Compilers Construction

BS(CS) 2019-2023 Monday/Tuesday 12:30-14:00

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Tentative Lecture Grading Policy

Class attendance

5%

Homework Project/Presentation

15%

Final exam

Midterm exam

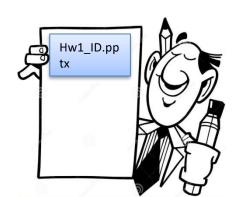


50%

30%



➤ The **FORMAT** of your PPT file name **hw1_ID.ppt** or **hw1_ID.pdf**



Grouping



- ➤ 10 Small groups
- ➤ Each small group: 2-3 students
- ➤ Project Presentation: Present by a small group at the end of the semester.
- ➤ Homework: Individual students (2 students per lecture) present their homework.

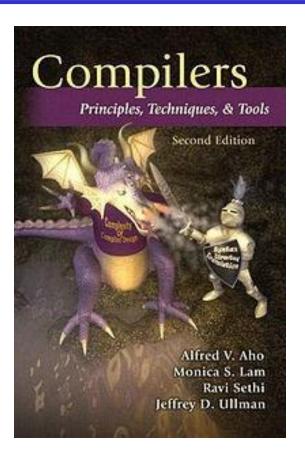






Text books

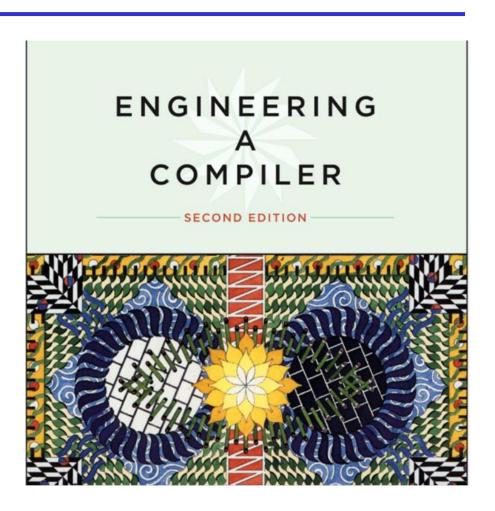
- The Purple Dragon Book
- Aho, Lam, Sethi & Ullman
- Not required
 - But a useful reference



Text books

- Engineering a Compiler
- Keith D. Cooper, Linda Torczon

- Not required
 - But a useful reference



Course Goal

- Open the lid of compilers and see inside
 - Understand what they do
 - Understand how they work
 - Understand how to build them



- Correctness over performance
 - Correctness is essential in compilers
 - They must produce correct code
 - CS143 is more like CS103+CS110 than CS107
 - Other classes focus on performance (CS149, CS243)

History of High-Level Languages

- 1954: IBM develops the 704
- Problem
 - Software costs exceeded hardware costs!
- All programming done in assembly

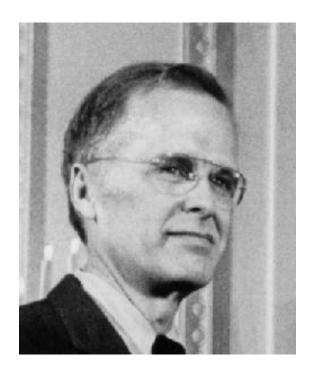


The Solution

- Enter "Speedcoding"
- An interpreter
- 300 bytes = 30% of total memory
- Ran 10-20 times slower than hand-written assembly

FORTRAN I

- Enter John Backus
- Idea
 - Translate high-level code to assembly
 - Many thought this impossible
 - Had already failed in other projects



FORTRAN I (Cont.)

- 1954-7
 - FORTRAN I project
- 1958
 - >50% of all software is in FORTRAN
- Development time halved
- Performance close to hand-written assembly!

G FOR COMMENT STATEMENT NUMBER	CONTINUATION	FORTRAN STATEMENT	IDENTI- FICATION
	6		73 80
C	_	PROGRAM FOR FINDING THE LARGEST VALUE	
C	X	ATTAINED BY A SET OF NUMBERS	
		DIMENSION A(999)	
		FREQUENCY 30(2,1,10), 5(100)	
		READ 1, N, (A(I), I = 1,N)	
1		FORMAT (13/(12F6.2))	
		BIGA = A(1)	
5		DO 20 I = 2, N	
30		IF (BIGA-A(I)) 10,20,20	
10		BIGA = A(I)	
20		CONTINUE	
		PRINT 2, N, BIGA	
2		FORMAT (22H1THE LARGEST OF THESE 13, 12H NUMBERS IS F7.2)	
		STOP 77777	

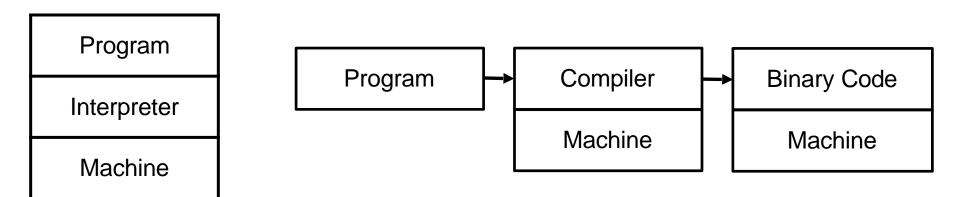
FORTRAN I

- The first compiler
 - Huge impact on computer science
- Led to an enormous body of theoretical and practical work

- Modern compilers preserve the outlines of FORTRAN I
- Can you name a modern compiler?

How are Languages Implemented?

- Two major strategies:
 - Interpreters run your program
 - Compilers translate your program



How does a compiler work?

- Two main stages in the compiling process:
 - Analysis (front end)

The analysis stage breaks up the source program into pieces and creates a generic (language independent) intermediate representation of the program.

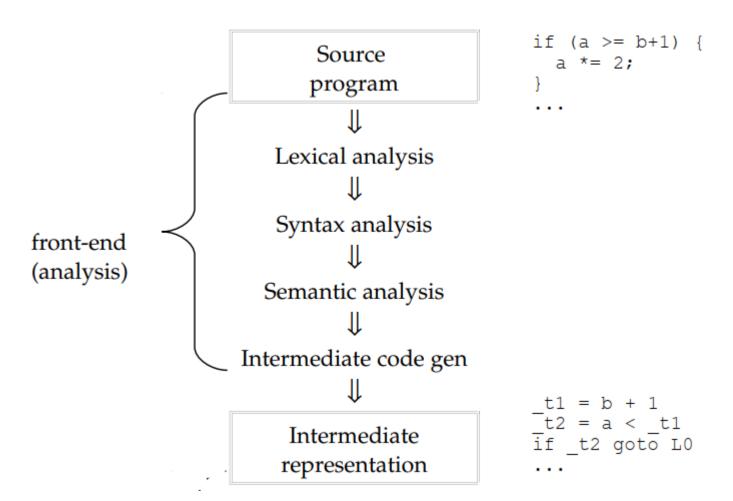
Synthesis (back end)

The synthesis stage constructs the desired target program from the intermediate representation

 Each of the stages is broken down into a set of "phases" that handle different parts of the tasks.

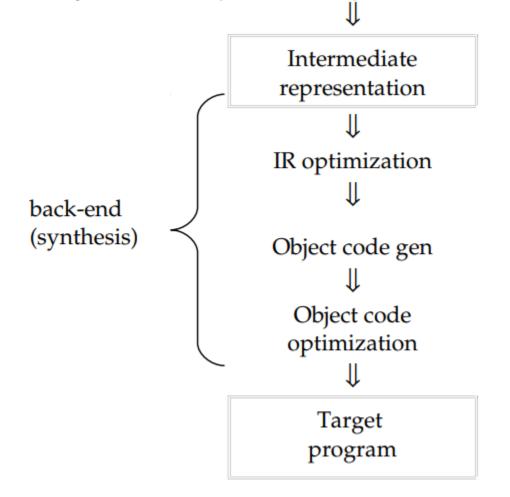
How does a compiler work?

Analysis (front end)



How does a compiler work?

Synthesis (back end)



ld [%fp-16], \$10 add %10, 1, %10

1. Analysis (front end)

I. Lexical Analysis

- First step: recognize words.
 - Smallest unit above letters

This is a sentence.

Can be understood by analogy to how humans comprehend English.

More Lexical Analysis

Lexical analysis is not trivial. Consider:

ist his ase nte nce

I. Lexical Analysis

The stream of characters making up a source program is read from left to right and grouped into tokens, which are sequences of characters that have a collective meaning.

 Examples of tokens are identifiers (user defined names), reserved words, integers, doubles or floats, delimiters, operators, and special symbols.

1. Lexical Analysis (continue)

Example of lexical analysis:

```
int a; a = a + 2;
```

A lexical analyzer scanning the code fragment above might return:

```
(reserved word)
int T INT
                      (variable name)
   T IDENTIFIER
                      (special symbol with value of ";")
     T SPECIAL
                      (variable name)
     T IDENTIFIER
                      (operator with value of "=")
      T OP
                      (variable name)
      T IDENTIFIER
                      (operator with value of "+")
      T OP
                      (integer constant with value of 2)
     T INTCONSTANT
                      (special symbol with value of ";")
      T SPECIAL
```

I. Lexical Analysis (continue)

Example of lexical analysis:

```
int a; a = a + 2;
```

A lexical analyzer scanning the code fragment above might return:

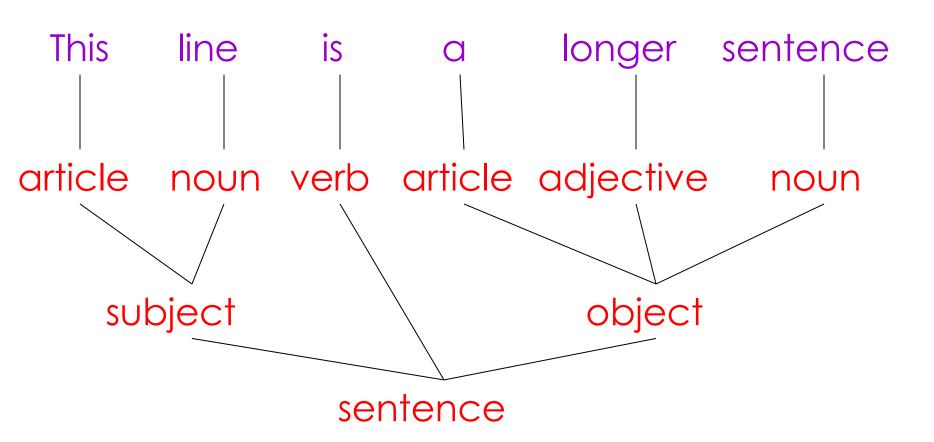
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      T OP
                      (variable name)
      T IDENTIFIER
                      (operator with value of "+")
      T OP
                      (integer constant with value of 2)
     T INTCONSTANT
                      (special symbol with value of ";")
      T SPECIAL
```

II. Syntax Analysis (Parsing)

- The tokens found during scanning are grouped together using a context free grammar.
- A grammar is a set of rules that define valid structures in the programming language.
- Each token is associated with a specific rule, and grouped together accordingly.

- Parsing = Diagramming Sentences
 - The diagram is a tree
 - Derivation

Diagramming a Sentence

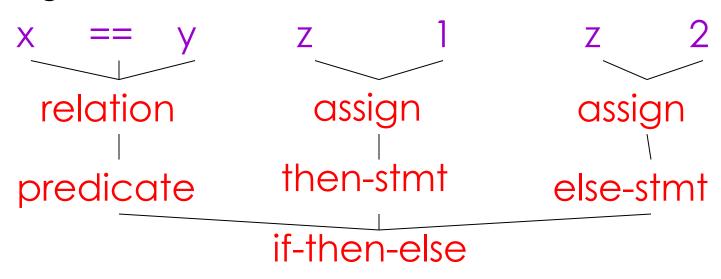


Parsing Programs

- Parsing program expressions is the same
- Consider:

If
$$x == y$$
 then $z = 1$; else $z = 2$;

Diagrammed:

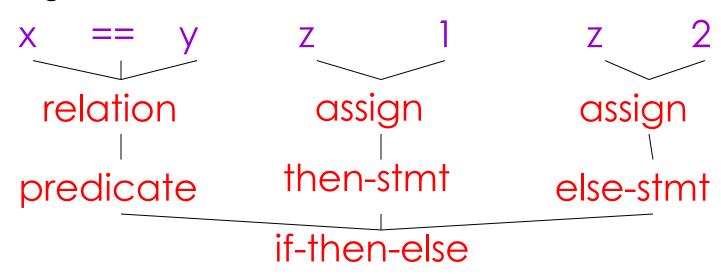


Parsing Programs

- Parsing program expressions is the same
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If
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Diagrammed:



Parsing Programs

To parse a + 2, we would apply the following rules:

```
Expression -> Expression + Expression
-> Variable + Expression
-> T_IDENTIFIER + Expression
-> T_IDENTIFIER + Constant
-> T_IDENTIFIER + T_INTCONSTANT
```

When we reach a point in the parse where we have only tokens, we have finished.

III. Semantic Analysis

- Once sentence structure is understood, we can try to understand "meaning"
 - But meaning is too hard for compilers
- This phase also checks the parse tree or derivation for semantic errors.
- Semantic analysis is the phase where we detect such things as use of an undeclared variable, a function called with improper arguments, access violations, and incompatible operands and type mismatches, e.g., an array variable added to a function name.

Semantic Analysis in English

Example:

Tom said Jerry left his assignment at home. What does "his" refer to? Tom or Jerry?

Even worse:

Tom said Tom left his assignment at home?

How many Toms are there?

Which one left the assignment?

Semantic Analysis in Programming

 Programming languages define strict rules to avoid such ambiguities

This C++ code prints
 "4"; the inner definition is used

```
{
  int Jack = 3;
  {
    int Jack = 4;
    cout << Jack;
  }
}</pre>
```

More Semantic Analysis

 Compilers perform many semantic checks besides variable bindings

Example:

Jack left her homework at home.

- Possible type mismatch between her and Jack
 - If Jack is male

IV. Intermediate Code Generation

- This phase generates intermediate representation of the source program.
- The representation can have a variety of forms, but a common one is called three address code (TAC), which is a lot like a generic assembly language.
- Three address code is a sequence of simple instructions, each of which can have at most three operands.

Intermediate Code Generation(continue)

- Example of intermediate code generation:
 - Source Code:

$$a = b * c + b * d$$

– Intermediate Code:

$$_{t1} = b * c$$
 $_{t2} = b * d$
 $_{t3} = _{t1} + _{t2}$
 $_{a} = _{t3}$

2. Synthesis(back end)

I. Intermediate Code Optimization

- Akin to editing
 - Minimize reading time
 - Minimize items the reader must keep in short-term memory
- Automatically modify programs so that they
 - Run faster
 - Use less memory
 - In general, to use or conserve some resource

Intermediate Code Generation(continue)

Example of code optimization:

- Intermediate Code:
$$_{_{}}^{_{}}$$
t1 = b * c
 $_{_{}}$ t2 = $_{_{}}$ t1 + 0
 $_{_{}}$ t3 = b * c
 $_{_{}}$ t4 = $_{_{}}$ t2 + $_{_{}}$ t3
 $_{_{}}$ a = $_{_{}}$ t4

Optimized Intermediate Code:

$$_{t2} = _{t1} + _{t1}$$
 $_{a} = _{t2}$

II. Object Code Generation

- This phase usually generates machine code or assembly code.
- Memory locations are selected for each variable.
- Instructions are chosen for each operation.
- The three address code is translated into a sequence of assembly or machine language instructions that perform the same tasks

Object Code Generation (continue)

- Example of code generation::
 - Intermediate Code:

$$_{t1} = b * c$$
 $_{t2} = _{t1} + _{t1}$
 $_{a} = _{t2}$

– Intermediate Code:

```
ld [%fp-16], %l1  # load
ld [%fp-20], %l2  # load
smul %l1, %l2, %l3  # mult
add %l3, %l3, %l0  # add
st %l0, [%fp-24]  # store
```

Compilers Today

The overall structure of almost every compiler adheres to our outline

- The proportions have changed since FORTRAN
 - Early: lexing and parsing most complex/expensive
 - Today: optimization dominates all other phases, lexing and parsing are well understood and cheap
- Compilers are now also found inside libraries

Language Implementations

- Compilers dominate low-level languages
 - C, C++, Go, Rust
- Interpreters dominate high-level languages
 - Python, Ruby
- Some language implementations provide both
 - Java, Javascript, WebAssembly
 - Interpreter + Just in Time (JIT) compiler

Issues

 Compiling is almost this simple, but there are many pitfalls

Example: How to handle erroneous programs?

- Language design has big impact on compiler
 - Determines what is easy and hard to compile
 - Course theme: many trade-offs in language design

Home Work

Finite automata review

Nondeterministic finite automaton(NFA)