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# Compilation Principle 编译原理

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## 第16讲：中间代码(1)

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[xianweiz.github.io](https://xianweiz.github.io)

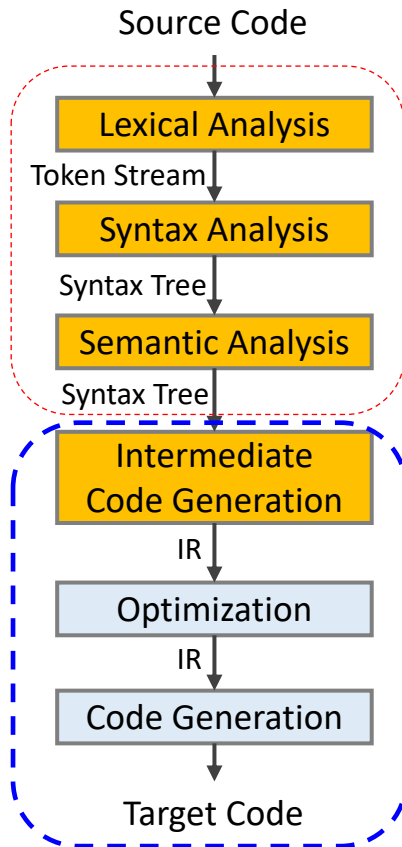
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# Compilation Phases[编译阶段]



正确

Front End  
(Analysis)

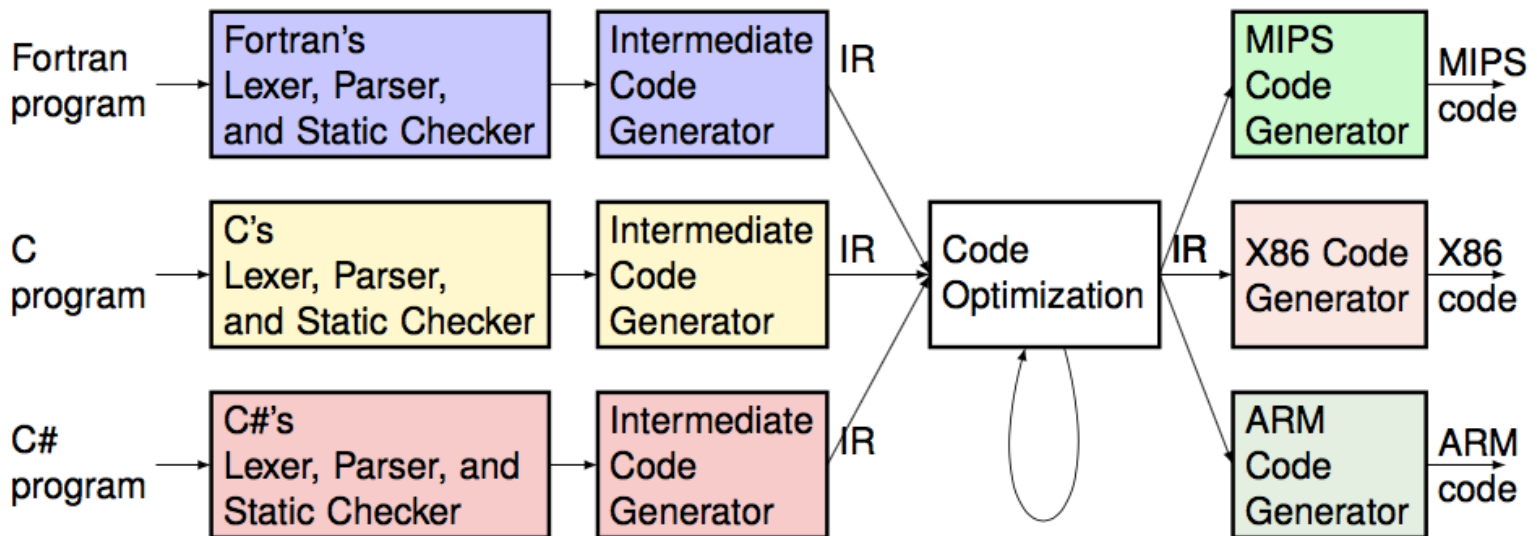
效率

Back End  
(Synthesis)

- **Lexical:** source code → tokens
  - RE, NFA, DFA, ...
  - Is the program **lexically** well-formed?
    - E.g., **x#y = 1**
- **Syntax:** tokens → AST or parse tree
  - CFG, LL(1), LALR(1), ...
  - Is the input program **syntactically** well-formed?
    - E.g., **x = 1 y = 2**
- **Semantic:** AST → AST +symbol table
  - SDD, SDT, typing, scoping, ...
  - Does the input program has a well-defined **meaning**?
    - E.g., **int x; y = x(1)**

# Modern Compilers

- Compilation flow [编译流程]
  - First, translate the source program to some form of intermediate representation (IR, 中间表示)
  - Then convert from there into machine code
- IR provides advantages [IR的优势]
  - Increased abstraction, cleaner separation, and retargeting, etc



# Different IRs for Different Stages

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- Modern compilers use different IRs at different stages
- **High-Level** IR: close to high-level language
  - Examples: Abstract Syntax Tree, Parse Tree
  - **Language dependent** (a high-level IR for each language)
  - Purpose: semantic analysis of program
- **Low-Level** IR: close to assembly
  - Examples: Three address code[三地址码], Static Single Assignment[静态单赋值]
  - Essentially an instruction set[指令集] for an abstract machine
  - **Language and machine independent** (one common IR)
  - Purpose: compiler optimizations to make code efficient
    - All optimizations written in this IR is automatically applicable to all languages and machines

# Different IRs for Different Stages (cont.)

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- **Machine-Level IR**

- Examples: x86 IR, ARM IR, MIPS IR
- Actual instructions for a concrete machine ISA
- **Machine dependent** (a machine-level IR for each ISA)
- Purpose: code generation / CPU register allocation
  - (Optional) Machine-level optimizations (e.g. strength reduction:  $x / 2 \rightarrow x \gg 1$ )

- Possible to have one IR (AST) — some compilers do

- Generate machine code from AST after semantic analysis
- Makes sense if compilation time is the primary concern (e.g. JIT)
  - Skip the IR generation step

- So why have multiple IRs?

# Why Multiple IRs?

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- Why multiple IRs?
  - Better to have an appropriate IR for the task at hand [针对性]
    - Semantic analysis much easier with AST
    - Compiler optimizations much easier with low-level IR
    - Register allocation only possible with machine-level IR
  - Easier to add a new front-end (language) or back-end (ISA) [易于扩展]
    - Front-end: a new AST → low-level IR converter
    - Back-end: a new low-level IR → machine IR converter
    - Low-level IR acts as a bridge between multiple front-ends and back-ends, such that they can be reused
- If one IR (AST), and adding a new front-end ...
  - Reimplement all compiler optimizations for new AST
  - A new AST → machine code converter for each ISA
  - Same goes for adding a new back-end

# Three-Address Code[三地址码]

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- High-level assembly where each operation has **at most three** operands. Generic form is  $X = Y \text{ op } Z$  [最多3个操作数]
  - where X, Y, Z can be variables, constants, or compiler-generated temporaries holding intermediate values
- Characteristics [特性]
  - Assembly code for an 'abstract machine'
  - Long expressions are converted to multiple instructions
  - Control flow statements are converted to jumps [控制流->跳转]
  - Machine independent
    - Operations are generic (not tailored to specific machine)
    - Function calls represented as generic call nodes
    - Uses symbolic names rather than register names (actual locations of symbols are yet to be determined)
- Design goal: for easier machine-independent optimization

# Three-Address Code Example

- For example,  $x * y + x * y$  is translated to
  - $t1 = x * y$  ;  $t1, t2, t3$  are temporary variables
  - $t2 = x * y$
  - $t3 = t1 + t2$
  - Can be generated through a depth-first traversal of AST
  - Internal nodes in AST are translated to temporary variables
- Notice: repetition of  $x * y$  [重复]
  - Can be later eliminated through a compiler optimization called common subexpression elimination (CSE): [通用子表达式消除]
    - $t1 = x * y$
    - $t3 = t1 + t1$
  - Using 3-address code rather than AST makes it:
    - Easier to spot opportunities (just find matching RHSs)
    - Easier to manipulate IR (AST is much more cumbersome)



# Three-Address Statements

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- Assignment statement [二元赋值]

$x = y \text{ op } z$

where op is an arithmetic or logical operation (binary operation)

- Assignment statement [一元赋值]

$x = \text{op } y$

where op is an unary operation such as -, not, shift

- Copy statement [拷贝]

$x = y$

- Unconditional jump statement [无条件跳转]

$\text{goto } L$

where L is label

# Three-Address Statements (cont.)

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- Conditional jump statement [条件跳转]

`if (x relop y) goto L`

where relop is a relational operator such as `=`, `≠`, `>`, `<`

- Procedural call statement [过程调用]

`param x1, ..., param xn, call Fy, n`

As an example, `foo(x1, x2, x3)` is translated to

`param x1`

`param x2`

`param x3`

`call foo, 3`

- Procedural call return statement [过程调用返回]

`return y`

where y is the return value (if applicable)

# Three-Address Statements (cont.)

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- Indexed assignment statement [索引]

$x = y[i]$

or

$y[i] = x$

where  $x$  is a scalar variable and  $y$  is an array variable

- Address and pointer operation statement [地址和指针]

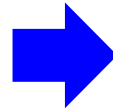
$x = \& y$  ; a pointer  $x$  is set to address of  $y$

$y = * x$  ;  $y$  is set to the value of location  
; pointed to by pointer  $x$

$*y = x$  ; location pointed to by  $y$  is assigned  $x$

# Example

```
i = 1
do {
    a[i] = x * 5;
    i ++;
} while (i <= 10);
```



```
i = 1
L: t1 = x * 5
   t2 = &a
   t3 = sizeof(int)
   t4 = t3 * i
   t5 = t2 + t4
   *t5 = t1
   i = i + 1
   if i <= 10 goto L
```

a[i]

Source program

Three-address code

# Implementation of TAC

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- 3 possible ways (and more)
  - quadruples [四元式]
  - triples [三元式]
  - indirect triples [间接三元式]
- Trade-offs between, space, speed, ease of manipulation
- Using quadruples [四元式]

*op arg1, arg2, result*

- There are four(4) fields at maximum
- arg1 and arg2 are optional, depending on the *op*
- Examples:

□ $x = a + b$	$\Rightarrow + a, b, x$
□ $x = -y$	$\Rightarrow - y, , x$
□ $\text{goto } L$	$\Rightarrow \text{goto} , , L$

# Using Triples[三元式]

- Triple: quadruple without the result field
  - Result field is implicitly index of instruction
  - Result referred to by index of instructions computing it
  - Example:  $a = b * (-c) + b * (-c)$

	Quadruples				Triples		
	op	arg1	arg2	result	op	arg1	arg2
(0)	-	c		t1	-	c	
(1)	*	b	t1	t2	*	b	(0)
(2)	-	c		t3	-	c	
(3)	*	b	t3	t4	*	b	(2)
(4)	+	t2	t4	t5	+	(1)	(3)
(5)	=	t5		a	=	a	(4)

# More About Triples

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- What if LHS of assignment is not a var but an expression?
  - Array location (e.g.  $x[i] = y$ )
  - Pointer location (e.g.  $*(x+i) = y$ )
  - Struct field location (e.g.  $x.i = y$ )
- Compute memory address of LHS location beforehand
- Example: triples for array assignment statement

$x[i] = y$

- is translated to

$(0): [] \ x \ i$                       // Compute address of  $x[i]$  location

$(1): = (0) \ y$                       // Assign  $y$  to that location

- Complex LHS may require more triples to compute address

# Using Indirect Triples[间接三元式]

- Problem with triples

- Compiler optimizations often involve moving instructions
- Hard to move instructions because numbering will change, even for instructions not involved in optimization
- See below CSE performed on the second  $(-c) * b$ :

Quadruples					Triples		
	op	arg1	arg2	result	op	arg1	arg2
(0)	-	c		t1	-	c	
(1)	*	b	t1	t2	*	b	(0)
<del>(2)</del>	<del>-</del>	<del>c</del>	<del></del>	<del>t3</del>	<del>-</del>	<del>c</del>	<del></del>
<del>(3)</del>	<del>*</del>	<del>b</del>	<del>t3</del>	<del>t4</del>	<del>*</del>	<del>b</del>	<del>(2)</del>
<del>(4)</del> (2)	+	t2	<del>t4</del> t2	t5	+	(1)	<del>(3)</del> (1)
<del>(5)</del> (3)	=	t5		a	=	a	(4) <b>X</b>



# Using Indirect Triples[间接三元式]

- Problem with triples

- Compiler optimizations often involve moving instructions
- Hard to move instructions because numbering will change, even for instructions not involved in optimization
- See below CSE performed on second  $(-c) * b$ :

	Quadruples				Triples		
	op	arg1	arg2	result	op	arg1	arg2
(0)	-	c		t1	-	c	
(1)	*	b	t1	t2	*	b	(0)
(2)	+	t2	t2	t5	+	(1)	(1)
(3)	=	t5		a	=	a	(4)

Instruction (3) refers to (4) which is no longer there.

# Using Indirect Triples (cont.)

- Triples are stored in a triple 'database'
- IR is a listing of pointers to triples in database
  - Can reorder listing without changing numbering in database
- Pointer indirection overhead but allows easy code motion

	Listing
	(ptr to triple database)
(0)	(0)
(1)	(1)
(2)	(2)
(3)	(3)
(4)	(4)
(5)	(5)

	Database		
	op	arg1	arg2
(0)	-	c	
(1)	*	b	(0)
(2)	-	c	
(3)	*	b	(2)
(4)	+	(1)	(3)
(5)	=	a	(4)

# After CSE Optimization

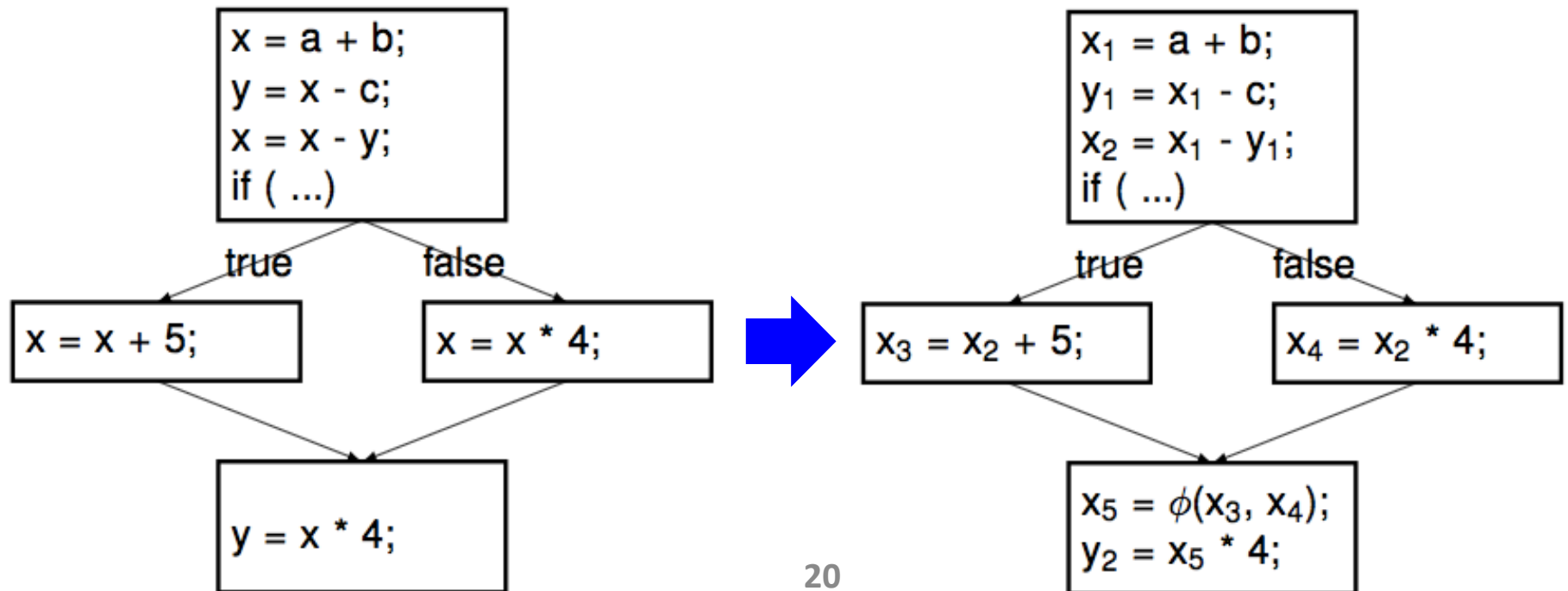
- After CSE, empty entries in database can be reused
  - Code in triple database becomes non-contiguous over time
  - That's fine since the listing is the code, not the database

	Listing
	(ptr to triple database)
(0)	(0)
(1)	(1)
(2)	(4)
(3)	(5)

	Database		
	op	arg1	arg2
(0)	-	c	
(1)	*	b	(0)
(2)	empty		
(3)	empty		
(4)	+	(1)	(1)
(5)	=	a	(4)

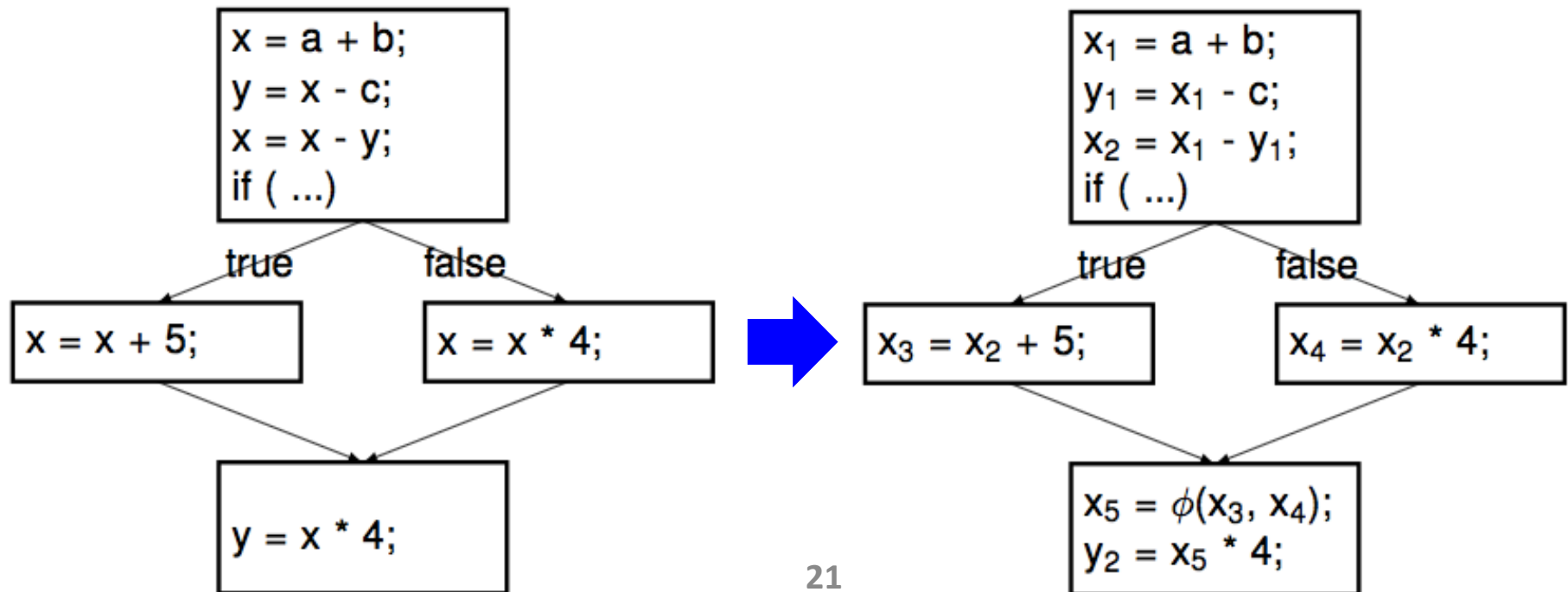
# Single Static Assignment[静态单赋值]

- Every variable is assigned to exactly once statically
  - Give variable different version name on every assignment
    - e.g.  $x \rightarrow x_1, x_2, \dots, x_5$  for each static assignment of  $x$
  - Now value of each variable guaranteed not to change
  - On a control flow merge,  $\phi$ -function combines two versions
    - e.g.  $x_5 = \phi(x_3, x_4)$ : means  $x_5$  is either  $x_3$  or  $x_4$



# Benefits of SSA

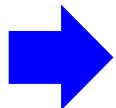
- SSA is an IR that facilitates certain code optimizations
  - SSA tells you when an optimization shouldn't happen
  - Suppose compiler performs CSE on previous example:
    - Without SSA, (incorrectly) tempted to eliminate second  $x * 4$
    - With SSA,  $x_2 * 4$  and  $x_5 * 4$  are clearly different values



# Benefits of SSA (cont.)

- SSA is an IR that facilitates certain code optimizations
  - SSA tells you when an optimization should happen
  - Suppose compiler performs dead code elimination (DCE): (DCE removes code that computes dead values)

```
x = a + b;  
x = c - d;  
y = x * b;
```



```
x1 = a + b;  
x2 = c - d;  
y1 = x2 * b;
```

- Without SSA, not clear whether there are dead values
  - With SSA,  $x_1$  is never used and clearly a dead value
- Why does SSA work so well with compiler optimizations?
  - SSA makes flow of values explicit in the IR
  - Without SSA, need a separate dataflow graph
  - Will discuss more in **Compiler Optimization** section

# SSA Orthogonal to IR Implementation

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- SSA is expressed most commonly as 3-address code
- We learned 3 ways to implement 3-address code
  - quadruples
  - triples
  - indirect triples
- How you implement is orthogonal to SSA representation
  - After variable renaming, any 3-address code becomes SSA
- SSA is used widely in modern compilers:
  - GCC (GNU C Compiler)
  - LLVM (Low Level Virtual Machine) Compiler
  - Oracle Java JIT Compiler
  - Google Chrome JavaScript JIT Compiler
  - PyPy Python JIT Compiler

# Generating Code

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using Syntax Directed Translation



# Syntax Directed Translation[语法制导翻译]

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- Syntax directed translation used again for code generation
  - Since code generation is also dependent on syntax
  - Code generation is translating syntactic structures to code
- What language structures do we need to translate?
  - Definitions (variables, functions, ...)
  - Assignment statements
  - Control flow statements (if-then-else, for-loop, ...)
  - ...
- We are going to use the following strategy:
  - Specify SDD semantic rules (without ordering)
  - Convert SDD rules to SDT actions (with ordering)
    - In the process, we will discover SDD has non-*L-attributes*
    - We will also discuss what to do with those non-*L-attributes*

# Code Generation Overview[代码生成]

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- Program code is a collection of functions
  - By now, all functions are listed in symbol table
- Goal is to generate code for each function in that list
- Generating code for a function involves two steps:
  - Processing variable definitions [变量定义]
    - Involves laying out variables in memory
  - Processing statements [语句]
    - Involves generating instructions for statements
- We will start with processing variable definitions

# Processing Variable Definitions

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- To lay out a variable, both **location** and **width** are needed
  - Location: where variable is located in memory
  - Width: how much space variable takes up in memory
- Attributes for variable definition:
  - **T V**      e.g. int x;
  - **T**: non-terminal for type name
    - **T.type**: type (int, float, ...)
    - **T.width**: width of type in bytes (e.g. 4 for int)
  - **V**: non-terminal for variable name
    - **V.type**: type (int, float, ...)
    - **V.width**: width of variable according to type
    - **V.offset**: offset of variable in memory
  - But offset from what...?

# Calculate Variable Location from Offset

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- Naive method: reserve a big memory section for all data
  - Size data section to be large enough to contain all variables
  - $\text{Location} = \text{var offset} + \text{base of data section}$
- Naive method wastes a lot of memory
  - Vars with limited scope need to live only briefly in memory
    - E.g. function variables need to last only for duration of call
- **Solution:** allocate memory briefly for each scope
  - Allocate when entering scope, free when exiting scope
  - Variables in same scope are allocated / freed together
  - $\text{Location} = \text{var offset} + \text{base of scope memory section}$
  - Will discuss more later in **Runtime Management**

# Storage Layout of Variables in a Function

- When there are multiple variables defined in a function,
  - Compiler lays out variables in memory sequentially
  - Current offset used to place variable x in memory
    - $\text{address}(x) \leftarrow \text{offset}$
    - $\text{offset} += \text{sizeof}(x.\text{type})$

```
void foo() {  
    int a;  
    int b;  
    long long c;  
    int d;  
}
```

Address

0x0000

a

Offset = 0

$\text{Addr}(a) \leftarrow 0$

0x0004

b

Offset = 4

$\text{Addr}(b) \leftarrow 4$

0x0008

c

Offset = 8

$\text{Addr}(c) \leftarrow 8$

0x000c

c

0x0010

d

Offset = 16

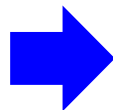
$\text{Addr}(d) \leftarrow 16$

Offset = 20

# More about Storage Layout

- Allocation alignment[对齐]
  - Enforce  $\text{addr}(x) \% \text{sizeof}(x.\text{type}) == 0$
  - Most machine architectures are designed such that computation is most efficient at sizeof(x.type) boundaries
    - E.g. Most machines are designed to load integer values at integer word boundaries
    - If not on word boundary, need to load two words and shift & concatenate → inefficient

```
void foo() {  
    char a;      // addr(a) = 0  
    int b;       // addr(b) = 1  
    int c;       // addr(c) = 5  
    long long d; // addr(d) = 9  
}
```



```
void foo() {  
    char a;      // addr(a) = 0  
    int b;       // addr(b) = 4  
    int c;       // addr(c) = 8  
    long long d; // addr(d) = 16  
}
```

# More about Storage Layout (cont.)

- Endianness[字节序]

- Big endian: MSB (most significant byte) in lowest address
- Little endian: LSB (least significant byte) in lowest address

