

# CS251: Introduction to Language Processing

## Overview of Compiler Design

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## Note

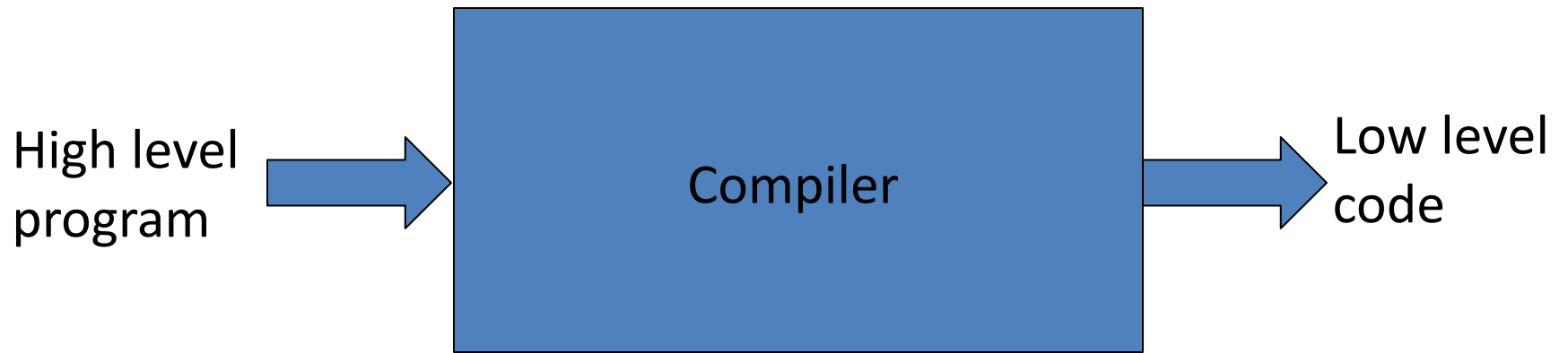
- *Throughout this course, I am preparing/using the lectures notes from various references.*

# Acknowledgement

- *References for today's slides:*
  - *lectures notes of Prof. Amey Karkare (Dept of CSE, IIT Kanpur)*
  - *lectures notes of late Prof. Sanjeev K Aggarwal (Dept of CSE, IIT Kanpur)*

# Compilers Introduction

- Translates from one representation of the program to another
- Typically from high level source code to low level machine code
- Source code is normally optimized for human readability
  - Expressive: matches our notion of languages
- Machine code is optimized for hardware
  - Redundancy is reduced
  - Information about the intent is lost



# Goals of translation

- Good compile **time** performance
- Good **performance** for the generated code
- Preserve **semantics**
- Generate **meaningful errors**

# How to translate?

- Direct translation is difficult. Why?
- Source code and machine code mismatch in level of abstraction
  - Variables vs Memory locations/registers
  - Functions vs jump/return
  - Parameter passing
  - structs
- Some languages are farther from machine code than others
  - For example, languages supporting Object Oriented Paradigm

# How to translate easily?

- Translate in **steps**. Each step handles a reasonably simple, logical, and well defined task
- Design a **series of program** representations
- Intermediate representations should be **amenable to program manipulation** of various kinds (type **checking, optimization, code generation** etc.)
- Representations become **more machine specific and less language specific** as the translation **proceeds**



# The first few steps

- The first few steps can be understood by analogies to how humans comprehend a natural language
- The first step is recognizing/known alphabets of a language. For example
  - English text consists of lower and upper case alphabets, digits, punctuations and white spaces
  - Written programs consist of characters from the ASCII characters set (normally 9-13, 32-126)

# The first few steps

- The next step to understand the sentence is recognizing words
  - How to recognize English words?
  - Words found in standard dictionaries
  - Dictionaries are updated regularly



ABOUT ▾ OXFORD GLOBAL LANGUAGES ▾ THE OED PRESS AND NEWS

December 2016 -

Around 500 new words, phrases, and senses have entered the *Oxford English Dictionary* this quarter, including *glam-ma*, *YouTube*, and *upstander*.

We have a selection of ~~release notes~~ this December, each of which takes a closer look at some of our additions. The last few years have seen the emergence of the word *Brexit*, and you can read more about the huge increase in the use of the word, and how we go about defining it, in [this article](#) by Craig Leyland,

# The first few steps

- How to recognize words in a programming language?
  - a dictionary (of keywords etc.)
  - rules for constructing words (identifiers, numbers etc.)
- This is called lexical analysis
- Recognizing words is not completely trivial. For example:

w hat ist his se nte nce?

# Lexical Analysis: Challenges

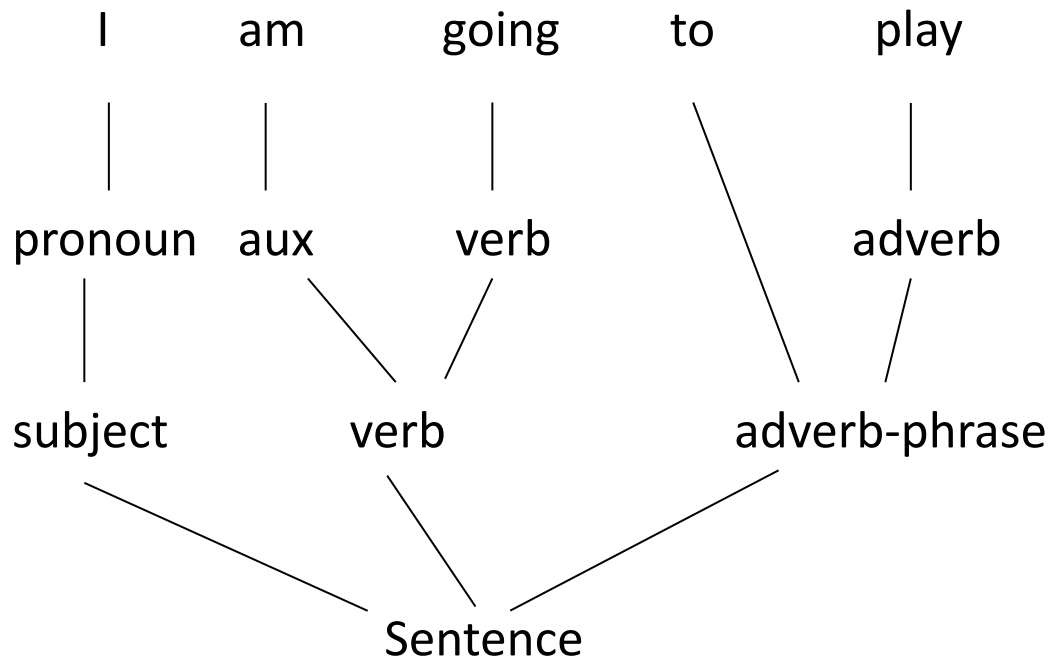
- We must know what the word separators are
- The language must define rules for breaking a sentence into a sequence of words.
- Normally white spaces and punctuations are word separators in languages.

# Lexical Analysis: Challenges

- In programming languages a character from a different class may also be treated as **word separator**.
- The **lexical analyzer** breaks a **sentence** into a **sequence of words** or **tokens**:
  - **If a == b then a = 1 ; else a = 2 ;**
  - Sequence of words (total how many words?)

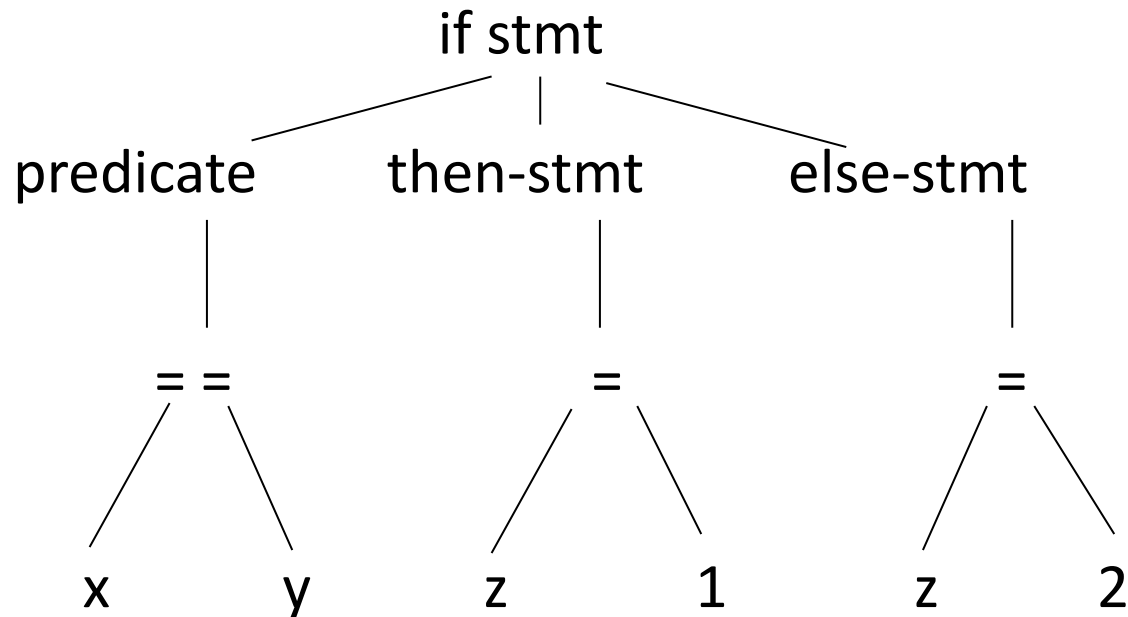
# The next step

- Once the words are understood, the next step is to understand the **structure** of the **sentence**
- The process is known as ***syntax checking*** or ***parsing***



# Parsing

- **Parsing** a program is exactly the same process as shown in previous slide.
- Consider an expression  
if x == y then z = 1 else z = 2



# Understanding the meaning

- Once the sentence structure is understood we try to understand the meaning of the sentence (semantic analysis)

- A challenging task

- Example:

Prateek said Nitin left his assignment at home

- What does his refer to? Prateek or Nitin?



# Understanding the meaning

- Worse case

Amit said Amit left his assignment at home

- Even worse

Amit said Amit left Amit's assignment at home

- How many **Amits** are there?  
Which one left the assignment?  
Whose assignment got left?

# Semantic Analysis

- Too hard for compilers. They do not have capabilities similar to human understanding
- However, compilers do perform analysis to understand the meaning and catch inconsistencies
- Programming languages define strict rules to avoid such ambiguities

```
{ int Amit = 3;  
    { int Amit = 4;  
        cout << Amit;  
    }  
}
```

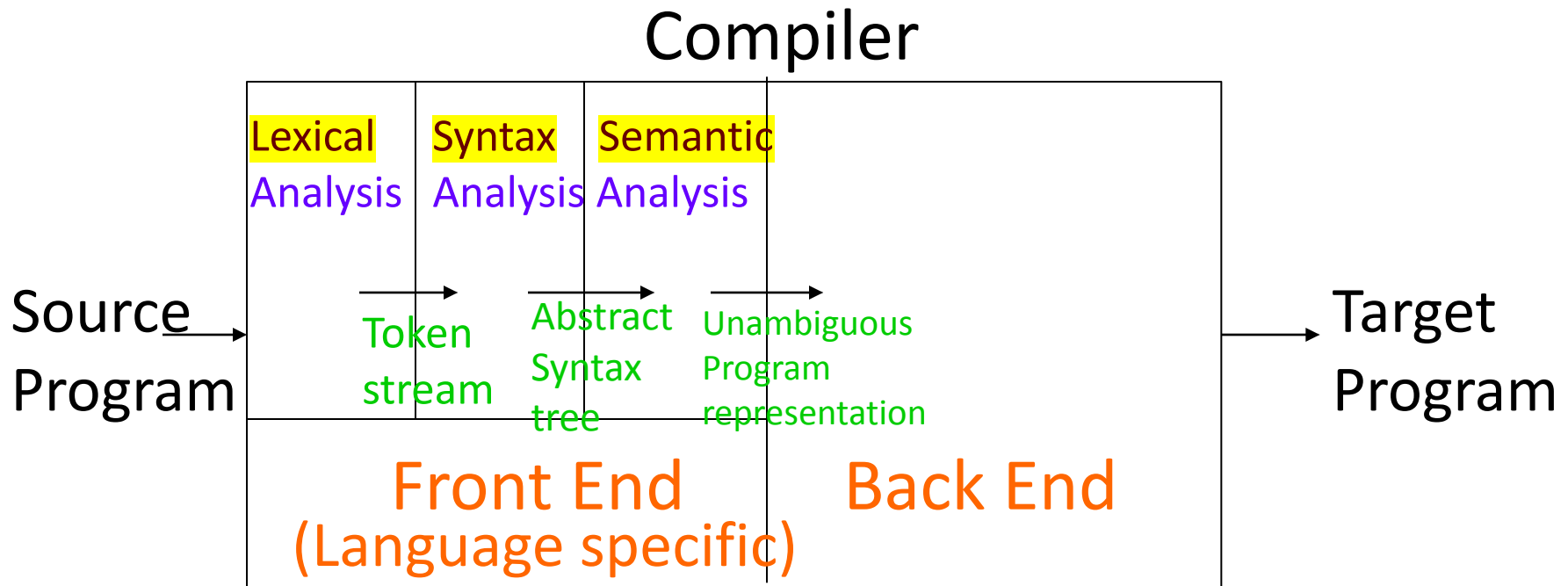
# More on Semantic Analysis

- Compilers perform many other checks besides variable bindings
- Type checking

Amit left her work at home

- There is a type mismatch between her and Amit. Presumably Amit is a male. And they are not the same person.

# Compiler structure once again





# Code Optimization

- Automatically modify programs so that they
  - Run faster
  - Use less resources (memory, registers, space, fewer fetches etc.)

# Code Optimization

- Some common optimizations
  - Common sub-expression elimination
  - Copy propagation
  - Dead code elimination
  - Code motion
  - Strength reduction
  - Constant folding
- Example:  $x = 15 * 3$  is transformed to  $x = 45$

# Example of Optimizations

A : assignment

M : multiplication

D : division

E : exponent

PI = 3.14159

Area = 4 \* PI \* R^2

Volume = (4/3) \* PI \* R^3

3A+4M+1D+2E

-----  
X = 3.14159 \* R \* R

Area = 4 \* X

Volume = 1.33 \* X \* R

3A+5M

-----  
Area = 4 \* 3.14159 \* R \* R

Volume = ( Area / 3 ) \* R

2A+4M+1D

-----  
Area = 12.56636 \* R \* R

Volume = ( Area / 3 ) \* R

2A+3M+1D

-----  
X = R \* R

Area = 12.56636 \* X

Volume = 4.18879 \* X \* R

3A+4M



# Code Generation

- Usually a two step process
  - Generate intermediate code from the semantic representation of the program
  - Generate machine code from the intermediate code
- The advantage is that each phase is simple
- Requires design of intermediate language

# Code Generation

- Most compilers perform translation between successive intermediate representations
- Intermediate languages are generally ordered in decreasing level of abstraction from highest (source) to lowest (machine)

# Code Generation

- Abstractions at the source level  
identifiers, operators, expressions, statements, conditionals, iteration, functions (user defined, system defined or libraries)
- Abstraction at the target level  
memory locations, registers, stack, opcodes, addressing modes, system libraries, interface to the operating systems
- Code generation is mapping from source level abstractions to target machine abstractions

# Code Generation

- Map identifiers to locations (memory/storage allocation)
- Explicate variable accesses (change identifier reference to relocatable/absolute address)
- Map source operators to opcodes or a sequence of opcodes

# Code Generation

- Convert conditionals and iterations to a test/jump or compare instructions
- Layout parameter passing protocols: locations for parameters, return values, layout of activations frame etc.
- Interface calls to library, runtime system, operating systems

# Post translation Optimizations

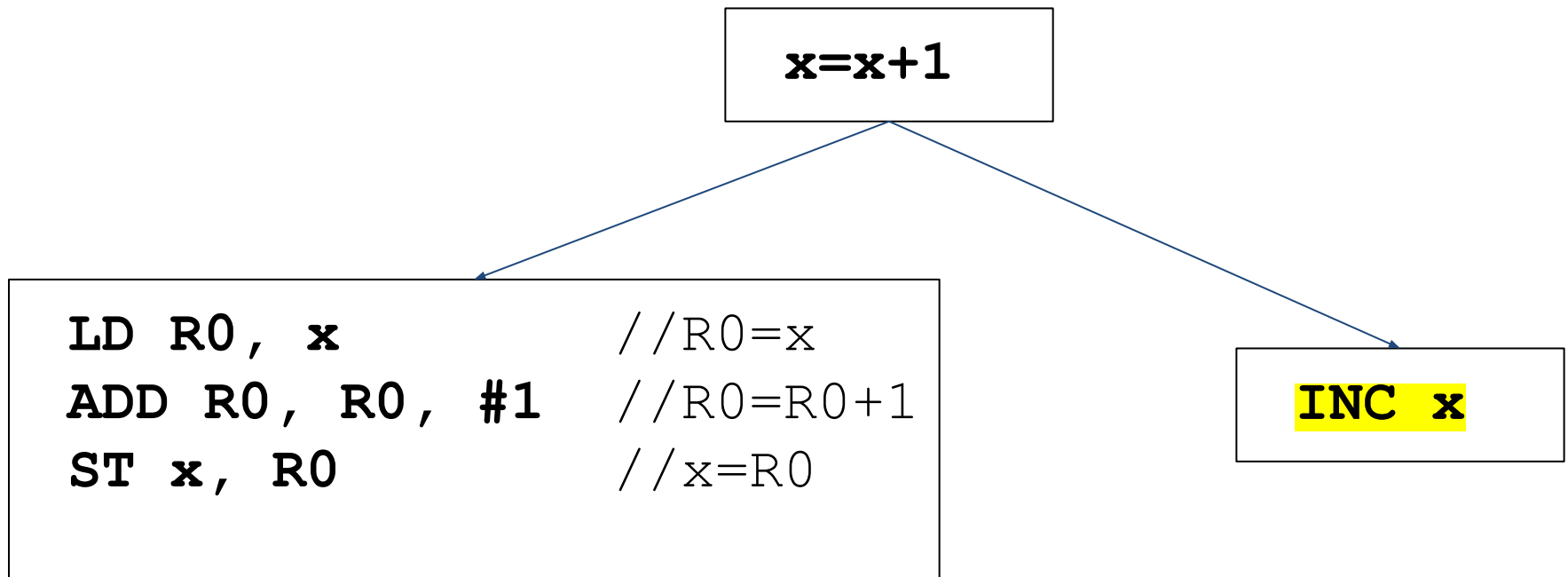
- Algebraic transformations and reordering
  - Remove/simplify operations like
    - Multiplication by 1
    - Multiplication by 0
    - Addition with 0
  - Reorder instructions based on
    - Commutative properties of operators
    - For example  $x+y$  is same as  $y+x$

# Post translation Optimizations

## Instruction selection

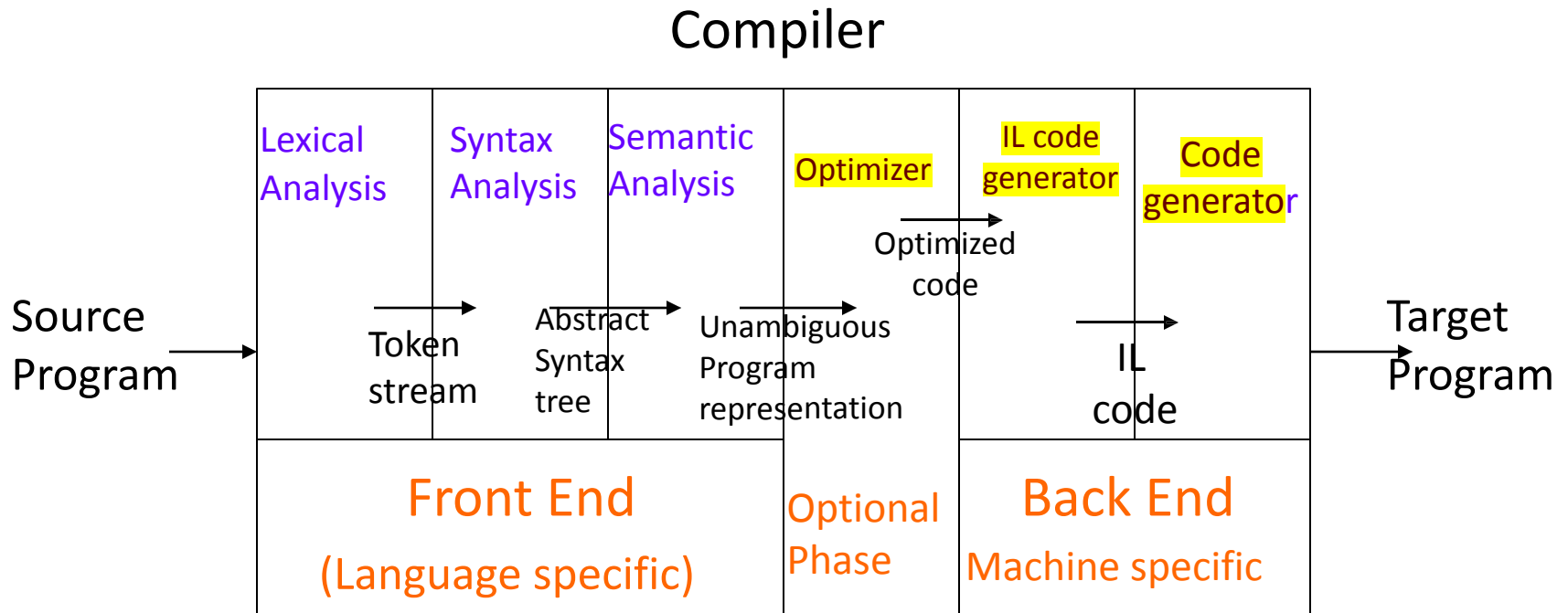
- Addressing mode selection
- Opcode selection
- Peephole optimization

# Instruction Selection





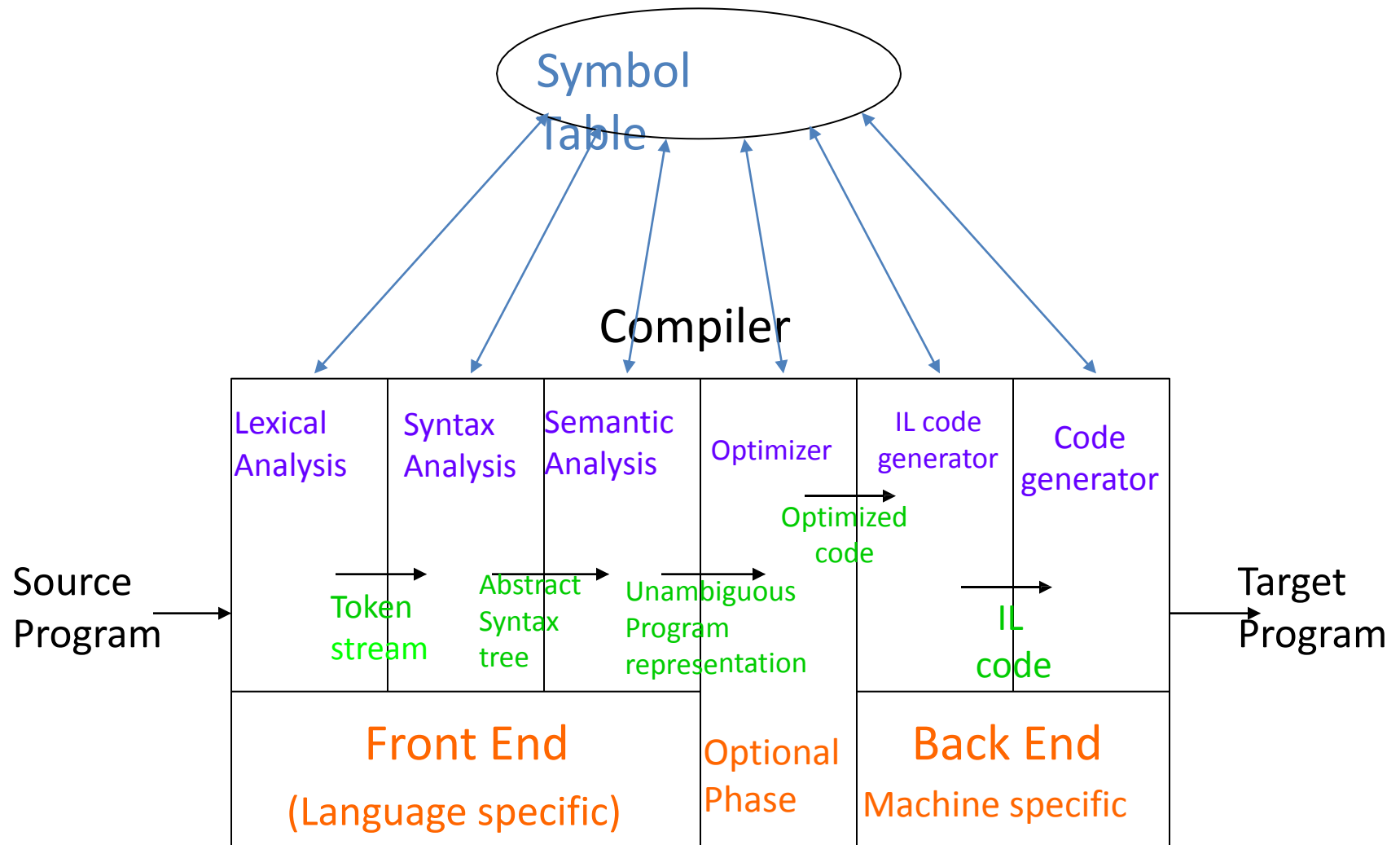
# Compiler structure



# Something is missing

- Information required about the **program variables** during compilation
  - Class of variable: **keyword, identifier** etc.
  - Type of variable: integer, float, array, function etc.
  - **Amount of storage required**
  - **Address in the memory**
  - **Scope information**
- **Location** to store this information
  - **Attributes with the variable**
  - At a **central repository** and **every phase refers** to the repository whenever information is required
  - Use a data structure called **symbol table**

# Final Compiler structure



# Advantages of the model

- Also known as Analysis-Synthesis model of compilation
  - Front end phases are known as analysis phases
  - Back end phases are known as synthesis phases
- Each phase has a well defined work
- Each phase handles a logical activity in the process of compilation

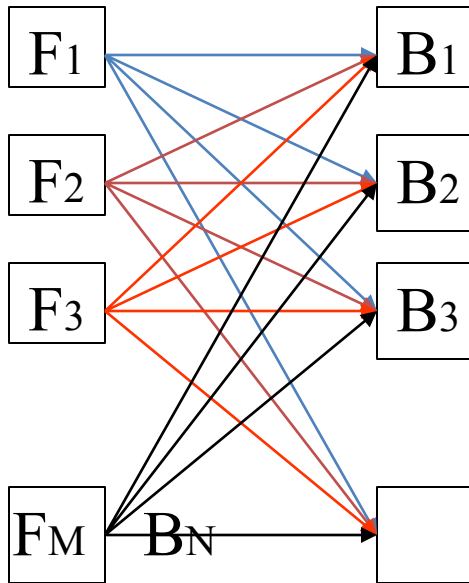
# Advantages of the model

- Compiler is re-targetable
- Source and machine independent code optimization is possible.
- Optimization phase can be inserted after the front and back end phases have been developed and deployed

# Issues in Compiler Design

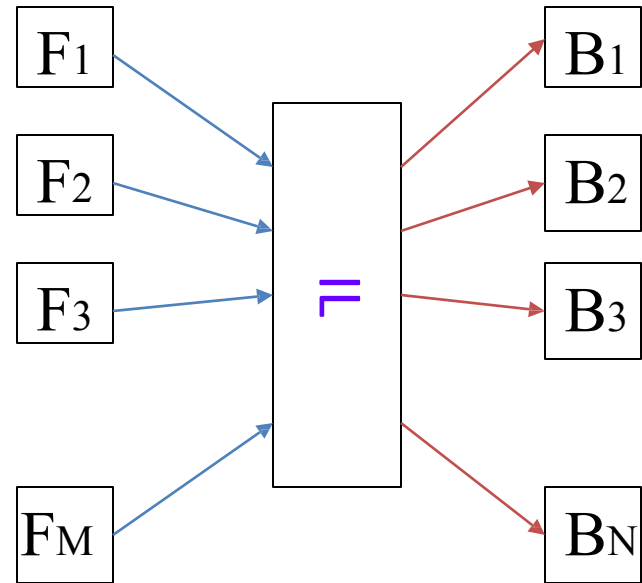
- Compilation appears to be very simple, but there are many pitfalls
- How are erroneous programs handled?
- Design of programming languages has a big impact on the complexity of the compiler
- $M \times N$  vs.  $M + N$  problem
  - Compilers are required for all the languages and all the machines
  - For  $M$  languages and  $N$  machines we need to develop  $M \times N$  compilers
  - However, there is lot of repetition of work because of similar activities in the front ends and back ends
  - Can we design only  $M$  front ends and  $N$  back ends, and somehow link them to get all  $M \times N$  compilers?

# M\*N vs M+N Problem



Requires  $M*N$  compilers

## Intermediate Language



Requires M front ends  
And N back ends

# Universal Intermediate Language

- Impossible to design a single intermediate language to accommodate all programming languages
  - Mythical universal intermediate language sought since mid 1950s (Aho, Sethi, Ullman)
- However, common IRs for *similar languages*, and *similar machines* have been designed, and are used for compiler development



# Compilers of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century

- Overall structure of almost all the compilers is similar to the structure we have discussed
- The proportions of the effort have changed since the early days of compilation
- Earlier front end phases were the most complex and expensive parts.
- Today back end phases and optimization dominate all other phases. Front end phases are typically a smaller fraction of the total time