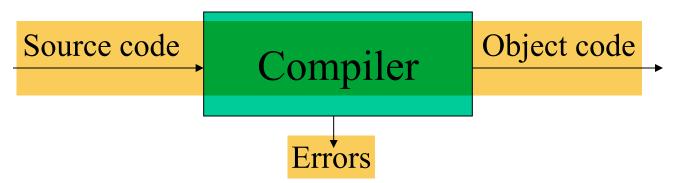
Lecture 2: General Structure of a Compiler



(from last lecture) The compiler:-

- must generate correct code.
- must recognise errors.
- analyses and synthesises.

In today's lecture:

more details about the compiler's structure.

Conceptual Structure: two major phases

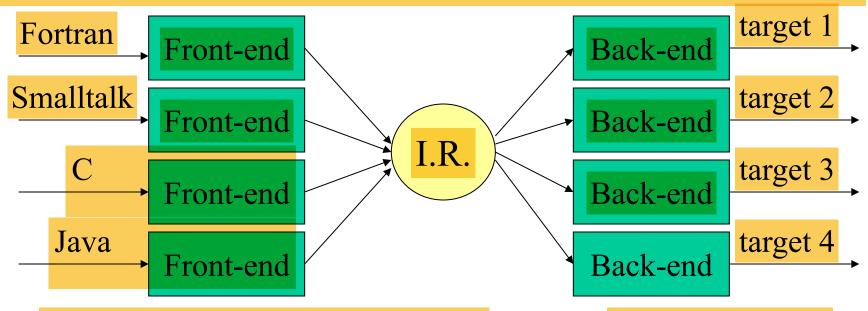
Source code Front-End Intermediate Representation Back-End Target code

- Front-end performs the analysis of the source language:
 - Recognises legal and illegal programs and reports errors.
 - "understands" the input program and collects its semantics in an IR.
 - Produces IR and shapes the code for the back-end.
 - Much can be automated.
- Back-end does the target language synthesis:
 - Chooses instructions to implement each IR operation.
 - Translates IR into target code.
 - Needs to conform with system interfaces.
 - Automation has been less successful.

- A problem which we don't know how to solve in less than exponential time
- Typically front-end is **O(n)**, while back-end is **NP-complete**.

What is the implication of this separation (front-end: analysis; back-end:synthesis) in building a compiler for, say, a new language?

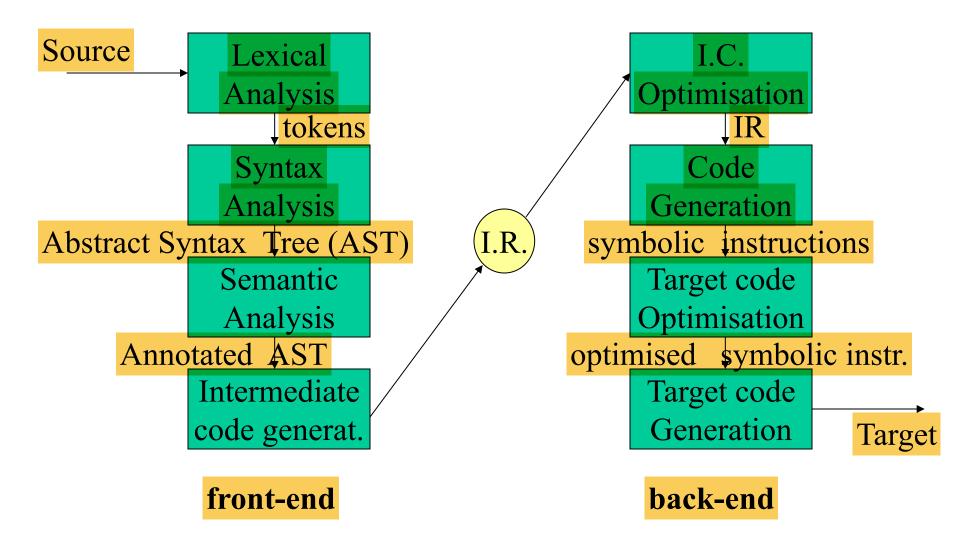
m×n compilers with m+n components!



- All language specific knowledge must be encoded in the front-end
- All target specific knowledge must be encoded in the backend

But: in practice, this strict separation is not free of charge.

General Structure of a compiler



Lexical Analysis (Scanning)

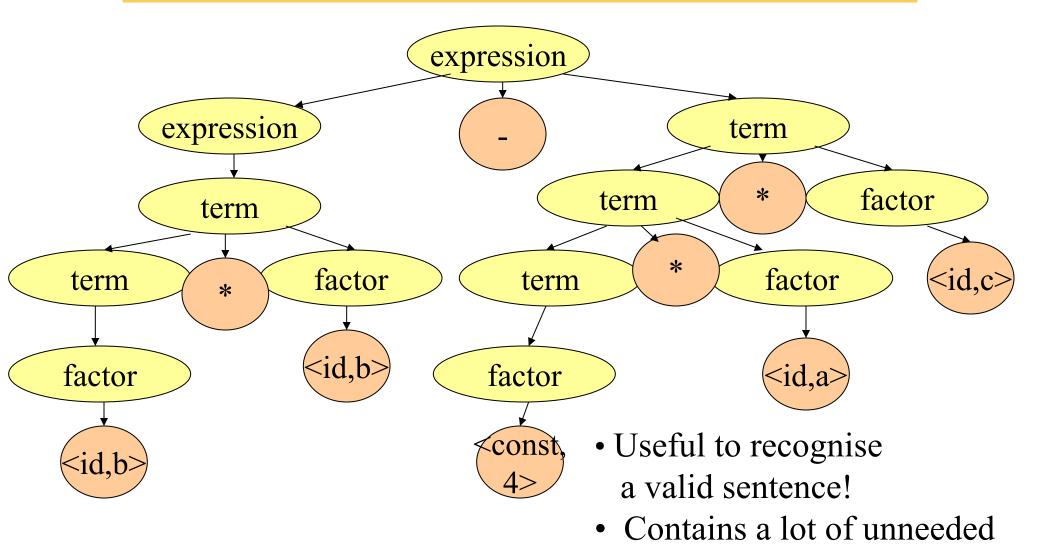
- Reads characters in the source program and groups them into words (basic unit of syntax)
- Produces words and recognises what sort they are.
- The output is called token and is a pair of the form < type, lexeme > or < token class, attribute >
- E.g.: **a=b+c** becomes <id,**a**> <=,> <id,**b**> <+,> <id,**c**>
- Needs to record each id attribute: keep a symbol table.
- Lexical analysis eliminates white space, etc...
- Speed is important use a specialised tool: e.g., flex a tool for generating scanners: programs which recognise lexical patterns in text; for more info: % man flex

Syntax (or syntactic) Analysis (Parsing)

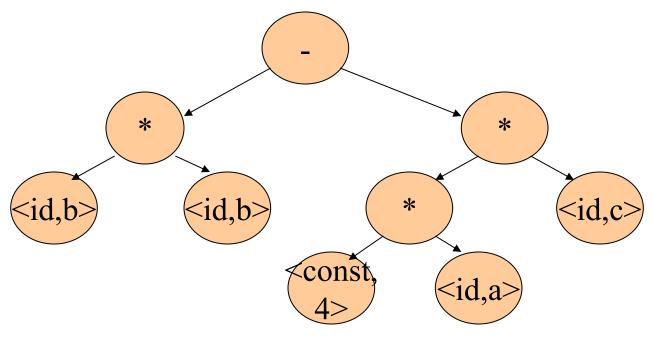
- Imposes a hierarchical structure on the token stream.
- This hierarchical structure is usually expressed by recursive rules.
- Context-free grammars formalise these recursive rules and guide syntax analysis.
- Example:

```
expression → expression '+' term | expression '-' term | term
term → term '*' factor | term '/' factor | factor
factor → identifier | constant | '(' expression ')'
(this grammar defines simple algebraic expressions)
```

Parsing: parse tree for b*b-4*a*c



AST for *b*b-4*a*c*



- An Abstract Syntax Tree (AST) is a more useful data structure for internal representation. It is a compressed version of the parse tree (summary of grammatical structure without details about its derivation)
- ASTs are one form of IR

Semantic Analysis (context handling)

• Collects context (semantic) information, checks for semantic errors, and annotates nodes of the tree with the results.

• Examples:

- type checking: report error if an operator is applied to an incompatible operand.
- check flow-of-controls.
- uniqueness or name-related checks.

Intermediate code generation

- Translate language-specific constructs in the AST into more general constructs.
- A criterion for the level of "generality": it should be straightforward to generate the target code from the intermediate representation chosen.
- Example of a form of IR (3-address code):

```
tmp1=4
tmp2=tmp1*a
tmp3=tmp2*c
tmp4=b*b
tmp5=tmp4-tmp3
```

Code Optimisation

- The goal is to improve the intermediate code and, thus, the effectiveness of code generation and the performance of the target code.
- Optimisations can range from trivial (e.g. constant folding) to highly sophisticated (e.g. in-lining).
- For example: replace the first two statements in the example of the previous slide with: tmp2=4*a
- Modern compilers perform such a range of optimisations, that one could argue for:



Code Generation Phase

- Map the AST onto a linear list of target machine instructions in a symbolic form:
 - Instruction selection: a pattern matching problem.
 - Register allocation: each value should be in a register when it is used (but there is only a limited number): NP-Complete problem.
 - Instruction scheduling: take advantage of multiple functional units: NP-Complete problem.
- Target, machine-specific properties may be used to optimise the code.
- Finally, machine code and associated information required by the Operating System are generated.

Some historical notes...

Emphasis of compiler construction research:

- 1945-1960: code generation
 - need to "prove" that high-level programming can produce efficient code ("automatic programming").
- 1960-1975: parsing
 - proliferation of programming languages
 - study of formal languages reveals powerful techniques.
- 1975-...: code generation and code optimisation

Knuth (1962) observed that "in this field there has been an unusual amount of parallel discovery of the same technique by people working independently"

Historical Notes:

the Move to Higher-Level Programming Languages

- Machine Languages (1st generation)
- Assembly Languages (2nd generation) early 1950s
- High-Level Languages (3rd generation) later 1950s
- 4th generation higher level languages (SQL, Postscript)
- 5th generation languages (logic based, eg, Prolog)
- Other classifications:
 - Imperative (how); declarative (what)
 - Object-oriented languages
 - Scripting languages

Finally...

Parts of a compiler can be generated automatically using generators based on formalisms. E.g.:

- Scanner generators: flex
- Parser generators: bison

Summary: the structure of a typical compiler was described.

Next time: Introduction to lexical analysis.

<u>Reading</u>: Aho2, Sections 1.2, 1.3; Aho1, pp. 1-24; Hunter, pp. 1-15 (try the exercises); Grune [rest of Chapter 1 up to Section 1.8] (try the exercises); Cooper & Torczon (1st edition), Sections 1.4, 1.5.