

Lecture 16

EECS 483: COMPILER CONSTRUCTION

Announcements

- Midterm
 - Grades will be released after we review the results on Wednesday's class (3/20).
- HW4: OAT v.1.0
 - Parsing & translation to LLVM IR
 - Helps to start early!
 - **Due: Tuesday, March 26th**

Personal Announcement

- My wife and I are having a baby
 - Due date: March 30, but could be any day now
 - We will have guest lectures (by our GSI Eric or a guest professor) for at least 4 lectures after the baby comes.
 - I will have my regularly scheduled office hours remote only, will not be available for scheduled office hours.

Implementing First-Class Functions

- First attempt: Functions as Code
 - Represent a function value as its code
 - What about *local function definitions*?
 - `let f = fun x -> fun y -> x + y`
 - Every time we call `f 0`, `f 5`, `f 256`, we get a *different* function
 - In a substitution-based interpreter, we substitute a value in and get a different term each time we call the function.
 - Compilation
 - Infeasible to implement all of these possible functions statically in memory, impossible if the domain of the function is infinite!
 - Requires *runtime code generation*, which itself has high runtime overhead.
 - Usually not used for arbitrary first class functions, only in specialized situations

Implementing First-Class Functions

- Closures
 - Consider
 - `let f = fun x -> fun y -> x + y`
 - Each function `f 0`, `f 5`, `f 256`,... is implemented by substitution:
 - `(fun y -> x + y){ 0 / x }`
 - `(fun y -> x + y){ 5 / x }`
 - `(fun y -> 256 + y){ 256 / x }`
 - Idea: represent a first-class function as a ***pair*** of
 - A piece of code with **free** variables
 - An **environment** that provides all of the values of the free variables
 - In compilation
 - The code with free variables can be a code pointer to code that takes the environment as an argument
 - `fun (env, y) -> env.x + y`
 - The environment can be implemented in multiple ways
 - Array: fast access in the function
 - Linked list: more sharing between different closures

See fun.ml, cc.ml from lec15.zip

CLOSURES AND CLOSURE CONVERSION

Closure Conversion Summary

- A **closure** is a pair of an environment and a code pointer
 - the environment is a map data structure binding variables to values
 - environment could just be a list of the values (with known indices)
- Building a closure value:
 - code pointer is a function that takes an extra argument for the environment: $A \rightarrow B$ becomes $(\text{Env} * A \rightarrow B)$
 - body of the closure “projects out” then variables from the environment
 - creates the environment map by bundling the free variables
- Applying a closure:
 - project out the environment, invoke the function (pointer) with the environment and its “real” argument
- Hoisting:
 - Once closure converted, all functions can be lifted to the top level



Scope, Types, and Context

SEMANTIC ANALYSIS

Compilation in a Nutshell

Source Code

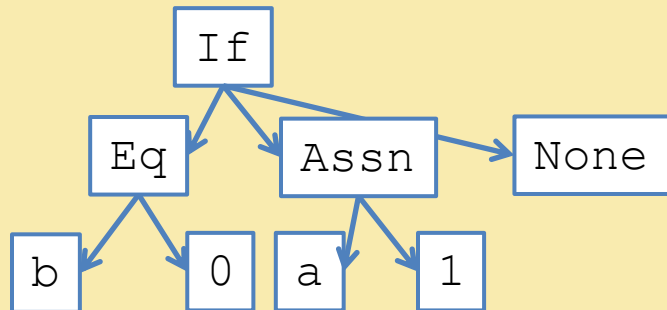
(Character stream)

```
if (b == 0) { a = 1; }
```

Token stream:

if	(b	==	0)	{	a	=	0	;	}
----	---	---	----	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Abstract Syntax Tree:



Assembly Code

```
11: cmpq %eax, $0
   jeq 12
   jmp 13
12:
...
```

Lexical Analysis

Parsing

Analysis & Transformation

Backend

Intermediate code:

```
11: %cnd = icmp eq i64 %b, 0
   br i1 %cnd, label %12, label %13
12: store i64* %a, 1
   br label %13
13:
```

Most of the Remainder of the Course

Source Code

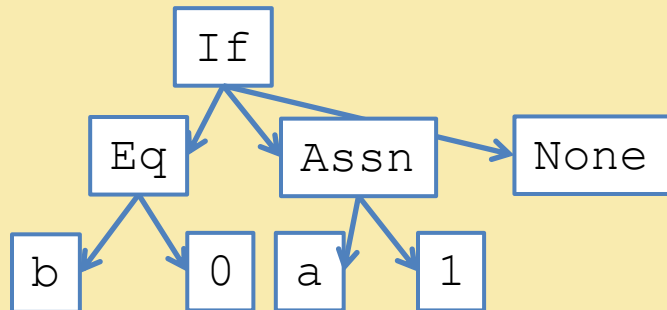
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```

Variable Scoping

- Consider the problem of determining whether a programmer-declared variable is in scope.
- Issues:
 - Which variables are available at a given point in the program?
 - Shadowing – is it permissible to re-use the same identifier, or is it an error?
- Example: The following program is syntactically correct but not well-formed. (y and q are used without being defined anywhere)

```
int fact(int x) {  
    var acc = 1;  
    while (x > 0) {  
        acc = acc * y;  
        x = q - 1;  
    }  
    return acc;  
}
```

Q: Can we solve this problem by changing the parser to rule out such programs?

Static Program Analysis

- Static program analysis is analysis of a program at compile-time
- Used for two main purposes in the compiler:
 - Last stage of the frontend: “Type checking” or “Semantic Analysis”
 - Not every program that passes parsing is valid
 - `int main() { return x; }`
 - `int main() { return “hello world”; }`
 - If the type checker fails, the program is rejected, like a parse error
 - After the program passes the frontend, we consider it well-formed and will compile it.
 - During optimization: “static analysis”
 - We can do more optimizations if we know more about the program
 - Are these equivalent programs?
 - `int main() { int y = f(); return 0; }`
 - `int main() { return 0; }`
 - We can optimize the first to the second if we establish that `f` is side-effect free.
 - Since they take place after the frontend, the analysis never rejects the program
- Next few weeks: type checking, after that optimization and analysis

Type Checking as Grammar

	Specification	Implementation
Lexing	Regular Expressions	DFA
Parsing	CFG LL(1) grammars LR(1) grammars	Pushdown automata Recursive descent Shift/reduce parser
Type checking	Inference rules	Manual recursive descent

Inference Rules

- We can read a judgment $G \vdash e$ as
“the expression e is well scoped and has free variables in G ”
- For any environment G , expression e , and statements s_1, s_2 .

$$G \vdash \text{if } (e) s_1 \text{ else } s_2$$

holds if $G \vdash e$ and $G \vdash s_1$ and $G \vdash s_2$ all hold.

- More succinctly: we summarize these constraints as an *inference rule*:

Premises	$G \vdash e$	$G \vdash s_1$	$G \vdash s_2$
Conclusion	$G \vdash \text{if } (e) s_1 \text{ else } s_2$		

- Such a rule can be used for *any* substitution of the syntactic metavariables G, e, s_1 and s_2 .

Judgments

- A *judgment* is a (meta-syntactic) notation that *names* a relation among one or more sets.
 - The sets are usually built from object-language syntax elements and other “math” sets (e.g., integers, natural numbers, etc.)
 - We usually describe them using metavariables that range over the sets.
 - Often use domain-specific notation to ease reading.
 - The meaning of judgments, *i.e.*, which sets they represent, is defined by (collections of) inference rules
- Example: When we say “ $G \vdash e$ is a judgment where G is a context of variables and e is a term, defined by these [...] inference rules” that is shorthand for this “math speak”:
 - Let Var be the set of all (syntactic) variables
 - Let Exp be the set $\{e \mid e \text{ is a term of the untyped lambda calculus}\}$
 - Let $\mathcal{P}(\text{Var})$ be the (finite) powerset of variables (set of all finite sets)
 - Define $\text{well-scoped} \subseteq (\mathcal{P}(\text{Var}), \text{Exp})$ to be a relation satisfying the properties defined by the associated inference rules [...]
 - Then “ $G \vdash e$ ” is notation that means that $(G, e) \in \text{well-scoped}$

Scope-Checking Lambda Calculus

- Consider how to identify “well-scoped” lambda calculus terms
 - Given: G , a set of variable identifiers, e , a term of the lambda calculus
 - Judgment*: $G \vdash e$ “the free variables of e are included in G ”

$$\frac{x \in G}{G \vdash x}$$

“the variable x is free, but in scope”

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 \quad G \vdash e_2}{G \vdash e_1 e_2}$$

“ G contains the free variables of e_1 and e_2 ”

$$\frac{G \cup \{x\} \vdash e}{G \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e}$$

“ x is available in the function body e ”

Scope-checking Code

- Compare the OCaml code to the inference rules:
 - structural recursion over syntax
 - the check either “succeeds” or “fails”

```
let rec scope_check (g:VarSet.t) (e:exp) : unit =  
  begin match e with  
  | Var x -> if VarSet.member x g then () else failwith (x ^ "not in scope")  
  | App(e1, e2) -> ignore (scope_check g e1); scope_check g e2  
  | Fun(x, e) -> scope_check (VarSet.union g (VarSet.singleton x)) e  
  end
```

$$\frac{x \in G}{G \vdash x}$$

VAR

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 \quad G \vdash e_2}{G \vdash e_1 e_2}$$

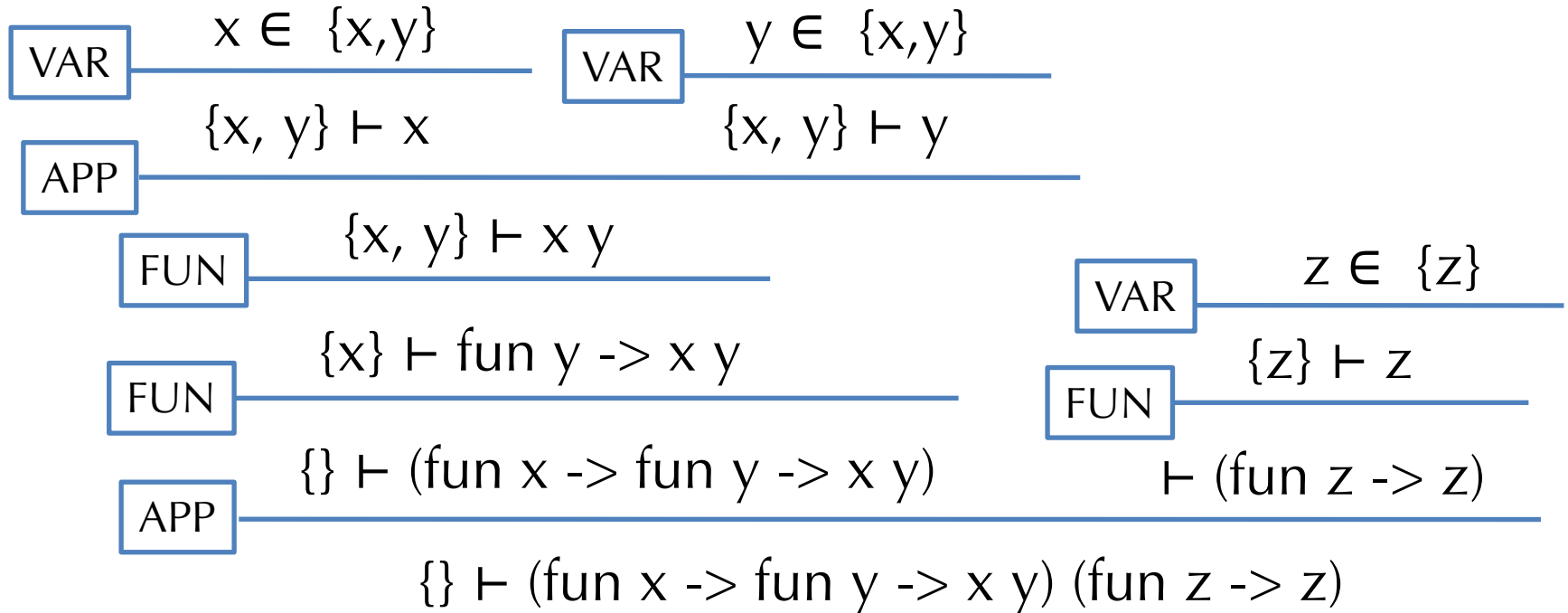
APP

$$\frac{G \cup \{x\} \vdash e}{G \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e}$$

FUN

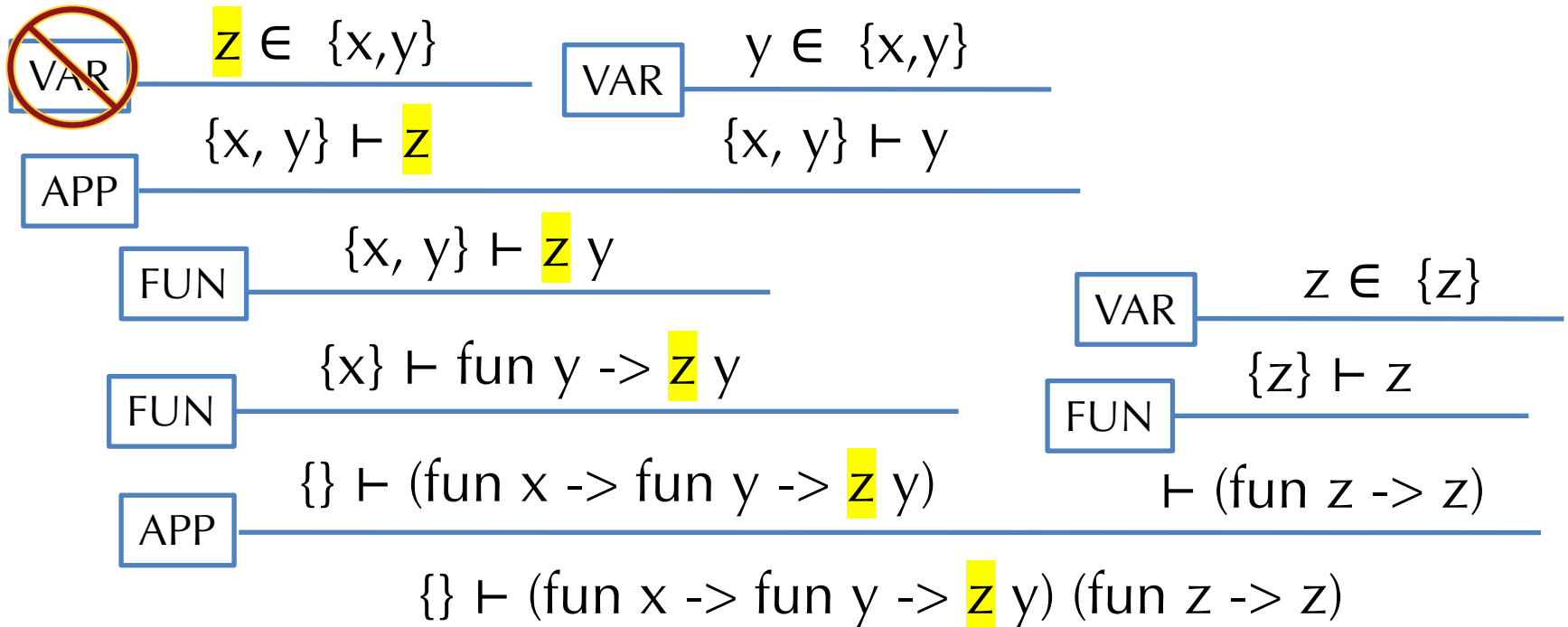
- The inference rules are a *specification* of the intended behavior of this scope checking code.
 - they don't specify the order in which the premises are checked

Example Derivation Tree



- Note: the OCaml function `scope_check` verifies the existence of this tree. The structure of the recursive calls when running `scope_check` is the same shape as this tree!
- Note that $x \in E$ is implemented by the function `VarSet.mem`

Example Failed Derivation



- This program is *not* well scoped
 - The variable z is not bound in the body of the left function.
 - The typing derivation fails because the VAR rule cannot succeed
 - (The other parts of the derivation are OK, though!)

Uses of the inference rules

- We can do proofs by induction on the structure of the derivation.
- For example:

Lemma: If $G \vdash e$ then $\text{fv}(e) \subseteq G$.

Proof.

By induction on the derivation that $G \vdash e$.

- case: VAR then we have $e = x$ (for some variable x) and $x \in G$. But $\text{fv}(e) = \text{fv}(x) = \{x\}$, but then $\{x\} \subseteq G$.

$$\frac{x \in G}{G \vdash x}$$

- case: APP then we have $e = e_1 e_2$ (for some $e_1 e_2$) and, by induction, we have $\text{fv}(e_1) \subseteq G$ and $\text{fv}(e_2) \subseteq G$, so $\text{fv}(e_1 e_2) = \text{fv}(e_1) \cup \text{fv}(e_2) \subseteq G$

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 \quad G \vdash e_2}{G \vdash e_1 e_2}$$

- case: FUN then we have $e = (\text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1)$ for some x, e_1 and, by induction, we have $\text{fv}(e_1) \subseteq G \cup \{x\}$, but then we also have $\text{fv}(\text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1) = \text{fv}(e_1) \setminus \{x\} \subseteq ((G \cup \{x\}) \setminus \{x\}) \subseteq G$

$$\frac{G \cup \{x\} \vdash e_1}{G \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{fv}(x) &= \{x\} \\ \text{fv}(\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{exp}) &= \text{fv}(\text{exp}) \setminus \{x\} \quad (\text{'x' is a bound in exp}) \\ \text{fv}(\text{exp}_1 \text{ exp}_2) &= \text{fv}(\text{exp}_1) \cup \text{fv}(\text{exp}_2) \end{aligned}$$



See tc.ml

STATICALLY RULING OUT PARTIALITY: TYPE CHECKING

Adding Integers to Lambda Calculus

exp ::=
| ...
| n *constant integers*
| exp₁ + exp₂ *binary arithmetic operation*

val ::=
| fun x -> exp *functions are values*
| n *integers are values*

n{v/x} = n *constants have no free vars.*
(e₁ + e₂){v/x} = (e₁{v/x} + e₂{v/x}) *substitute everywhere*

exp₁ ↓ n₁ exp₂ ↓ n₂

exp₁ + exp₂ ↓ (n₁ [[+]] n₂)

↙ ↘

Object-level '+' Meta-level '+'

NOTE: there are no rules for the case where exp₁ or exp₂ evaluate to functions! The semantics is *undefined* in those cases.

Type Checking / Static Analysis

- Recall the interpreter from the Eval3 module:

```
let rec eval env e =
```

```
  match e with
```

```
  | ...
```

```
  | Add (e1, e2) ->
```

```
    (match (eval env e1, eval env e2) with
```

```
      | (IntV i1, IntV i2) -> IntV (i1 + i2)
```

```
      | _ -> failwith "tried to add non-integers")
```

```
  | ...
```

- The interpreter might fail at runtime.
 - Not all operations are defined for all values (e.g., $3/0$, $3 + \text{true}$, ...)
- A compiler can't generate sensible code for this case.
 - A naïve implementation might “add” an integer and a function pointer

Type Judgments

- In the judgment: $E \vdash e : t$
 - E is a *typing environment* or a *type context*
 - E maps variables to types. It is just a set of bindings of the form:
 $x_1 : t_1, x_2 : t_2, \dots, x_n : t_n$
- For example: $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash \text{if } (b) \ 3 \text{ else } x : \text{int}$
- What do we need to know to decide whether “if (b) 3 else x” has type int in the environment $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool}$?
 - b must be a bool i.e. $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash b : \text{bool}$
 - 3 must be an int i.e. $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash 3 : \text{int}$
 - x must be an int i.e. $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash x : \text{int}$

Simply-typed Lambda Calculus

- For the language in “tc.ml” we have five inference rules:

INT

$$\frac{}{E \vdash i : \text{int}}$$

VAR

$$x : T \in E$$
$$\frac{}{E \vdash x : T}$$

ADD

$$E \vdash e_1 : \text{int} \quad E \vdash e_2 : \text{int}$$
$$\frac{}{E \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int}}$$

FUN

$$E, x : T \vdash e : S$$
$$\frac{}{E \vdash \text{fun } (x:T) \rightarrow e : T \rightarrow S}$$

APP

$$E \vdash e_1 : T \rightarrow S \quad E \vdash e_2 : T$$
$$\frac{}{E \vdash e_1 e_2 : S}$$

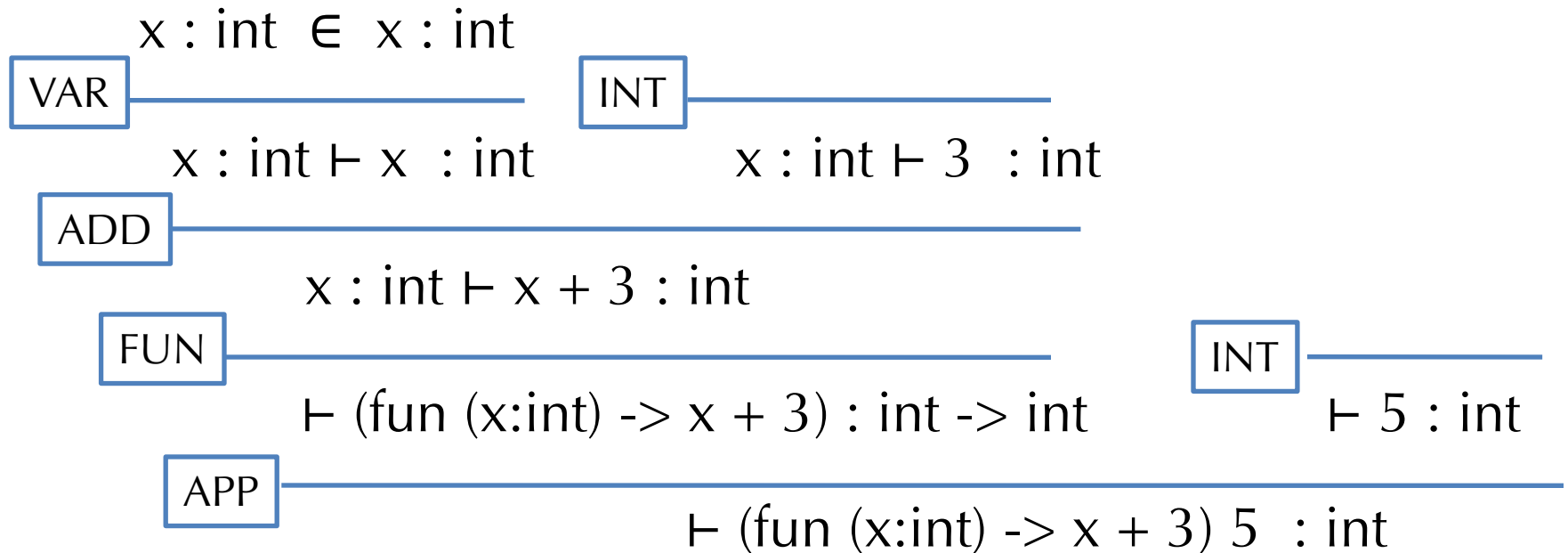
- Note how these rules correspond to the code.

Type Checking Derivations

- A *derivation* or *proof tree* has (instances of) judgments as its nodes and edges that connect premises to a conclusion according to an inference rule.
- Leaves of the tree are *axioms* (i.e. rules with no premises)
 - Example: the INT rule is an axiom
- Goal of the typechecker: verify that such a tree exists.
- Example: Find a tree for the following program using the inference rules on the previous slide:

$\vdash (\text{fun } (x:\text{int}) \rightarrow x + 3) \ 5 \ : \text{int}$

Example Derivation Tree



- Note: the OCaml function `typecheck` verifies the existence of this tree. The structure of the recursive calls when running `typecheck` is the same shape as this tree!
- Note that $x : \text{int} \in E$ is implemented by the function `lookup`

Notes about this Typechecker

- The interpreter evaluates the body of a function only when it's applied.
- The typechecker always checks the body of the function
 - even if it's never applied
 - We *assume* the input has some type (say t_1) and reflect this in the type of the function ($t_1 \rightarrow t_2$).
- Dually, at a call site ($e_1 \ e_2$), we don't know what *closure* we're going to get.
 - But we can calculate e_1 's type, check that e_2 is an argument of the right type, and determine what type e_1 will return.
- Question: Why is this an approximation?
- Question: What if `well_typed` always returns false?