## Where We Are

| Lexical Analysis |
| :---: |
| Syntax Analysis |
| Semantic Analysis |
| IR Generation |
| IR Optimization |
| Code Generation |
| Optimization |

Machine Code

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Machine Code

## What is IR Generation?

- Intermediate Representation Generation.
- The final phase of the compiler front-end.
- Goal: Translate the program into the format expected by the compiler back-end.
- Generated code need not be optimized; that's handled by later passes.
- Generated code need not be in assembly; that can also be handled by later passes.


## Why Do IR Generation?

- Simplify certain optimizations.
- Machine code has many constraints that inhibit optimization. (Such as?)
- Working with an intermediate language makes optimizations easier and clearer.
- Have many front-ends into a single back-end.
- gcc can handle C, C++, Java, Fortran, Ada, and many other languages.
- Each front-end translates source to the GENERIC language.
- Have many back-ends from a single front-end.
- Do most optimization on intermediate representation before emitting code targeted at a single machine.


## Designing a Good IR

- IRs are like type systems - they're extremely hard to get right.
- Need to balance needs of high-level source language and low-level target language.
- Too high level: can't optimize certain implementation details.
- Too low level: can't use high-level knowledge to perform aggressive optimizations.
- Often have multiple IRs in a single compiler.

Architecture of gce

## Architecture of gcc



Architecture of gcc


Architecture of gcc


Architecture of gcc


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## Architecture of gcc



## Architecture of gcc



## Architecture of gcc



## Another Approach: High-Level IR

- Examples:
- Java bytecode
- CPython bytecode
- LLVM IR
- Microsoft CIL.
- Retains high-level program structure.
- Try playing around with javap vs. a disassembler.
- Allows for compilation on target machines.
- Allows for JIT compilation or interpretation.

Runtime Environments

## An Important Duality

- Programming languages contain high-level structures:
- Functions
- Objects
- Exceptions
- Dynamic typing
- Lazy evaluation
- (etc.)
- The physical computer only operates in terms of several primitive operations:
- Arithmetic
- Data movement
- Control jumps


## Runtime Environments

- We need to come up with a representation of these high-level structures using the low-level structures of the machine.
- A runtime environment is a set of data structures maintained at runtime to implement these high-level structures.
- e.g. the stack, the heap, static area, virtual function tables, etc.
- Strongly depends on the features of both the source and target language. (e.g compiler vs. crosscompiler)
- Our IR generator will depend on how we set up our runtime environment.


## Data Representations

- What do different types look like in memory?
- Machine typically supports only limited types:
- Fixed-width integers: 8-bit, 16-bit- 32-bit, signed, unsigned, etc.
- Floating point values: 32-bit, 64-bit, 80-bit IEEE 754.
- How do we encode our object types using these types?


## Encoding Primitive Types

- Primitive integral types (byte, char, short, int, long, unsigned, uint16_t, etc.) typically map directly to the underlying machine type.
- Primitive real-valued types (float, double, long double) typically map directly to underlying machine type.
- Pointers typically implemented as integers holding memory addresses.
- Size of integer depends on machine architecture; hence 32 -bit compatibility mode on 64 -bit machines.


## Encoding Arrays

## Encoding Arrays

- C-style arrays: Elements laid out consecutively in memory.

| $\operatorname{Arr}[0]$ | $\operatorname{Arr}[1]$ | $\operatorname{Arr}[2]$ | $\ldots$ | $\operatorname{Arr}[\mathrm{n}-1]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

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- Java-style arrays: Elements laid out consecutively in memory with size information prepended.

| $n$ | $\operatorname{Arr}[0]$ | $\operatorname{Arr}[1]$ | $\operatorname{Arr}[2]$ | $\ldots$ | $\operatorname{Arr}[\mathrm{n}-1]$ |
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- (Which of these works well for Decaf?)


## Encoding Multidimensional Arrays

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$$
\begin{array}{l|l|l|l|l|l|l|l}
a[0][0] & a[0][1] & a[1][0] & a[1][1] & a[2][0] & a[2][1]
\end{array}
$$

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int a[3][2];

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a[0][0] a[0][1] a[1][0] a[1][1] a[2][0] a[2][1]
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Array of size 2 Array of size 2


## Encoding Multidimensional Arrays

- Often represented as an array of arrays.
- Shape depends on the array type used.
- C-style arrays:
int a[3][2];

How do you know
where to look for an
element in an array like this?

```
a[0][0] a[0][1] a[1][0] a[1][1] a[2][0] a[2][1]
```

Array of size $2 \quad$ Array of size 2


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int[][] a = new int [3][2];


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| 3 |
| :---: |
| $a[0]$ |
| $a[1]$ |
| $a[2]$ |

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## Encoding Functions

- Many questions to answer:
- What does the dynamic execution of functions look like?
- Where is the executable code for functions located?
- How are parameters passed in and out of functions?
- Where are local variables stored?
- The answers strongly depend on what the language supports.


## Review: The Stack

- Function calls are often implemented using a stack of activation records (or stack frames).
- Calling a function pushes a new activation record onto the stack.
- Returning from a function pops the current activation record from the stack.
- Questions:
- Why does this work?
- Does this always work?


## Activation Trees

- An activation tree is a tree structure representing all of the function calls made by a program on a particular execution.
- Depends on the runtime behavior of a program; can't always be determined at compile-time.
- (The static equivalent is the call graph).
- Each node in the tree is an activation record.
- Each activation record stores a control link to the activation record of the function that invoked it.


## Activation Trees

## Activation Trees

```
int main() {
    Fib(3);
}
int Fib(int n) {
    if (n <= l) return n;
    return Fib(n - 1) + Fib(n - 2);
```

\}

## Activation Trees

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int Fib(int n) {
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int Fib(int n) {
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Fib

## Activation Trees

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int main() {
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    if (n <= 1) return n;
    return Fib(n - 1) + Fibo(n - 2);
    Fib
    n = 2
```


## Activation Trees



## Activation Trees



## Activation Trees



An activation tree is a spaghetti stack.

# The runtime stack is an optimization of this spaghetti stack. 

## Why Can We Optimize the Stack?

- Once a function returns, its activation record cannot be referenced again.
- We don't need to store old nodes in the activation tree.
- Every activation record has either finished executing or is an ancestor of the current activation record.
- We don't need to keep multiple branches alive at any one time.
- These are not always true!


## Breaking Assumption 1

- "Once a function returns, its activation record cannot be referenced again."
- Any ideas on how to break this?


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- Any ideas on how to break this?
- One option: Closures

```
function CreateCounter() {
    var counter = 0;
    return function() {
        counter ++;
        return counter;
    }
}
```


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Closures

## Closures

```
function CreateCounter() {
    var counter = 0;
    return function() {
        counter ++;
        return counter;
    }
}
function MyFunction() {
    f = CreateCounter();
    print(f());
    print(f());
}
```


## Closures

function CreateCounter() \{ var counter $=0$; return function() \{ counter ++; return counter;
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CreateCounter
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function MyFunction() $\mathrm{f}=$ CreateCounter(); print (f());

## Control and Access Links

- The control link of a function is a pointer to the function that called it.
- Used to determine where to resume execution after the function returns.
- The access link of a function is a pointer to the activation record in which the function was created.
- Used by nested functions to determine the location of variables from the outer scope.


## Closures and the Runtime Stack

- Languages supporting closures do not typically have a runtime stack.
- Activation records typically dynamically allocated and garbage collected.
- Interesting exception: gcc C allows for nested functions, but uses a runtime stack.
- Behavior is undefined if nested function accesses data from its enclosing function once that function returns.
- (Why?)


## Breaking Assumption 2

- "Every activation record has either finished executing or is an ancestor of the current activation record."
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\begin{gathered}
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\text { while } \mathrm{n}>0: \\
\text { yield } \mathrm{n} \\
\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{n}-1
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def myFunc ():
for i in downFrom(3):
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$\square$
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\
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def myFunc():
for i in downFrom(3):
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2

## Coroutines

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2
1

## Coroutines

- A subroutine is a function that, when invoked, runs to completion and returns control to the calling function.
- Master/slave relationship between caller/callee.
- A coroutine is a function that, when invoked, does some amount of work, then returns control to the calling function. It can then be resumed later.
- Peer/peer relationship between caller/callee.
- Subroutines are a special case of coroutines.


## Coroutines and the Runtime Stack

- Coroutines often cannot be implemented with purely a runtime stack.
- What if a function has multiple coroutines running alongside it?
- Few languages support coroutines, though some do (Python, for example).


## So What?

- Even a concept as fundamental as "the stack" is actually quite complex.
- When designing a compiler or programming language, you must keep in mind how your language features influence the runtime environment.
- Always be critical of the languages you use!

