Intro to compilers

Based on end of Ch. 1 and start of Ch. 2 of textbook, plus a few additional references

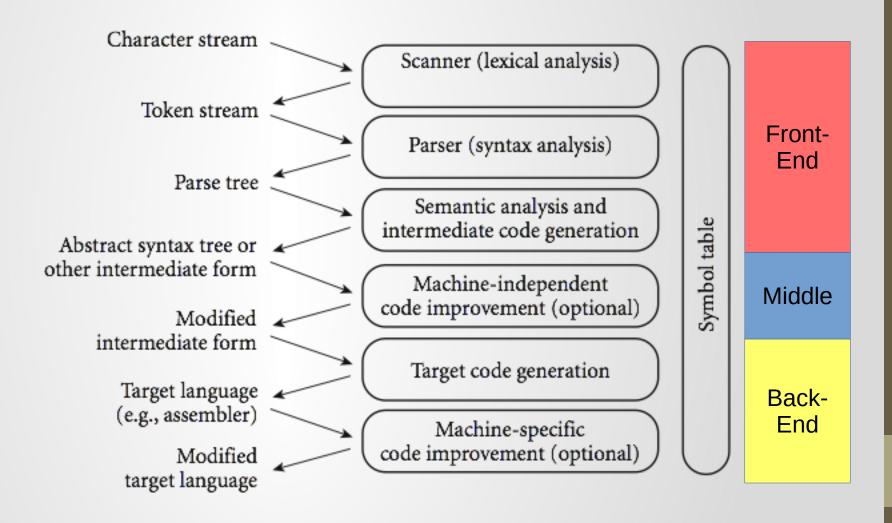
Compilation

- The process by which programming languages are turned into assembly or machine code
 - Take a moment to think about how cool this is

Compilers are translators, must understand language:

- Language tokens (lexical analysis/scanning)
- Grammar (syntactic analysis/parsing)
- Meaning (semantic analysis)
- Output: assembly, machine code, or some intermediate language with same semantics
 - (i.e. Java ->Bytecode)

Compilation phases



Compiler phases

- The first 3 phases are known as the "front end", where the goal is to figure out the meaning of the program
- Middle phase does machine-independent optimizations on an intermediate representation
- The last 2 are the "back end", and are used to construct an equivalent target program in the output language

These are split to make things independent:

- The middle and back end can be shared between different source languages
- If you want to write a new language, you only need to specify how the language should be interpreted

Phase 1: lexing/scanning

- Divides the program into "tokens", which are the smallest meaningful units; this saves time, since character-by-character processing is slow
- We can tune the scanner better if its job is simple;
 it also saves complexity (lots of it) for later stages
- You can design a parser to take characters instead of tokens as input, but it isn't pretty
- Typically, scanning is recognition of a regular language, via a deterministic finite automata (DFA)

Lexing Example

Input: A sequence of characters,

Output: A stream of tokens with types:

```
if ( x > 20 ) {
  z = x + 3.14;
}
```

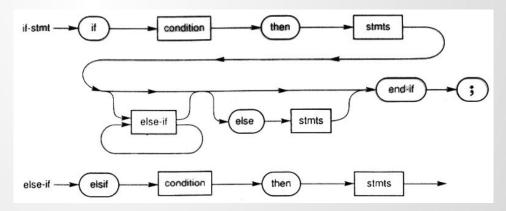
IF LPAREN ID:x GREATER INT:20 RPAREN LBRACE

ID:z ASSIGNMENT ID:x PLUS FLOAT:3.14

RBRACE

Phase 2: parsing

- **Parsing** is recognition of a context-free language, done via something called a push down automata (or PDA)
 - Parsing discovers the "context free" structure of the program
 - Informally, it finds the structure you can describe with syntax diagrams

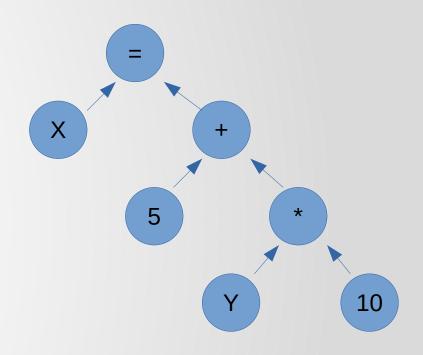


Parsing Example

Input: Token stream

Output: Parse Tree

$$x = 5 + (y * 10)$$



$$x = 5 + + 42 15 z$$

(syntax error)

Phase 3: semantic analysis

- Semantic analysis is the discovery of meaning in the program
 - The compiler actually does what is called STATIC semantic analysis. That's the meaning that can be figured out at compile time
 - Some things (e.g., array subscript out of bounds) can't be figured out until run time.
 Things like that are part of the program's DYNAMIC semantics

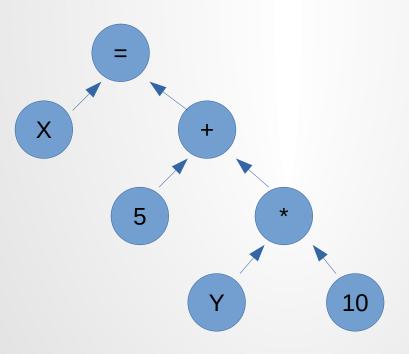
Semantic Analysis Example

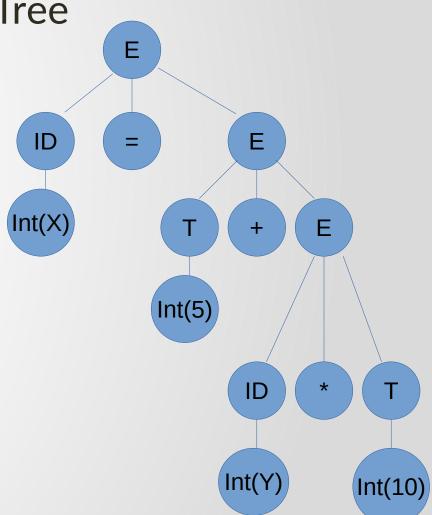
Input: Parse Tree

Output: Abstract Syntax Tree

(E = expression,

T = terminal)





Middle Phase: Machine-Independent Optimizations

- An *Intermediate form* (IF) is created after semantic analysis (*if* all checks pass)
 - IFs are often chosen for machine independence, ease of optimization, or compactness
 - Note: these are somewhat contradictory!
 - They often resemble machine code for some imaginary idealized machine; e.g. a stack machine, or a machine with arbitrarily many registers
 - Many compilers actually move the code through more than one IF

Machine-Independent Optimization Example

Liveness analysis / dead code removal

```
never_used = big_computation()
if( never_happens ) {
    x = y + z;
}
```

Common subexpression elimination

```
a = x + y;

b = x + y;
```

Constant elimination

```
x = 42 + 404;

x = 446;
```

Machine-Independent Optimization Example

Loop Optimizations – e.g. loop unrolling

Versus:

```
for ( int i = 0; i < 5; i++ ){
    a[i] = i;
}
```

i = 0;
a[i] = i;
i++;
a[i] = i;
i++;
a[i] = i;
i++;
a[i] = i;

Bottom phases

 Code generation phase produces assembly language or (sometime) machine language

Bottom phases (cont)

- Certain machine-specific optimizations (use of special instructions or addressing modes, etc.) may be performed during or after target code generation
- **Symbol table**: all phases rely on a symbol table that keeps track of all the identifiers in the program and what the compiler knows about them
 - This symbol table may be retained (in some form) for use by a debugger, even after compilation has completed

 Lexical and Syntax Analysis: back to our GCD Program (in C)

```
int main() {
  int i = getint(), j = getint();
  while (i != j) {
    if (i > j) i = i - j;
    else j = j - i;
  }
putint(i);
}
```

- Lexical and Syntax Analysis
 - GCD Program Tokens
 - Scanning (lexical analysis) groups characters into tokens, the smallest meaningful units of the program

```
int main ( ) {
int i = getint ( ) , j = getint ( ) ;
while ( i != j ) {
if ( i > j ) i = i - j ;
else j = j - i ;
}
putint ( i ) ;
}
```

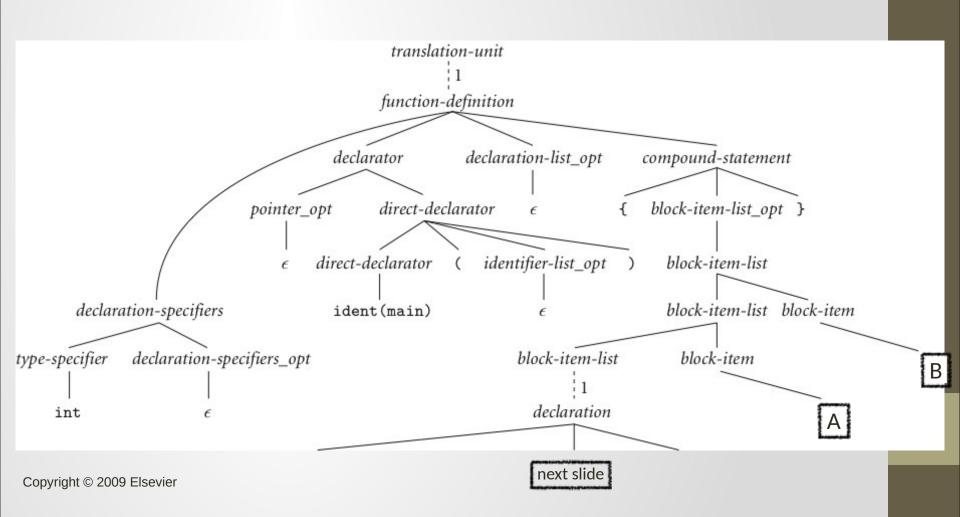
- Context-Free Grammar and Parsing
 - Parsing organizes tokens into a parse tree that represents higher-level constructs in terms of their constituents
 - Potentially recursive rules known as a context-free grammar define the ways in which these tokens can combine

- Context-Free Grammar and Parsing
 - Example (while loop in C)

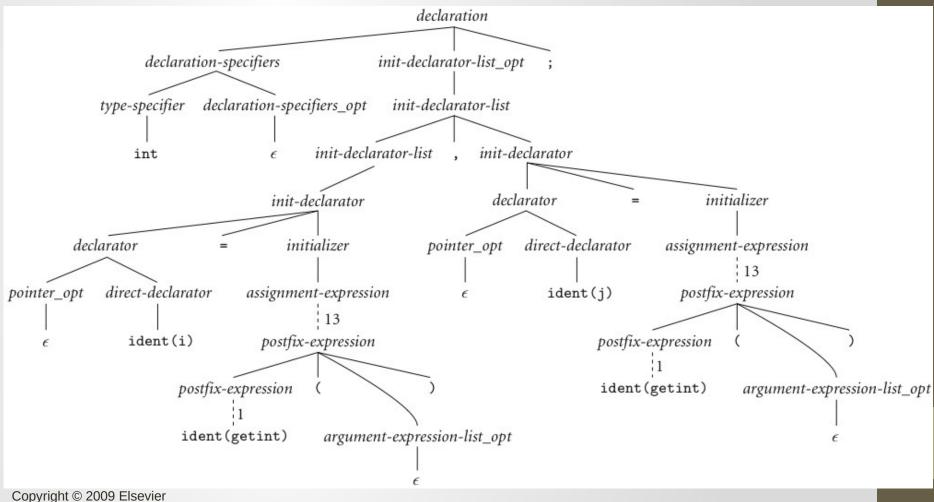
```
iteration-statement \rightarrow while (expression) statement
```

```
statement, in turn, is often a list enclosed in braces: statement \rightarrow compound\text{-}statement compound\text{-}statement \rightarrow \{ block\text{-}item\text{-}list opt } \} where block\text{-}item\text{-}list opt \rightarrow block\text{-}item\text{-}list or block\text{-}item\text{-}list opt \rightarrow \epsilon and block\text{-}item\text{-}list \rightarrow block\text{-}item block\text{-}item\text{-}list \rightarrow block\text{-}item block\text{-}item \rightarrow declaration block\text{-}item \rightarrow statement
```

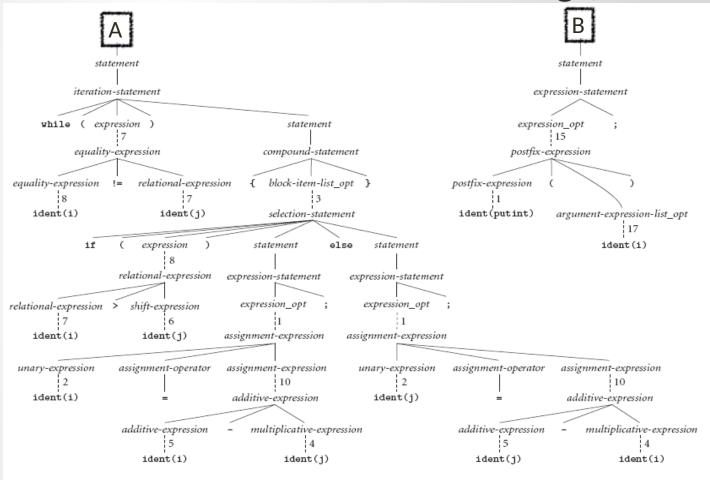
Example: Our GCD Program Parse Tree



Context-Free Grammar and Parsing (continued)



Context-Free Grammar and Parsing (continued)



Ch. 2 – a deeper look

- We'll take a deeper look at scanning and parsing, the two parts of the "front end" of this process
- Each has deeper ties to theoretical models of computation, and useful concepts like regular expressions
 - You may have seen these if you've done string manipulations.

Regular expressions

- A regular expression is defined (recursively) as:
 - A character
 - The empty string, ε
 - 2 regular expressions concatenated
 - 2 regular expressions connected by an "or", usually written x | y
 - 0 or more copies of a regular expression –
 written *, and called the Kleene star

Regular languages

- Regular languages are then the class of languages which can be described by a regular expression
- Example: L1 = 0*10*
- Another: $L2 = (1|0)^*$

More regular languages

• Exercise: Give the regular expression for the language of binary strings that begin with a 0 and end with a 1

 Exercise (a bit harder): Give the regular expression for the language of binary strings that start with a 0 and have odd length

A more realistic example

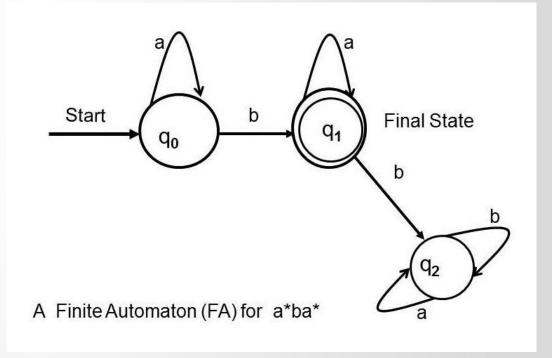
- Unsigned integers in Pascal:
 - Examples: 4, or 82.3, or 5.23e-26
- Formally:

Another view: DFAs

- Regular languages are also precisely the set of strings that can be accepted by a deterministic finite automata (DFA)
- Formally, a DFA is:
 - a set of states
 - an input alphabet
 - a start state
 - a set of accept states
 - a transition function: given a state and input, outputs another state

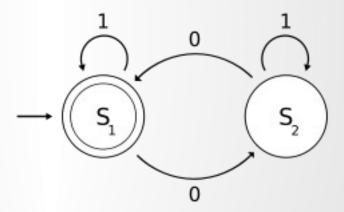
DFAs

- More often, we'll just draw a picture (like in graph theory)
- Example:



DFAs

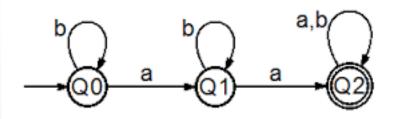
 What regular language does the following DFA accept?



DFA examples

What's the DFA for the regular language:
 1(0|1)*0

 What's the regular language accepted by this DFA?



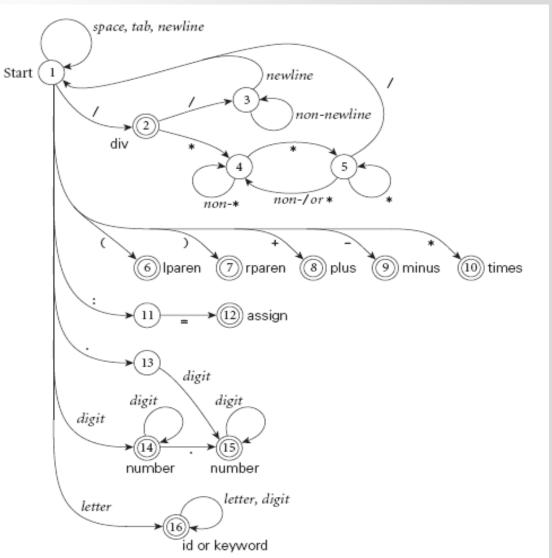
- Recall scanner is responsible for
 - tokenizing source
 - removing comments
 - (often) dealing with *pragmas* (i.e., significant comments)
 - saving text of identifiers, numbers, strings
 - saving source locations (file, line, column) for error messages

- Suppose we are building an ad-hoc (handwritten) scanner for Pascal:
 - We read the characters one at a time with look-ahead
- If it is one of the one-character tokens
 { () [] < > , ; = + etc }
 we announce that token
- If it is a ., we look at the next character
 - If that is a dot, we announce.
 - Otherwise, we announce . and reuse the look-

- If it is a <, we look at the next character
 - if that is a = we announce <=
 - otherwise, we announce < and reuse the lookahead, etc
- If it is a letter, we keep reading letters and digits and maybe underscores until we can't anymore
 - then we check to see if it is a reserve word

- If it is a digit, we keep reading until we find a non-digit
 - if that is not a . we announce an integer
 - otherwise, we keep looking for a real number
 - if the character after the . is not a digit we announce an integer and reuse the . and the look-ahead

 Pictorial representation of a scanner for calculator tokens, in the form of a finite automaton



Coding DFAs (scanners)

- That's all well and good but how to we program this stuff?
 - A bunch of if/switch/case statements
 - A table and driver (flex or other tools)
- Both have merits, and are described further in the book.
- We'll mainly use the second route in homework, simply because there are many good tools out there.

Scanners

- Writing a pure DFA as a set of nested case statements is a surprisingly useful programming technique
 - though it's often easier to use perl, awk, sed
 - for details see Figure 2.4 in text
- Table-driven DFA is what lex and scangen produce
 - lex (flex) in the form of C code this will be an upcoming homework
 - scangen in the form of numeric tables and a separate driver (for details see Figure 2.12)

Next week

- We'll see a bit more about DFAs, and introduce NFAs.
 - This is the rest of section 2.2, if you want to look ahead a bit.
- By the end of the week, we'll move to discussing one table-driven DFA, flex, and have the first programming assignment over it the week after.