COMP110: Principles of Computing

9: Compilers and interpreters

Learning outcomes

- Explain the difference between interpretation, just-in-time compilation and ahead-of-time compilation
- Distinguish the basic parts of a compilation pipeline and recall how they operate
- ▶ Describe how common high-level code structures translate to machine code

Worksheet E

- ▶ Compilers and machine code
- ► Due in class on **Monday 21st November** (next week)

Final worksheet submission

- ➤ Soon!!! (see MyFalmouth)
- Should be easy: "Download Zip" from GitHub, rename, upload to LearningSpace
- If any of your work is **not** on GitHub (e.g. images on imagur), be sure to **add it to the zip!**
 - Exception: SpaceChem videos can stay as YouTube links
- Even if you have submitted everything on time via GitHub, late submission to LearningSpace will have the standard penalty for late submission (40% cap)!

How programs are executed

Executing programs

- CPUs execute machine code
- Programs must be translated into machine code for execution
- ► There are three main ways of doing this:
 - An interpreter is an application which reads the program source code and executes it directly
 - An ahead-of-time (AOT) compiler, often just called a compiler, is an application which converts the program source code into executable machine code
 - A just-in-time (JIT) compiler is halfway between the two — it compiles the program on-the-fly at runtime

Examples

Interpreted:

► Python

Lua

- JavaScript (in old web browsers)
- Bespoke scripting languages

Compiled:

► C

► C++

► Swift

JIT compiled:

▶ Java

► C#

JavaScript (in modern web browsers)

Jython

NB: technically any language could appear in any column here, but this is where they typically are

- ► Run-time efficiency: compiler > interpreter
 - ► The compiler translates the program in advance, on the developer's machine
 - The interpreter translates the program at runtime, on the user's machine — this takes extra time

- ► Portability: compiler < interpreter
 - A compiled program can only run on the operating system and CPU architecture it was compiled for
 - An interpreted program can run on any machine, as long as a suitable interpreter is available

- ▶ Ease of development: compiler < interpreter</p>
 - Writing an AOT or JIT compiler (especially a good one) is hard, and required in-depth knowledge of the target machine
 - Writing an interpreter is easy in comparison

- ► Dynamic language features: compiler < interpreter
 - The interpreter is already on the end user's machine, so programs can use it e.g. to dynamically generate and execute new code
 - The AOT compiler is not generally on the end user's machine, so this is more difficult

- ► JIT compilers have similar pros/cons to interpreters
 - Runtime efficiency: JIT > interpreter (e.g. code inside a loop only needs to be translated once, then can be executed many times)
 - Ease of development: JIT < interpreter</p>

Virtual machines

- Many modern interpreters and JIT compilers translate programs into bytecode
- Bytecode is essentially machine code for a virtual machine (VM)
- Translation from source code to bytecode can be done ahead of time
- At runtime, translate the bytecode (by interpretation or JIT compilation) into machine code for the physical machine
- E.g. a Java JAR file, a .NET executable, a Python .pyc or .pyo file all contain bytecode for their respective VMs

Assemblers

- Assembly language is designed to translate directly into machine code
- An ahead-of-time compile for assembly language is called an assembler
- Generally much simpler than an AOT compiler for a higher-level language

The C++ build process

Preprocessor

- Handles header inclusion, macro expansion and conditional compilation
- ► Outputs modified C++ source code

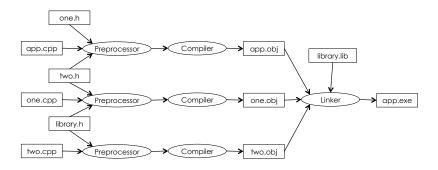
Compiler

- Translates each source file into an object file containing machine code
- May be configured to optimise code (e.g. calculate constant values, expand inline functions, re-order instructions to take advantage of CPU architecture, etc.)

Linker

 Combines the object files together with any external libraries to produce an **executable** (on Windows, a .exe file)

The C++ build process



The MIPS architecture

MIPS

- An example of a Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC) architecture
 - Small number of simple instructions computational power comes from executing many instructions per second
 - Compare with Complex Instruction Set Computer (CISC) architecture (e.g. Intel x86) — large number of complex instructions — fewer instructions per second, but shorter programs
- ► MIPS was popular in 1980s 2000s
 - Embedded systems
 - Consoles (Nintendo 64, PlayStation 1 and 2)
- Easier to understand than most CPU instruction sets in common use today

Online MIPS simulator

http://rivoire.cs.sonoma.edu/cs351/wemips/

Registers

- ► Memory locations inside the CPU
- Faster to access than main memory
- Registers in MIPS architecture include:
 - \$zero: constant 0
 - \$t0-\$t9: temporary storage
 - \$s0-\$s7: saved temporary storage
- Each register holds a single 32-bit value

Adding register values

```
ADD $d, $s, $t
```

- ▶ \$a, \$s and \$t are register names
- ► This adds the value of \$s to the value of \$t, and stores the result in \$d

```
SUB $d, $s, $t
```

 Subtracts the value of \$t from the value of \$s, and stores the result in \$a

Adding a constant

ADDI \$d, \$s, C

- \$a and \$s are register names, c is an integer constant
- ► This adds the value of \$s to c, and stores the result in \$a
- ADDI = "add immediate" as in c is specified immediately in the code, not looked up from a register
- ► There is no subj instruction to subtract c, add -c

More fun with ADDI

- ► Socrative FALCOMPED
- ▶ What does this code do?

```
ADDI $s0, $s1, 0
```

What does this code do?

```
ADDI $s0, $zero, 12
```

 MIPS does not have dedicated instructions for setting a register value to a constant or to the value of another register — it has to be done with ADDI

Control flow in MIPS

Labels and jumping

▶ In assembly code, can set a label on any line:

```
MyLabel: ADD $s0, $s1, 1
```

- Some instructions use labels to refer to a location in the code
- E.g. the j instruction simply jumps (backwards or forwards) to the specified line:

```
j MyLabel
```

Branching

Branching is conditional jumping

```
BEQ $s, $t, Label
```

► This jumps to Label if and only if the value of \$s equals the value of \$t

```
BNE $s, $t, Label
```

► This jumps to Label if and only if the value of \$s does not equal the value of \$t

Conditionals

Branching allows us to implement if statements

```
if s0 != 0:
    s1 += 1
else:
    s2 += 1
```

```
beq $s0, $zero, Else
addi $s1, $s1, 1
j End
Else: addi $s2, $s2, 1
End:
```

Loops

► Branching allows us to implement while loops

```
i = 0
total = 0
limit = 10

while i != limit:
    total += i
    i += 1
# end while
```

```
ADDI $s0, $zero, 0
ADDI $s1, $zero, 0
ADDI $s2, $zero, 10

Loop: BEQ $s0, $s2, LoopEnd
ADD $s1, $s1, $s0
ADDI $s0, $s0, 1
J Loop
LoopEnd:
```

Exercise

Write a piece of Python code equivalent to the following:

```
ADDI $s0, $zero, 10
ADDI $s1, $zero, 0

Loop: BEQ $s0, $zero, LoopEnd
ADD $s1, $s1, $s0
ADDI $s0, $s0, -1
J Loop
```

LoopEnd:

Not quite a while loop

- ► Socrative FALCOMPED
- What is the difference between these two programs?
- (NB: assume $$s0 \ge 0$)

```
ADDI $s1, $zero, 0

Loop: BEQ $s0, $zero, ←

LoopEnd

ADD $s1, $s1, $s0

ADDI $s0, $s0, -1

J Loop

LoopEnd:
```

```
ADDI $s1, $zero, 0

Loop: ADD $s1, $s1, $s0

ADDI $s0, $s0, -1

BNE $s0, $zero, Loop
```

The code on the right implements a **do-while** loop (which Python doesn't have, but other languages do)

Function calls

- Function calls can be implemented using the jump instruction:
 - To call the function: save the address of the instruction after the current one, then jump to the function
 - To return from the function: jump to the previously saved address
- ► MIPS has jal and jr instructions and \$ra register for this purpose
- ➤ Socrative FALCOMPED: why save the return address? Why not just hard-code it into the program?
- Nested function calls require a stack of return addresses

MIPS machine code

MIPS instructions

- Each line of MIPS assembly code can be translated into a machine code instruction
- ▶ 1 line of assembly = 1 instruction
- ► Each instruction is a 32 bit value
- ► First 6 bits specify the **opcode**; how the remaining 26 bits are interpreted depends on which opcode it is

Anatomy of an instruction

R-type instruction:

opcode	\$s	\$t	\$d	shift	function				
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits				

- opcode and function together specify the operation to execute
 - ▶ E.g. ADD has opcode 000000 and function 100000
 - ▶ E.g. SUB has opcode 000000 and function 100010
- ► Some instructions specify a **shift** amount
 - For ADD SUB etc these 5 bits are ignored
- Registers are identified by a 5-bit number
 - E.g. \$zero \rightarrow 00000, \$s0 \rightarrow 01000, \$s1 \rightarrow 01001
 - There are 32 registers

Example

ADD \$s0, \$s0, \$s1



opcode s t d shift function 000000 01000 01001 01001 00000 100000 $^{\circ}$

Anatomy of an instruction

I-type instruction:

O	ocode	∍		\$s	\$t			С																
	6 bits		5	bit	S	5 bits				16 bits														

- ▶ opcode specifies the operation to execute
 - ▶ E.g. ADDI has opcode 001000
- ▶ c is specified as a 16-bit number

Example

ADDI \$s0, \$s1, 123



opcode s t C 001000 01001 01000 0000000001111011

Anatomy of an instruction

J-type instruction:

opcode	address
6 bits	26 bits

- ▶ opcode specifies the operation to execute
 - ► E.g. J has opcode 000010
- address is specified as a 26-bit number