

Compilation & Program Analysis

Hype for Types

October 24, 2023

Why compile?

- When we write code, we want to run the code.

Why compile?

- When we write code, we want to run the code.
- Common strategy for running the code: interpreter and compiler.

Why compile?

- When we write code, we want to run the code.
- Common strategy for running the code: interpreter and compiler.
- We could write a simple “expression evaluator”. However, our code would be very slow.

Why compile?

- When we write code, we want to run the code.
- Common strategy for running the code: interpreter and compiler.
- We could write a simple “expression evaluator”. However, our code would be very slow.
- Instead, we want to “translate” our (high-level) functional code to (low-level) assembly code.

Why compile?

- When we write code, we want to run the code.
- Common strategy for running the code: interpreter and compiler.
- We could write a simple “expression evaluator”. However, our code would be very slow.
- Instead, we want to “translate” our (high-level) functional code to (low-level) assembly code.
- Then, we can take advantage of a computer’s efficient hardware!

Why compile?

- When we write code, we want to run the code.
- Common strategy for running the code: interpreter and compiler.
- We could write a simple “expression evaluator”. However, our code would be very slow.
- Instead, we want to “translate” our (high-level) functional code to (low-level) assembly code.
- Then, we can take advantage of a computer’s efficient hardware!

Why compile?

- When we write code, we want to run the code.
- Common strategy for running the code: interpreter and compiler.
- We could write a simple “expression evaluator”. However, our code would be very slow.
- Instead, we want to “translate” our (high-level) functional code to (low-level) assembly code.
- Then, we can take advantage of a computer’s efficient hardware!

Main Idea

A *compiler* is simply a translator from one programming language to another.

How to compile?

Rather than going straight to Assembly, we'll want to use *intermediate languages*, composing smaller compiler *phases*.

How to compile?

Rather than going straight to Assembly, we'll want to use *intermediate languages*, composing smaller compiler *phases*.

Front End

① Parsing

How to compile?

Rather than going straight to Assembly, we'll want to use *intermediate languages*, composing smaller compiler *phases*.

Front End

- 1 Parsing
- 2 Elaboration (de-sugaring)

How to compile?

Rather than going straight to Assembly, we'll want to use *intermediate languages*, composing smaller compiler *phases*.

Front End

- 1 Parsing
- 2 Elaboration (de-sugaring)
- 3 Typechecking (disallow malformed programs)

How to compile?

Middle/Back End

④ CPS Conversion

¹For more information, take 15-411 (only covers 1-3, 8-10)

How to compile?

Middle/Back End

- ④ CPS Conversion
- ⑤ Hoisting

¹For more information, take 15-411 (only covers 1-3, 8-10)

How to compile?

Middle/Back End

- ④ CPS Conversion
- ⑤ Hoisting
- ⑥ Memory Allocation

¹For more information, take 15-411 (only covers 1-3, 8-10)

How to compile?

Middle/Back End

- ④ CPS Conversion
- ⑤ Hoisting
- ⑥ Memory Allocation
- ⑧ Analysis/Optimizations

¹For more information, take 15-411 (only covers 1-3, 8-10)

How to compile?

Middle/Back End

- 4 CPS Conversion
- 5 Hoisting
- 6 Memory Allocation
- 8 Analysis/Optimizations
 - ▶ Control Flow Graphs

¹For more information, take 15-411 (only covers 1-3, 8-10)

How to compile?

Middle/Back End

- 4 CPS Conversion
- 5 Hoisting
- 6 Memory Allocation
- 8 Analysis/Optimizations
 - ▶ Control Flow Graphs
 - ▶ Dataflow Analysis

¹For more information, take 15-411 (only covers 1-3, 8-10)

How to compile?

Middle/Back End

- ④ CPS Conversion
- ⑤ Hoisting
- ⑥ Memory Allocation
- ⑧ Analysis/Optimizations
 - ▶ Control Flow Graphs
 - ▶ Dataflow Analysis
 - ▶ Often involves making a program functional (SSA form)

¹For more information, take 15-411 (only covers 1-3, 8-10)

How to compile?

Middle/Back End

- 4 CPS Conversion
- 5 Hoisting
- 6 Memory Allocation
- 8 Analysis/Optimizations
 - ▶ Control Flow Graphs
 - ▶ Dataflow Analysis
 - ▶ Often involves making a program functional (SSA form)
- 9 Register Allocation

¹For more information, take 15-411 (only covers 1-3, 8-10)

How to compile?

Middle/Back End

- 4 CPS Conversion
- 5 Hoisting
- 6 Memory Allocation
- 8 Analysis/Optimizations
 - ▶ Control Flow Graphs
 - ▶ Dataflow Analysis
 - ▶ Often involves making a program functional (SSA form)
- 9 Register Allocation
- 10 Instruction Selection (assembly)

¹For more information, take 15-411 (only covers 1-3, 8-10)

How to compile?

Middle/Back End

- 4 CPS Conversion
- 5 Hoisting
- 6 Memory Allocation
- 8 Analysis/Optimizations
 - ▶ Control Flow Graphs
 - ▶ Dataflow Analysis
 - ▶ Often involves making a program functional (SSA form)
- 9 Register Allocation
- 10 Instruction Selection (assembly)

¹For more information, take 15-411 (only covers 1-3, 8-10)

How to compile?

Middle/Back End

- 4 CPS Conversion
- 5 Hoisting
- 6 Memory Allocation
- 8 Analysis/Optimizations
 - ▶ Control Flow Graphs
 - ▶ Dataflow Analysis
 - ▶ Often involves making a program functional (SSA form)
- 9 Register Allocation
- 10 Instruction Selection (assembly)

¹For more information, take 15-411 (only covers 1-3, 8-10)

Middle End

Middle End - Hoisting

- 4 CPS Conversion
- 5 **Hoisting**
- 6 Memory Allocation

Move local functions to top level. But what to do with local variables?

```
let outer (x : int) =  
  let inner (y : int) = x + y in  
  inner
```

Multiple approaches!

Middle End - Hoisting

```
let outer (x : int) : int -> int =  
  let inner (y : int) = x + y  
  inner
```

Straightforward solution: Partial Application + Lambda Lifting

- 1 Turn local variables into function variables
- 2 Introduce "partial application" structure for functions

```
let inner (x : int) (y : int) = x + y  
  
let outer (x : int) = pApp (inner, x)
```

Middle End - Hoisting

```
let outer (x : int) : int -> int =  
  let inner (y : int) = x + y  
  inner
```

Straightforward solution: Partial Application + Lambda Lifting

- 1 Turn local variables into function variables
- 2 Introduce "partial application" structure for functions

```
let inner (x : int) (y : int) = x + y  
  
let outer (x : int) = pApp (inner, x)
```

```
pApp (pApp (inner, 5), 6) ==>* inner 5 6
```

Middle End - Memory Allocation

- ④ CPS Conversion
- ⑤ Hoisting
- ⑥ **Memory Allocation**

Create memory representations of program values:

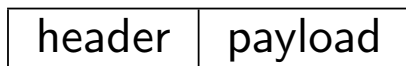
- Primitives (ex. `int`)
- Functions (are values!)
- Datatypes

Memory Allocation - Background

Stack: primitives, small program values

Heap: larger, more complicated values (ex. non-constant constructors, closures, records)

When we store something on the heap, the memory often looks something like this:



Memory Allocation - ADTs

Problem

How are Algebraic Datatypes in OCaml represented in memory?

Memory Allocation - ADTs

Problem

How are Algebraic Datatypes in OCaml represented in memory?

```
type t = Apple | Orange | Pear | Kiwi
```

Memory Allocation - ADTs

Problem

How are Algebraic Datatypes in OCaml represented in memory?

```
type t = Apple | Orange | Pear | Kiwi
```

Just represent each constructor as an integer!

Apple	0
Orange	1
Pear	2
Kiwi	3

Memory Allocation - ADTs

Problem

How are ADTs in OCaml *with arguments* represented in memory?

```
type t = Apple | Orange of int | Pear of string | Kiwi
```

Memory Allocation - ADTs

Problem

How are ADTs in OCaml *with arguments* represented in memory?

```
type t = Apple | Orange of int | Pear of string | Kiwi
```

The arguments could be large, so let's allocate these on the heap:

size of block	tag	payload
header		

The non-parameterized constructors will remain integers, while the parameterized constructors will be pointers to memory on the heap.

Memory Allocation - ADTs

Sidenote: in OCaml the numbering for parameterized constructors is separate from non-parameterized constructors:

Tags	
Apple	0
Orange	0
Pear	1
Kiwi	1

Memory Allocation - ADTs

Sidenote: in OCaml the numbering for parameterized constructors is separate from non-parameterized constructors:

Tags	
Apple	0
Orange	0
Pear	1
Kiwi	1

Question

Why would it make sense to have separate numberings?

Memory Allocation - ADTs

Sidenote: in OCaml the numbering for parameterized constructors is separate from non-parameterized constructors:

Tags	
Apple	0
Orange	0
Pear	1
Kiwi	1

Question

Why would it make sense to have separate numberings?

Answer: idk ask the developers (probably some optimization scheme)

Memory Allocation - Lists

```
type list = Nil | Cons of int * list
let mylist = Cons (1, Cons (2, Cons (3, Nil)))
```

Memory Allocation - Lists

```
type list = Nil | Cons of int * list
let mylist = Cons (1, Cons (2, Cons (3, Nil)))
```

Question

How would `mylist` be represented in memory?

Memory Allocation - Lists

```
type list = Nil | Cons of int * list
let mylist = Cons (1, Cons (2, Cons (3, Nil)))
```

Question

How would `mylist` be represented in memory?

A linked-list!

Memory Allocation - Lists

```
type list = Nil | Cons of int * list
let mylist = Cons (1, Cons (2, Cons (3, Nil)))
```

Question

How would `mylist` be represented in memory?

A linked-list! Although this may be inefficient, so we can “unroll” to put multiple elements at one node in the linked-list.

Memory Allocation - Lists

```
type list = Nil | Cons of int * list
let mylist = Cons (1, Cons (2, Cons (3, Nil)))
```

Question

How would mylist be represented in memory?

A linked-list! Although this may be inefficient, so we can “unroll” to put multiple elements at one node in the linked-list.

At a high level it looks something like this:

```
type list =
  Nil
| One   of int
| Two   of int * int
| Rest  of int * int * int * list
```

Memory Allocation - Closures

Question

How should we represent closures?

Memory Allocation - Closures

Question

How should we represent closures?

After lambda-lifting, all function bodies are top-level functions.

Memory Allocation - Closures

Question

How should we represent closures?

After lambda-lifting, all function bodies are top-level functions.

Function constants = function pointers

Closures = struct with function pointer & partial application arguments
(or environment map)

Middle End - CPS

④ CPS Conversion

⑤ Hoisting

⑥ Memory Allocation

(deep breath) Buckle up

CPS Conversion

Why CPS?

CPS conversion rewrites functions to ensure every function call is a tail call

Main Idea

CPS makes control flow explicit - everything is represented as a jump to the next continuation.

Bonus: Save stack space! Every function is tail-recursive, so no “stack overflow”. (There’s no “stack”!)

Remember continuations?

```
signature CONT =  
sig  
  type 'a cont  
  val letcc : ('a cont -> 'a) -> 'a  
  val throw : 'a cont -> 'a -> 'b  
  val catch : ('a -> void) -> 'a cont  
end
```

Remember continuations?

```
signature CONT =  
sig  
  type 'a cont  
  val letcc : ('a cont -> 'a) -> 'a  
  val throw : 'a cont -> 'a -> 'b  
  val catch : ('a -> void) -> 'a cont  
end
```

$$\frac{\Gamma, k : \tau \text{ cont} \vdash e : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \text{letcc } k \text{ in } e : \tau}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash k : \tau \text{ cont} \quad \Gamma \vdash e : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \text{throw } k \ e : \tau'}$$

CPS Translation

Function Translation

$\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ becomes $(\tau_1 \times (\tau_2 \text{ cont})) \text{ cont}$

CPS Translation

Function Translation

$\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ becomes $(\tau_1 \times (\tau_2 \text{ cont})) \text{ cont}$

Logically $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ is $\phi_1 \supset \phi_2$. Since continuation corresponds to classical logic, this is equivalent to $\neg(\phi_1 \wedge \neg\phi_2)$, which is $(\tau_1 \times (\tau_2 \text{ cont})) \text{ cont}$.

CPS Translation

Function Translation

$\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ becomes $(\tau_1 \times (\tau_2 \text{ cont})) \text{ cont}$

Logically $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ is $\phi_1 \supset \phi_2$. Since continuation corresponds to classical logic, this is equivalent to $\neg(\phi_1 \wedge \neg\phi_2)$, which is $(\tau_1 \times (\tau_2 \text{ cont})) \text{ cont}$.

```
val f : int -> int = fn x => add (x, x) where  
add : int * int -> int
```

CPS Translation

Function Translation

$\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ becomes $(\tau_1 \times (\tau_2 \text{ cont})) \text{ cont}$

Logically $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ is $\phi_1 \supset \phi_2$. Since continuation corresponds to classical logic, this is equivalent to $\neg(\phi_1 \wedge \neg\phi_2)$, which is $(\tau_1 \times (\tau_2 \text{ cont})) \text{ cont}$.

```
val f : int -> int = fn x => add (x, x) where
add : int * int -> int
```

Translates to:

```
val f = catch (fn (x, k)=> throw addCPS ((x, x), k)) where
addCPS : ((int * int)* (int cont))cont
```

CPS Translation

Function Translation

$\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ becomes $(\tau_1 \times (\tau_2 \text{ cont})) \text{ cont}$

Logically $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ is $\phi_1 \supset \phi_2$. Since continuation corresponds to classical logic, this is equivalent to $\neg(\phi_1 \wedge \neg\phi_2)$, which is $(\tau_1 \times (\tau_2 \text{ cont})) \text{ cont}$.

```
val f : int -> int = fn x => add (x, x) where
add : int * int -> int
```

Translates to:

```
val f = catch (fn (x, k)=> throw addCPS ((x, x), k)) where
addCPS : ((int * int)* (int cont))cont
```

To call f:

```
letcc (fn res => throw f (5, res))
```

Different IRs

	CPS	λ -calculus	SSA
Inline expansion	:)	:(:(
Closure	:)	:)	:(
Dataflow analysis	:—	:(:)
Register allocation	:)	:(:)
Vectorization	:—	:(:—

Program Analysis

Why Analyze Programs?

- When we write code, we write them inefficient & buggy!
- We could hand optimize & run the program and debug...

Why Analyze Programs?

- When we write code, we write them inefficient & buggy!
- We could hand optimize & run the program and debug...
- But some optimizations/bugs can be done/caught statically!

```
void isbad() {  
    int arr[150];  
    int matey = 1;  
    // index < 0; Bug!!  
    arr[matey - 2];  
    //deadcode, so we can remove this block!  
    if(false) {  
        //...a lot of code...  
    }  
}
```

Dataflow

- Many Program Analysis problems are dataflow problems
- Dataflow is a problem where a few rules describe a relation between the variables in the construct and it's neighbors.

```
L1: x = 0;  
L2: y = 150 * 150;  
L3: z = 15;  
L4: z = z + x + 1;  
L5: return x + z;
```

Dataflow

- Many Program Analysis problems are dataflow problems
- Dataflow is a problem where a few rules describe a relation between the variables in the construct and it's neighbors.

```
L1: x = 0;  
L2: y = 150 * 150;  
L3: z = 15;  
L4: z = z + x + 1;  
L5: return x + z;
```

- to analyze which variable is not used, we'll define a few dataflow rules

Neededness

$$\frac{L : \text{return } x}{\text{nec}(L, x)} \quad \frac{\text{nec}(L, x)}{\text{needed}(L, x)}$$

$$\frac{\text{use}(L, y) \quad \text{def}(L, x) \quad \text{needed}(L + 1, x)}{\text{needed}(L, y)}$$

Neededness

$$\frac{L : \text{return } x}{\text{nec}(L, x)} \quad \frac{\text{nec}(L, x)}{\text{needed}(L, x)}$$

$$\frac{\text{use}(L, y) \quad \text{def}(L, x) \quad \text{needed}(L + 1, x)}{\text{needed}(L, y)}$$

```
L1: x = 0;           //needed:
L2: y = 150 * 150;  //needed: x
L3: z = 15;         //needed: x
L4: z = z + x + 1;  //needed: x, z
L5: return x + z;   //needed: x, z
```

Question

What about loops? How does our algorithm change?

Conclusion

Summary

- Compilers are “language translators”, and often compositions of smaller “language translators”.
- Types guide our thinking when we implement the translations!
 - ▶ Each language is “real”, complete with types and an evaluation strategy for all well-typed programs.
 - ▶ Bonus: we can do optimization at any point without worrying about special “invariants”!
 - ▶ Easier to debug, too. If output code doesn’t typecheck, it’s a bug.
- By thinking compositionally, we slowly transform high-level code into assembly.

There's Plenty More!

Writing a compiler is very hard, but rewarding (because compilers are useful, unlike PL theory).

If this lecture seems cool, consider taking 15-411 - Compiler Design. Also ~~beg Karl to teach~~ take 15-417 - HOT Compilation!