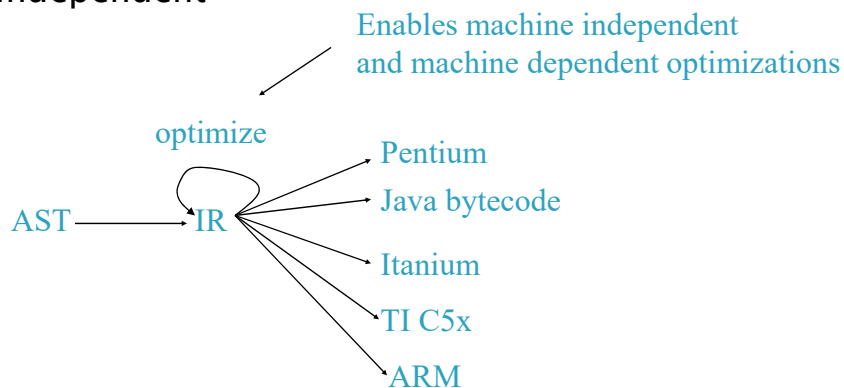
IR benefits and drawbacks

- Break compiler into manageable pieces
 - simpler pieces
 - more **modularity**
- Easier re-targeting
- Complete pass before emitting code
 - => better code
- Allows for language-independent and machine-independent optimizations
- **Drawback:** Another step => loss in efficiency

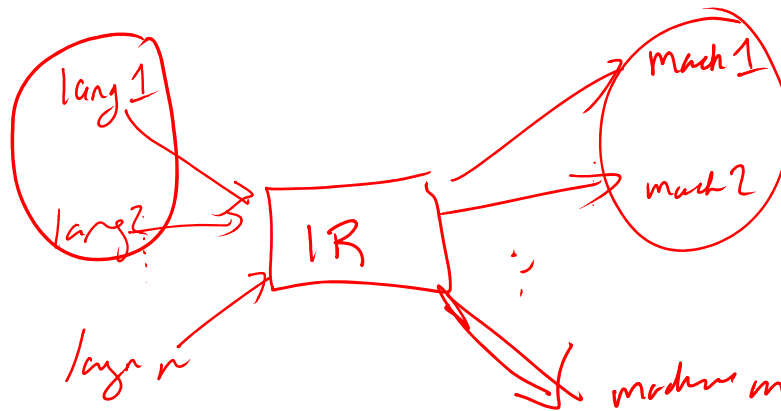


Intermediate Representation (IR)

- ▶ The compiler's internal representation
 - Is language-independent and machine-independent



Can there be one general purpose IR?

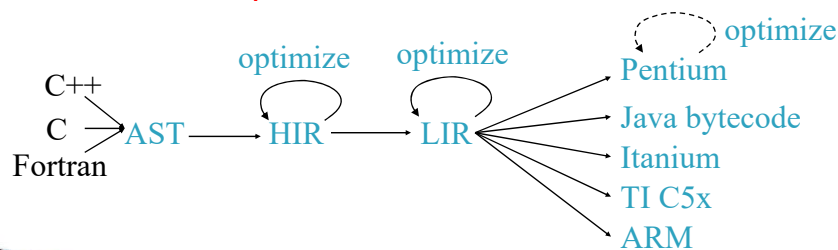


What Makes a Good IR?

- ▶ **Captures high-level language constructs**
 - Easy to translate from AST
 - Supports high-level optimizations
- ▶ **Captures low-level machine features**
 - Easy to translate to assembly
 - Supports machine-dependent optimizations
- ▶ **Narrow interface: small number of node types (instructions)**
 - Easy to optimize
 - Easy to retarget

Multiple IRs

- ▶ Most compilers use 2 IRs:
 - High-level IR (HIR): Language independent but closer to the language
 - Low-level IR (LIR): Machine independent but closer to the machine
 - A significant part of the compiler is both language and machine independent!



Intermediate Representation Categories

- Structural (High-level IR)
 - graph-based or tree-based
 - convenient for high-level transformations
 - may require more storage space
- Linear (Low-level IR)
 - pseudo-code for abstract machine
 - e.g., stack machine, RTL from gcc (Register Transfer Language)
 - large variation in level of abstraction
 - simple, compact data structures
- Hybrids
 - combination of graph & linear code
 - examples: control flow graphs

IR Category example

Source

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

Low \leftrightarrow High

High-level IR

```
t1 = a[i, j+2]
```

Middle-level IR

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

Low-level IR

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

High-Level IR

- ▶ HIR is essentially the AST
 - Must be expressive for all input languages
- ▶ Preserves high-level language constructs
 - Structured control flow: if, while, for, switch
 - Variables, expressions, statements, functions
- ▶ Allows high-level optimizations based on properties of source language
 - Function inlining, memory dependence analysis, loop transformations

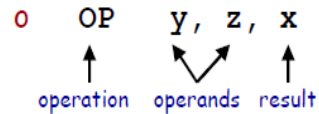
Low-Level IR

- A set of instructions which emulates an **abstract machine** (typically RISC: Reduced instruction set computing)
- Has low-level constructs
 - Unstructured jumps, registers, memory locations
- Types of instructions
 - Arithmetic/logic ($a = b \text{ OP } c$), unary operations, data movement (move, load, store), function call/return, branches
- Allows for machine-specific optimizations
 - E.g., register allocation

Alternatives for LIR

- 3 general alternatives
 - **Three-address code** or quadruples
 - $a = b \text{ OP } c$
 - Advantage: Makes compiler analysis/opt easier
 - **Low-level tree representation**
 - Was popular for CISC (complex instruction set computer) architectures
 - Advantage: Easier to generate machine code
 - **Stack machine**
 - Like Java bytecode
 - Advantage: Easy to generate, compact representation
 - Disadvantage: Difficult to optimize directly

Three-Address Code (Quadruples)



- Has three names/addresses (x, y, z), or less
- A single operator (OP)
- We will write as: $x \leftarrow y \text{ OP } z$

Example:

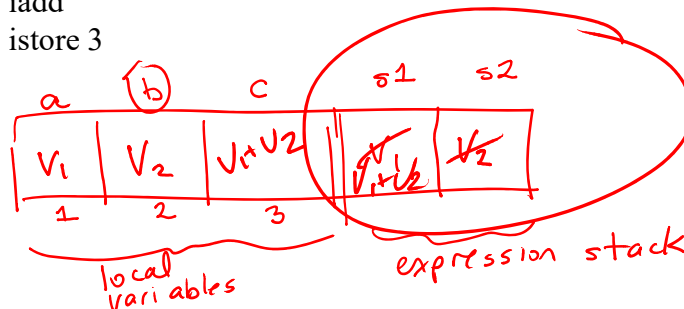
$x \leftarrow (y + z) * (-r);$



$t1 \leftarrow y + z$
 $t2 \leftarrow -r$
 ~~$t3 \leftarrow t1 * t2$~~

Stack-based bytecode versus 3-address code ($c = a + b$)

iload 1
 iload 2
 iadd
 istore 3

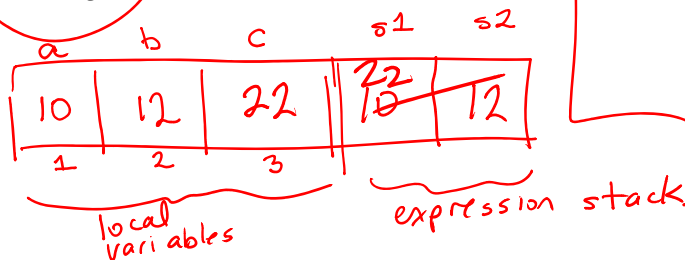


Suppose we are doing constant propagation, and we know that a is 10, and b is 12?

iload 1
iload 2
iadd
istore 3

ldc 22
istore 3

$c = a + b;$
↓
 $c = 22;$



Three-Address Code

- ▶ $a = b \text{ OP } c$
 - Originally, because instruction had at most 3 addresses or operands
 - This is not enforced today, ie MAC: $a = b * c + d$
 - May have fewer operands
- ▶ Also called quadruples: (a,b,c,OP)
- ▶ Example

$a = (b+c) * (-e)$

$t1 = b + c$
 $t2 = -e$
 $a = t1 * t2$

Compiler-generated
temporary variable

IR Operands

- ▶ The operands in 3-address code can be:
 - Program variables
 - Constants or literals
 - Temporary variables
- ▶ Temporary variables = new locations
 - Used to store intermediate values
 - Needed because 3-address code not as expressive as high-level languages
- ▶ Often introduce lots of temporaries and then simplify to remove spurious ones.

Use as many as
tempo as
you need

cleanup
later

Typical Statements

- Assignments:
 - $x \leftarrow y \text{ OP } z$: binary OP
 - Arithmetic: +, -, *, /, mod
 - Logic: AND, OR, XOR
 - Comparisons: =, !=, <, >, >=, =<
 - $x \leftarrow \text{OP } y$: unary OP
 - Arithmetic: -
 - Logic: NOT

Typical Statements

o Data movement:

- Copy/Move $x \leftarrow y$ *Copy Stmt.*
 - Load: $x \leftarrow [y]$
 - Store: $[x] \leftarrow y$
- alternative.*
- $[] = \text{contents of}$
- $\left[\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow \text{ld } y \\ \text{st } x \leftarrow y \end{array} \right.$
- $\left[x \leftarrow \&y \right.$
- "address of":
 $x \leftarrow \text{addr } y$

Typical Statements

o Flow of control (branch)

- label L : define a label (= a point in LIR)
- jump L : unconditional jump (*goto L*)
- cjmp c L : conditional jump (jump to L if c TRUE)
(if (x op y) goto L)

o Function call

- call f(a1,a2,. . . ,an)
- $x \leftarrow \text{call } f(a1,a2,. . . ,an)$
- Can/should add explicit representation of setup for passing function arguments

IR Example

```
n = 0;
while ( n < 10 ) {
    n = n + 1;
}
```



```
n ← 0
label lTEST
t2 ← n < 10
t3 ← NOT t2
cjmp t3 lEND
label lBODY
n ← n + 1
jump lTEST
label lEND
```

Laurie's version

n ← 0
ltest:
if (n ≥ 10)
goto lend
lbody:
n ← n + 1
goto ltest
lend:

Another IR Example

```
m = 0;
if ( c == 0 ) {
    m = m + n * n;
} else {
    m = m + n;
}
```



```
m ← 0
t1 ← c == 0
cjmp t1 lTRUE
m ← m + n
jump lEND
label lTRUE
t2 ← n * n
m ← m + t2
label lEND
```

our version

m ← 0
if (c == 0) goto lTRUE
m ← m + n
goto lEND
lTRUE:
*t2 ← n * n;*
m ← m + t2;
lEND:

IR Instructions

► Assignment instructions

- $a = b \text{ OP } c$ (binary op)
 - arithmetic: ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV, MOD
 - logic: AND, OR, XOR
 - comparisons: EQ, NEQ, LT, GT, LEQ, GEQ
- $a = \text{OP } b$ (unary op)
 - arithmetic MINUS, logical NEG
- $a = b$: copy instruction
- $a = \text{ld } b$: load instruction
- $\text{st } a = b$: store instruction
- $a = \&b$: symbolic address

► Flow of control

- label L: label instruction
- goto L: unconditional jump
- if (a op b) goto L : cond. jump

► Function call

- call $f(a_1, \dots, a_n)$
- $a = \text{call } f(a_1, \dots, a_n)$

► IR describes the instruction set of an abstract machine

What's missing?

$x = *y;$
 ~~$*p = x;$~~
 $x = *p;$
 ~~$a.f = x; \quad (*a).f = x$~~
 ~~$x = a.f; \quad x = (*a).f$~~

Class Problem

Convert the following code segment to 3-addr code and assembly code

```
n = 0;
sum = 0;
while (n < 10) {
    if (n % 2 == 0)
        sum = n+1;
    n++;
}
print(sum);
```