Lecture 7

CIS 341: COMPILERS

See Ilvm.org



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Example LLVM Code

- LLVM offers a textual representation of its IR
 - files ending in .11

factorial64.c

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdint.h>

int64_t factorial(int64_t n) {
   int64_t acc = 1;
   while (n > 0) {
      acc = acc * n;
      n = n - 1;
   }
   return acc;
}
```

factorial-pretty.ll

```
define @factorial(%n) {
  %1 = alloca
  %acc = alloca
  store %n, %1
  store 1, %acc
  br label %start
start:
  %3 = load %1
  %4 = icmp sqt %3, 0
  br %4, label %then, label %else
then:
  %6 = load %acc
  %7 = load %1
 %8 = \text{mul } %6, %7
  store %8, %acc
  %9 = load %1
  %10 = sub %9, 1
  store %10, %1
  br label %start
else:
  %12 = load %acc
  ret %12
```

Real LLVM

Decorates values with type information

factorial.ll

```
i64
i64*
i1
```

- Permits numeric identifiers
- Has alignment annotations
- Keeps track of entry edges for each block: preds = %5, %0

```
; Function Attrs: nounwind ssp
define i64 @factorial(i64 %n) #0 {
 %1 = alloca i64, align 8
 %acc = alloca i64, align 8
 store i64 %n, i64* %1, align 8
 store i64 1, i64* %acc, align 8
 br label %2
; <label>:2
                                      ; preds = %5, %0
 %3 = load i64* %1, align 8
 %4 = icmp sqt i64 %3, 0
 br i1 %4, label %5, label %11
; <label>:5
                                      ; preds = %2
 %6 = load i64* %acc, align 8
 %7 = load i64* %1, align 8
 %8 = mul nsw i64 %6, %7
 store i64 %8, i64* %acc, align 8
 %9 = load i64* %1, align 8
 %10 = \text{sub nsw } i64 \%9, 1
 store i64 %10, i64* %1, align 8
 br label %2
; <label>:11
                                      ; preds = %2
 %12 = load i64* %acc, align 8
 ret i64 %12
```

Basic Blocks

- A sequence of instructions that is always executed starting at the first instruction and always exits at the last instruction.
 - Starts with a label that names the entry point of the basic block.
 - Ends with a control-flow instruction (e.g. branch or return) the "link"
 - Contains no other control-flow instructions
 - Contains no interior label used as a jump target
- Basic blocks can be arranged into a control-flow graph
 - Nodes are basic blocks
 - There is a directed edge from node A to node B if the control flow instruction at the end of basic block A might jump to the label of basic block B.

Example Control-flow Graph

```
define @factorial(%n)
                                        entry:
                                        %1 = alloca
                                        %acc = alloca
                                        store %n, %1
                                        store 1, %acc
                                        br label %start
                                      start:
                                %3 = load %1
                                %4 = icmp sgt %3, 0
                                br %4, label %then, label %else
                           then:
                                                             else:
                           %6 = load %acc
                                                    %12 = load %acc
                           %7 = load %1
                                                    ret %12
                           %8 = \text{mul } %6, %7
                           store %8, %acc
                           %9 = load %1
                           %10 = sub %9, 1
                           store %10, %1
                           br label %start
```

LL Basic Blocks and Control-Flow Graphs

- LLVM enforces (some of) the basic block invariants syntactically.
- Representation in OCaml:

```
type block = {
   insns : (uid * insn) list;
   terminator : terminator
}
```

- A *control flow graph* is represented as a list of labeled basic blocks with these invariants:
 - No two blocks have the same label
 - All terminators mention only labels that are defined among the set of basic blocks
 - There is a distinguished, unlabeled, entry block:

```
type cfg = block * (lbl * block) list
```

LL Storage Model: Locals

- Several kinds of storage:
 - Local variables (or temporaries): %uid
 - Global declarations (e.g. for string constants): @gid
 - Abstract locations: references to (stack-allocated) storage created by the alloca instruction
 - Heap-allocated structures created by external calls (e.g. to malloc)
- Local variables:
 - Defined by the instructions of the form %uid = ...
 - Must satisfy the <u>single static assignment</u> invariant
 - Each %uid appears on the left-hand side of an assignment only once in the entire control flow graph.
 - The value of a %uid remains unchanged throughout its lifetime
 - Analogous to "let %uid = e in ..." in OCaml
- Intended to be an abstract version of machine registers.
- We'll see later how to extend SSA to allow richer use of local variables
 - phi nodes

LL Storage Model: alloca

- The alloca instruction allocates stack space and returns a reference to it.
 - The returned reference is stored in local:

```
%ptr = alloca typ
```

- The amount of space allocated is determined by the type
- The contents of the slot are accessed via the load and store instructions:

```
%acc = alloca i64 ; allocate a storage slot
store 341, %acc ; store the integer value 341
%x = load %acc ; load the value 341 into %x
```

Gives an abstract version of stack slots

STRUCTURED DATA

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Compiling Structured Data

- Consider C-style structures like those below.
- How do we represent Point and Rect values?

```
struct Point { int x; int y; };
struct Rect { struct Point 11, 1r, u1, ur };
struct Rect mk square(struct Point 11, int len) {
 struct Rect square;
  square.ll = square.lr = square.ul = square.ur = 11;
 square.lr.x += len;
 square.ul.y += len;
 square.ur.x += len;
 square.ur.y += len;
 return square;
```

Representing Structs

```
struct Point { int x; int y;};
```

- Store the data using two contiguous words of memory.
- Represent a Point value p as the address of the first word.

```
struct Rect { struct Point 11, 1r, u1, ur };
```

Store the data using 8 contiguous words of memory.

```
square 11.x 11.y 1r.x 1r.y ul.x ul.y ur.x ur.y
```

- Compiler needs to know the *size* of the struct at compile time to allocate the needed storage space.
- Compiler needs to know the *shape* of the struct at compile time to index into the structure.

Assembly-level Member Access

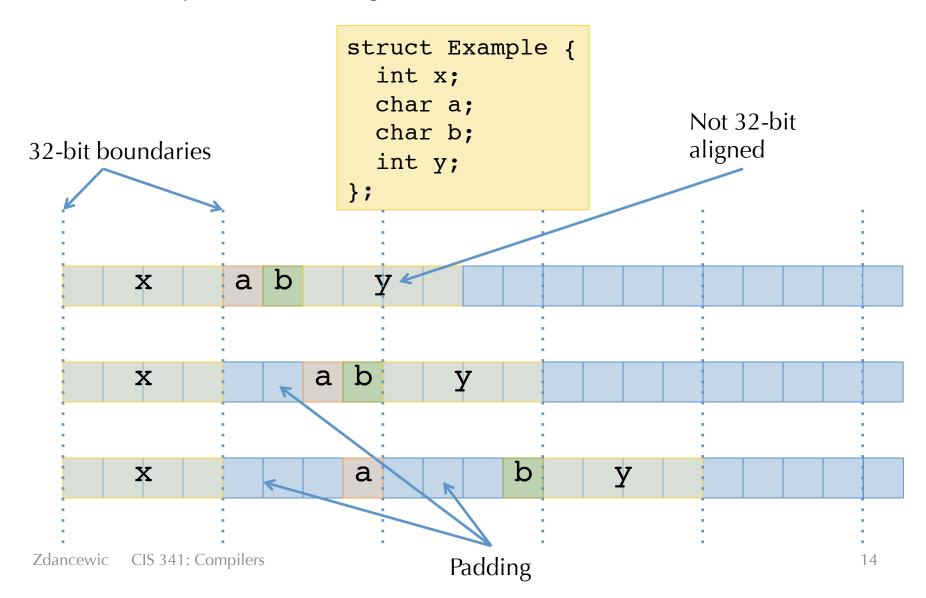
```
square 11.x 11.y 1r.x 1r.y ul.x ul.y ur.x ur.y
```

```
struct Point { int x; int y; };
struct Rect { struct Point ll, lr, ul, ur };
```

- Consider: [square.ul.y] = (x86.operand, x86.insns)
- Assume that %rcx holds the base address of square
- Calculate the offset relative to the base pointer of the data:
 - ul = sizeof(struct Point) + sizeof(struct Point)y = sizeof(int)
- So: [square.ul.y] = (ans, Movq 20(%rcx) ans)

Padding & Alignment

• How to lay out non-homogeneous structured data?



Copy-in/Copy-out

When we do an assignment in C as in:

```
struct Rect mk_square(struct Point 11, int elen) {
  struct Square res;
  res.lr = 11;
  ...
```

then we copy all of the elements out of the source and put them in the target. Same as doing word-level operations:

```
struct Rect mk_square(struct Point 11, int elen) {
  struct Square res;
  res.lr.x = ll.x;
  res.lr.y = ll.x;
  ...
```

• For really large copies, the compiler uses something like **memcpy** (which is implemented using a loop in assembly).

C Procedure Calls

- Similarly, when we call a procedure, we copy arguments in, and copy results out.
 - Caller sets aside extra space in its frame to store results that are bigger than will fit in %rax.
 - We do the same with scalar values such as integers or doubles.
- Sometimes, this is termed "call-by-value".
 - This is bad terminology.
 - Copy-in/copy-out is more accurate.
- Benefit: locality
- Problem: expensive for large records...
- In C: can opt to pass pointers to structs: "call-by-reference"
- Languages like Java and OCaml always pass non-word-sized objects by reference.

Call-by-Reference:

- The caller passes in the address of the point and the address of the result (1 word each).
- Note that returning references to stack-allocated data can cause problems.
 - Need to allocate storage in the heap...

ARRAYS

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Arrays

```
void foo() {
  char buf[27];

buf[0] = 'a';
  buf[1] = 'b';

  *(buf) = 'a';
  *(buf+1) = 'b';

  ...

buf[25] = 'z';
  buf[26] = 0;
}
void foo() {
  char buf[27];

  *(buf) = 'a';
  *(buf+1) = 'b';

  *(buf+25) = 'z';
  *(buf+26) = 0;
}
```

- Space is allocated on the stack for buf.
 - Note, without the ability to allocated stack space dynamically (C's alloca function) need to know size of buf at compile time...
- buf[i] is really just: (base_of_array) + i * elt_size

Multi-Dimensional Arrays

- In C, int M[4][3] yields an array with 4 rows and 3 columns.
- Laid out in *row-major* order:



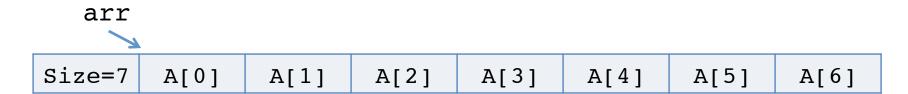
- M[i][j] compiles to?
- In Fortran, arrays are laid out in column major order.

```
M[0][0] M[1][0] M[2][0] M[3][0] M[0][1] M[1][1] M[2][1] ...
```

- In ML and Java, there are no multi-dimensional arrays:
 - (int array) array is represented as an array of pointers to arrays of ints.
- Why is knowing these memory layout strategies important?

Array Bounds Checks

- Safe languages (e.g. Java, C#, ML but not C, C++) check array indices to ensure that they're in bounds.
 - Compiler generates code to test that the computed offset is legal
- Needs to know the size of the array... where to store it?
 - One answer: Store the size *before* the array contents.



- Other possibilities:
 - Pascal: only permit statically known array sizes (very unwieldy in practice)
 - What about multi-dimensional arrays?

Array Bounds Checks (Implementation)

• Example: Assume %rax holds the base pointer (arr) and %ecx holds the array index i. To read a value from the array arr[i]:

- Clearly more expensive: adds move, comparison & jump
 - More memory traffic
 - Hardware can improve performance: executing instructions in parallel, branch prediction
- These overheads are particularly bad in an inner loop
- Compiler optimizations can help remove the overhead
 - e.g. In a for loop, if bound on index is known, only do the test once

C-style Strings

• A string constant "foo" is represented as global data:

```
_string42: 102 111 111 0
```

- C uses null-terminated strings
- Strings are usually placed in the *text* segment so they are read only.
 - allows all copies of the same string to be shared.
- Rookie mistake (in C): write to a string constant.

```
char *p = "foo";
p[0] = 'b';
```

Instead, must allocate space on the heap:

```
char *p = (char *)malloc(4 * sizeof(char));
strncpy(p, "foo", 4);  /* include the null byte */
p[0] = 'b';
```

TAGGED DATATYPES

C-style Enumerations / ML-style datatypes

• In C:

```
enum Day {sun, mon, tue, wed, thu, fri, sat} today;
```

• In ML:

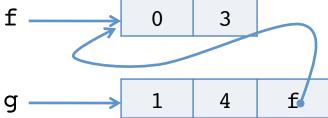
```
type day = Sun | Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat
```

- Associate an integer tag with each case: sun = 0, mon = 1, ...
 - C lets programmers choose the tags
- ML datatypes can also carry data:

- Representation: a **foo** value is a pointer to a pair: (tag, data)
- Example: tag(Bar) = 0, tag(Baz) = 1

$$[let f = Bar(3)] =$$

[let g = Baz(4, f)] =



Switch Compilation

• Consider the C statement:

```
switch (e) {
   case sun: s1; break;
   case mon: s2; break;
   ...
   case sat: s3; break;
}
```

- How to compile this?
 - What happens if some of the break statements are omitted? (Control falls through to the next branch.)

Cascading ifs and Jumps

[switch(e) {case tag1: s1; case tag2 s2; ...}] =

• Each \$tag1...\$tagN is just a constant int tag value.

Note: [break;] (within the switch branches) is: br %merge

```
%tag = [e];
   br label %11
11: %cmp1 = icmp eq %tag, $tag1
   br %cmp1 label %b1, label %merge
b1: [s1]
   br label %12
12: %cmp2 = icmp eq %taq, $taq2
   br %cmp2 label %b2, label %merge
b2: [s2]
   br label %13
lN: %cmpN = icmp eq %taq, $taqN
   br %cmpN label %bN, label %merge
bN: [sN]
   br label %merge
merge:
```

Alternatives for Switch Compilation

- Nested if-then-else works OK in practice if # of branches is small
 - (e.g. < 16 or so).
- For more branches, use better datastructures to organize the jumps:
 - Create a table of pairs (v1, branch_label) and loop through
 - Or, do binary search rather than linear search
 - Or, use a hash table rather than binary search
- One common case: the tags are dense in some range [min...max]
 - Let N = max min
 - Create a branch table Branches[N] where Branches[i] = branch_label for tag i.
 - Compute tag = [e] and then do an *indirect jump*: J Branches[tag]
- Common to use heuristics to combine these techniques.

ML-style Pattern Matching

- ML-style match statements are like C's switch statements except:
 - Patterns can bind variables
 - Patterns can nest

```
match e with
| Bar(z) -> e1
| Baz(y, Bar(w)) -> e2
| _ -> e3
```

match e with

 $Bar(z) \rightarrow e1$

Baz(y, tmp) ->

(match tmp with

 $Bar(w) \rightarrow e2$

 $Baz(_, _) -> e3)$

- Compilation strategy:
 - "Flatten" nested patterns into matches against one constructor at a time.
 - Compile the match against the tags of the datatype as for C-style switches.
 - Code for each branch additionally must copy data from [e] to the variables bound in the patterns.
- There are many opportunities for optimization, many papers about "pattern-match compilation"
 - Many of these transformations can be done at the AST level