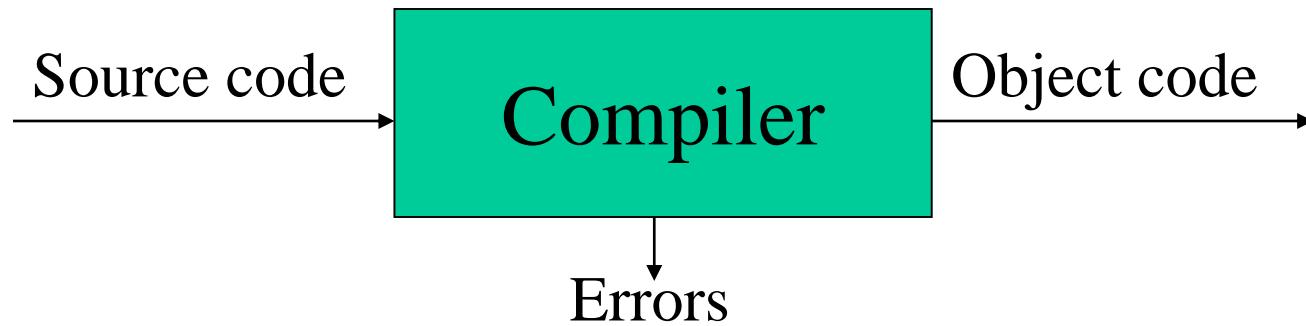


# Overview of Compilers



(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.

# Recap- What are Compilers?

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

# Goals of translation

- **Correctness**
  - A very important issue !!
  - To prove correctness is tedious
  - Correctness has an implication on the development cost.
- **Performance**
  - Good compile time performance
  - Good performance for the generated code
- **Maintainable code**

# 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?

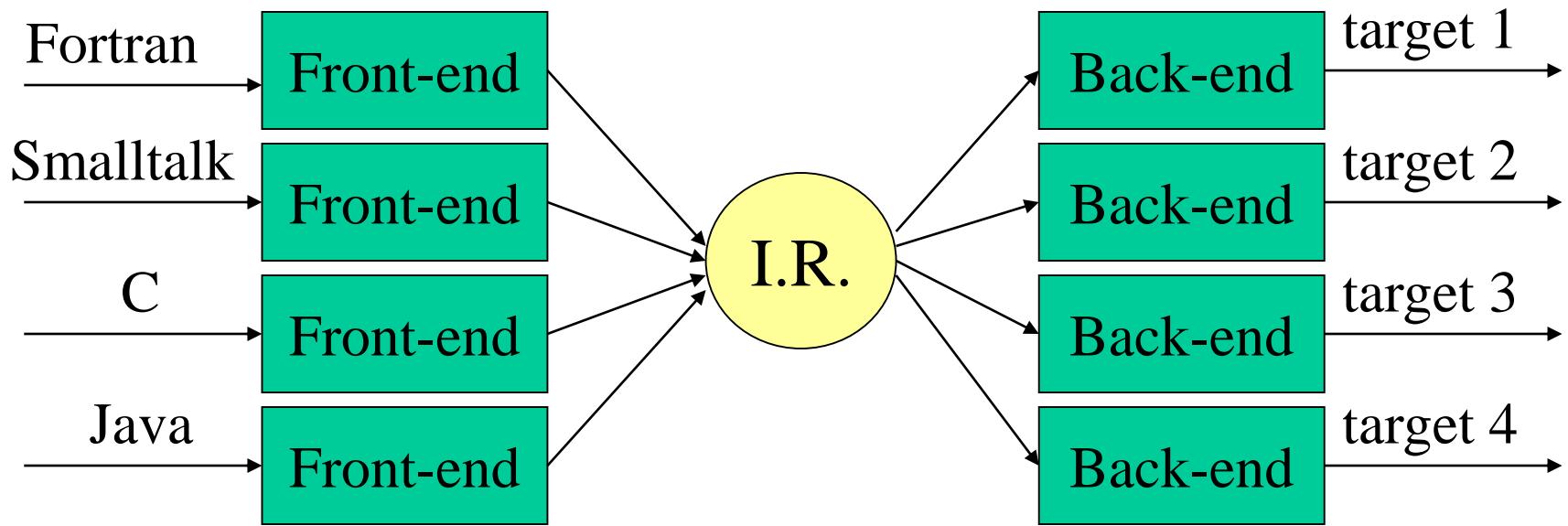
- **Translate in steps.**
  - Each step handles a reasonably simple, **logical**, and **well defined task**
- Design a **series of program representations**
- **Intermediate representations** should be amenable to program manipulation of various kinds (*type checking, optimization, code generation* etc).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

# Conceptual Structure: Two major phases



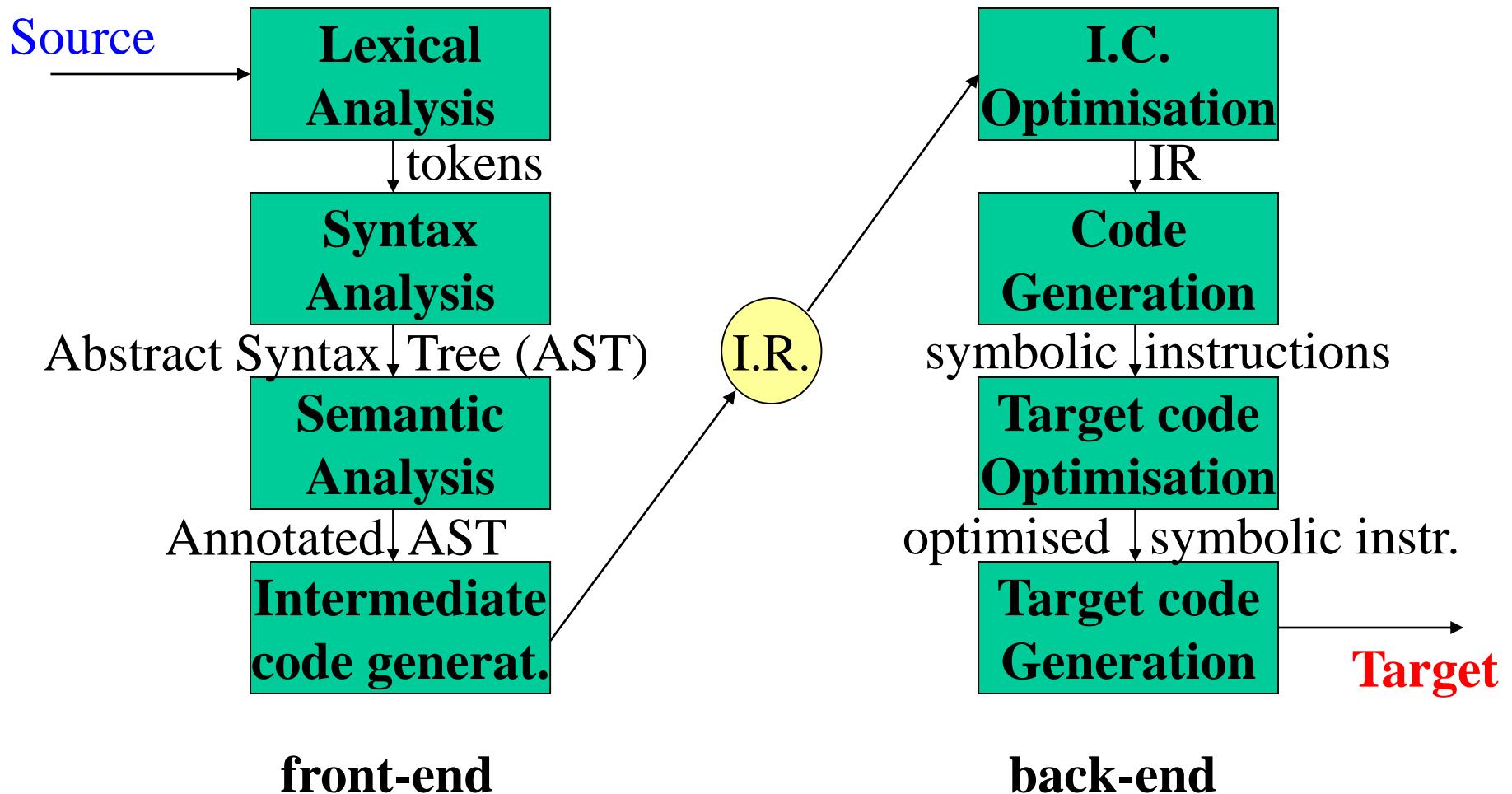
- **Front-end** performs the **analysis** of the source language:
  - Recognises legal and illegal programs and reports errors.
  - “understands” the input program and collects its semantics in an IR.
  - Produces IR and shapes the code for the back-end.
  - Much can be automated.
- **Back-end** does the target language **synthesis**:
  - Chooses instructions to implement each IR operation.
  - Translates IR into target code.

# $m \times n$ 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 **back-end**

# General Structure of a compiler



# 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/knowing alphabets of a language.**  
For example
  - English text consists of lower and upper case alphabets, digits, punctuations and white spaces
- The next step to understand the sentence is **recognizing words**
  - How to recognize English words?
  - Words found in standard dictionaries
  - Dictionaries are updated regularly

# Recognizing words in a programming language

- 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.
- In programming languages a **character from a different class** may also be treated as word separator.

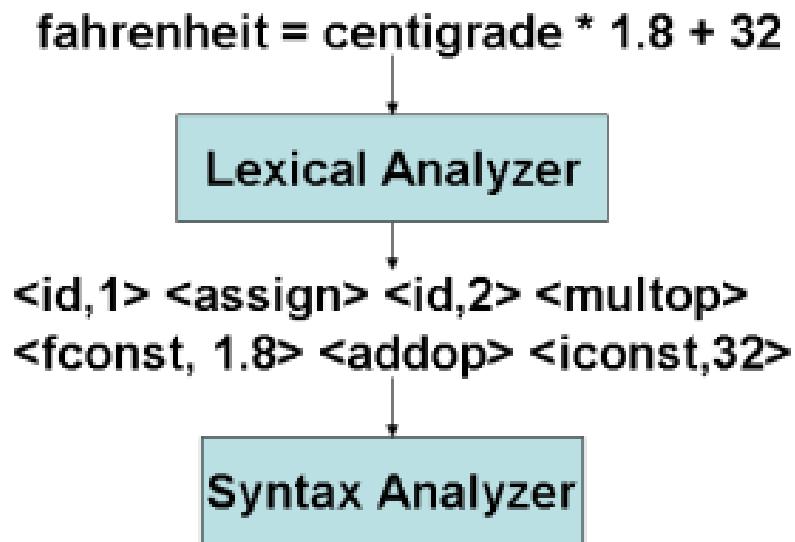
# Lexical Analysis (Scanning)

- **Reads characters** in the source program and **groups them into words** (basic unit of syntax)
- 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 14 words)  
`if a == b then a = 1 ; else a = 2 ;`
- Lexical analysis eliminates white space, etc...

# 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:
  - $\langle type, lexeme \rangle$  or  $\langle token\_class, attribute \rangle$
  - E.g.: **a=b+c** becomes  $\langle id, \mathbf{a} \rangle \langle =, \rangle \langle id, \mathbf{b} \rangle \langle +, \rangle \langle id, \mathbf{c} \rangle$

# Lexical Analysis

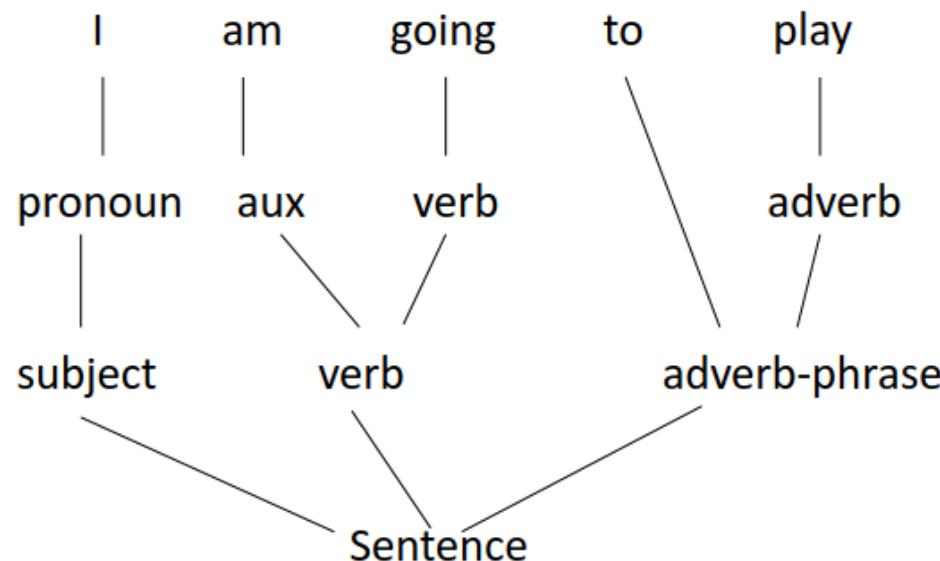


# Lexical Analysis

- LA can be generated automatically from regular expression specifications
  - LEX and Flex are two such tools

# The next step

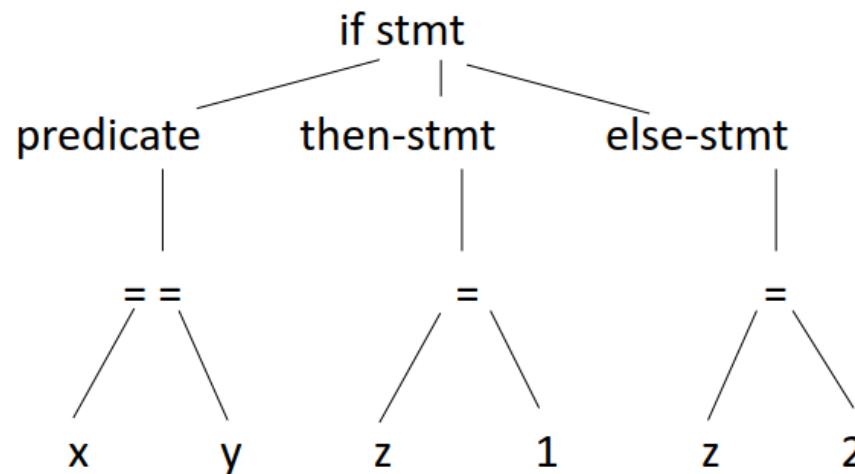
- Once the words are understood, the next step is to understand the structure of the sentence
- The process is known as **syntax checking or parsing**



# 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



# Parsing (Syntactic Analysis)

- 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.
- Syntax analyzers (parsers) **can be generated automatically from several variants of context-free grammar specifications**
  - E.g.: **ANTLR** (for LL(1)), **YACC** and **Bison** (for LALR(1)) are such tools
- Example:

**expression** → expression '+' term | expression '-' term | term

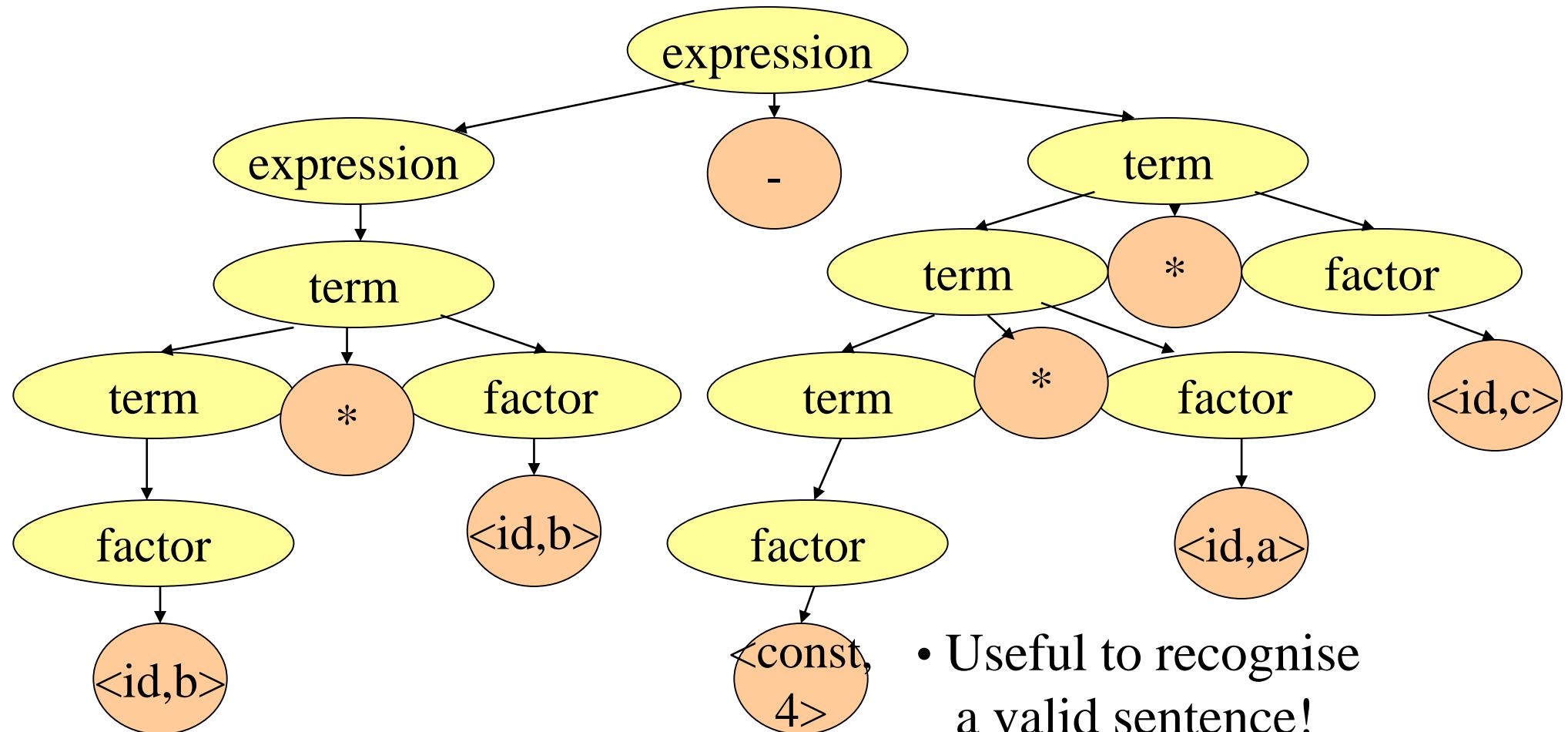
**term** → term '\*' factor | term '/' factor | factor

**factor** → identifier | constant | '(' expression ')'

(this grammar defines simple algebraic expressions)

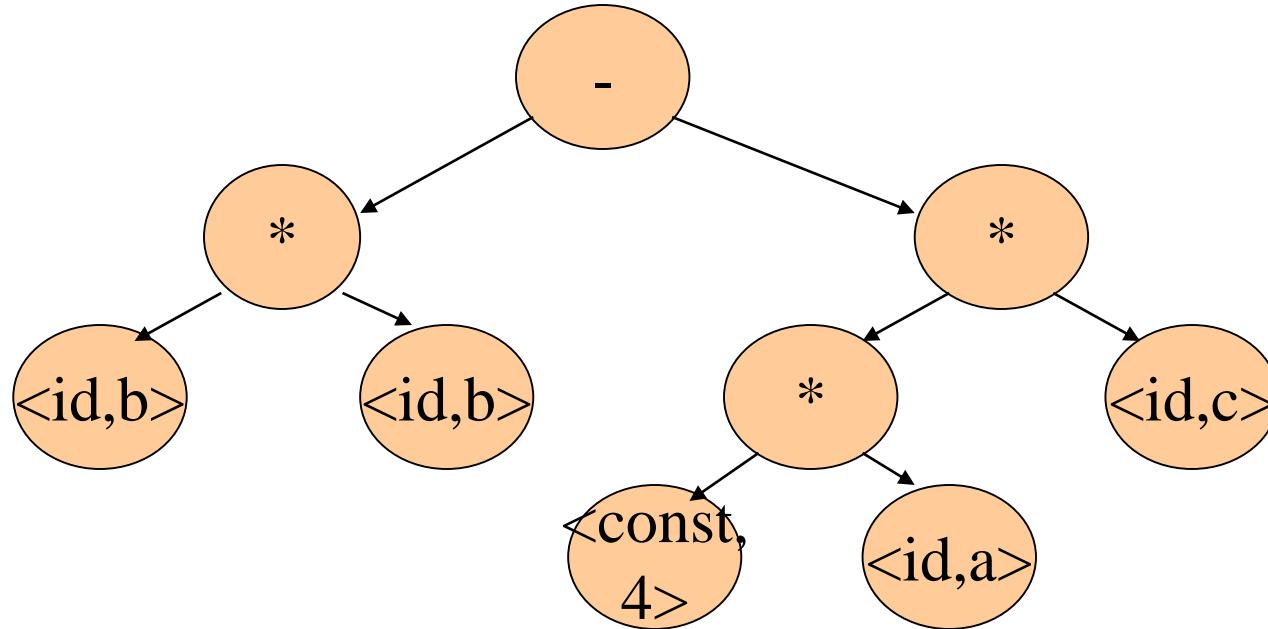
*b\*b-4\*a\*c (valid expression ?)*

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



- Useful to recognise a valid sentence!

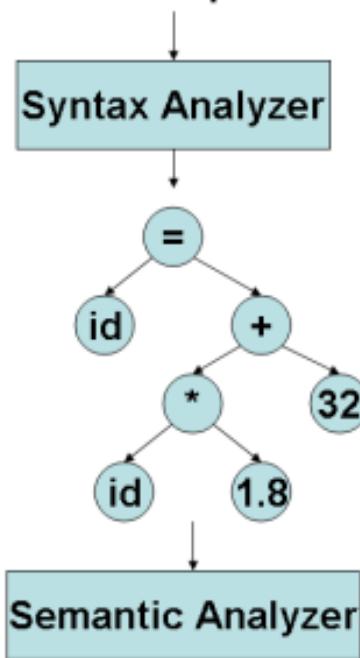
# AST for $b * b - 4 * a * c$



- 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**

# Parsing or Syntax Analysis

<id,1> <assign> <id,2> <multip>  
<fconst, 1.8> <addop> <iconst,32>



# 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;  
  }  
}
```

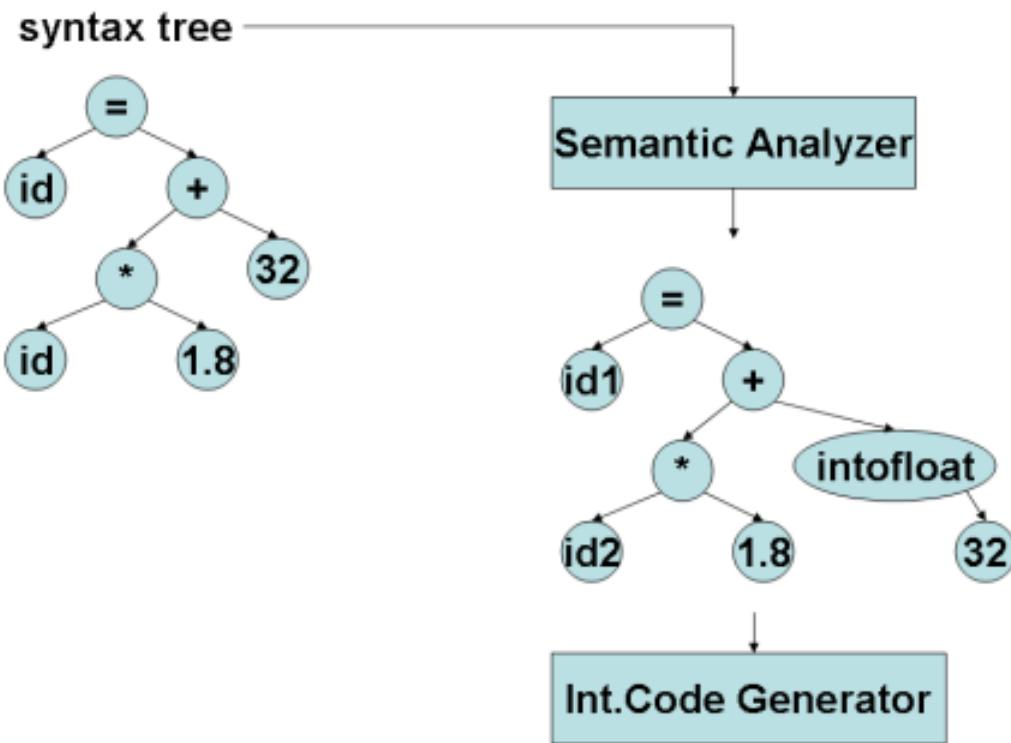
# More on Semantic analysis

- 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.

# Semantic Analysis

- Collects context (semantic) information, checks for semantic errors, and annotates nodes of the tree with the results.
- Examples:
  - variable bindings
  - type checking: report error if an operator is applied to an incompatible operand.
  - check flow-of-controls.

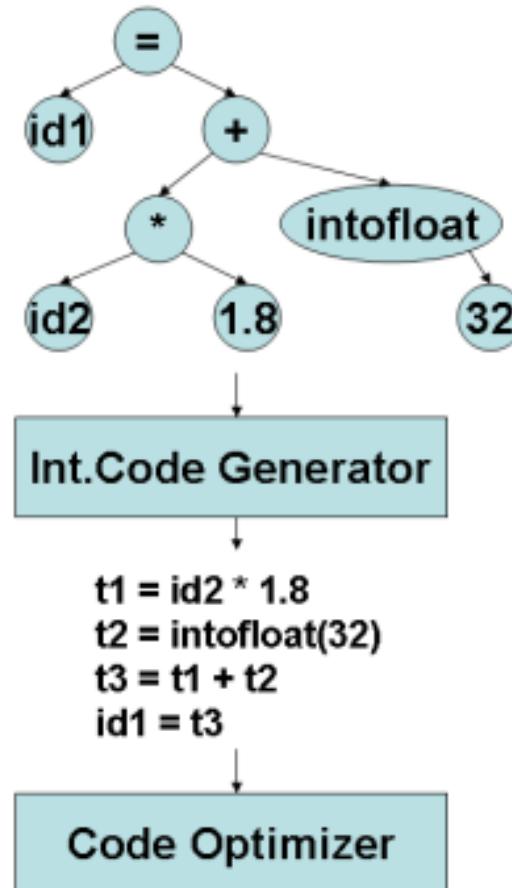
# Semantic Analysis



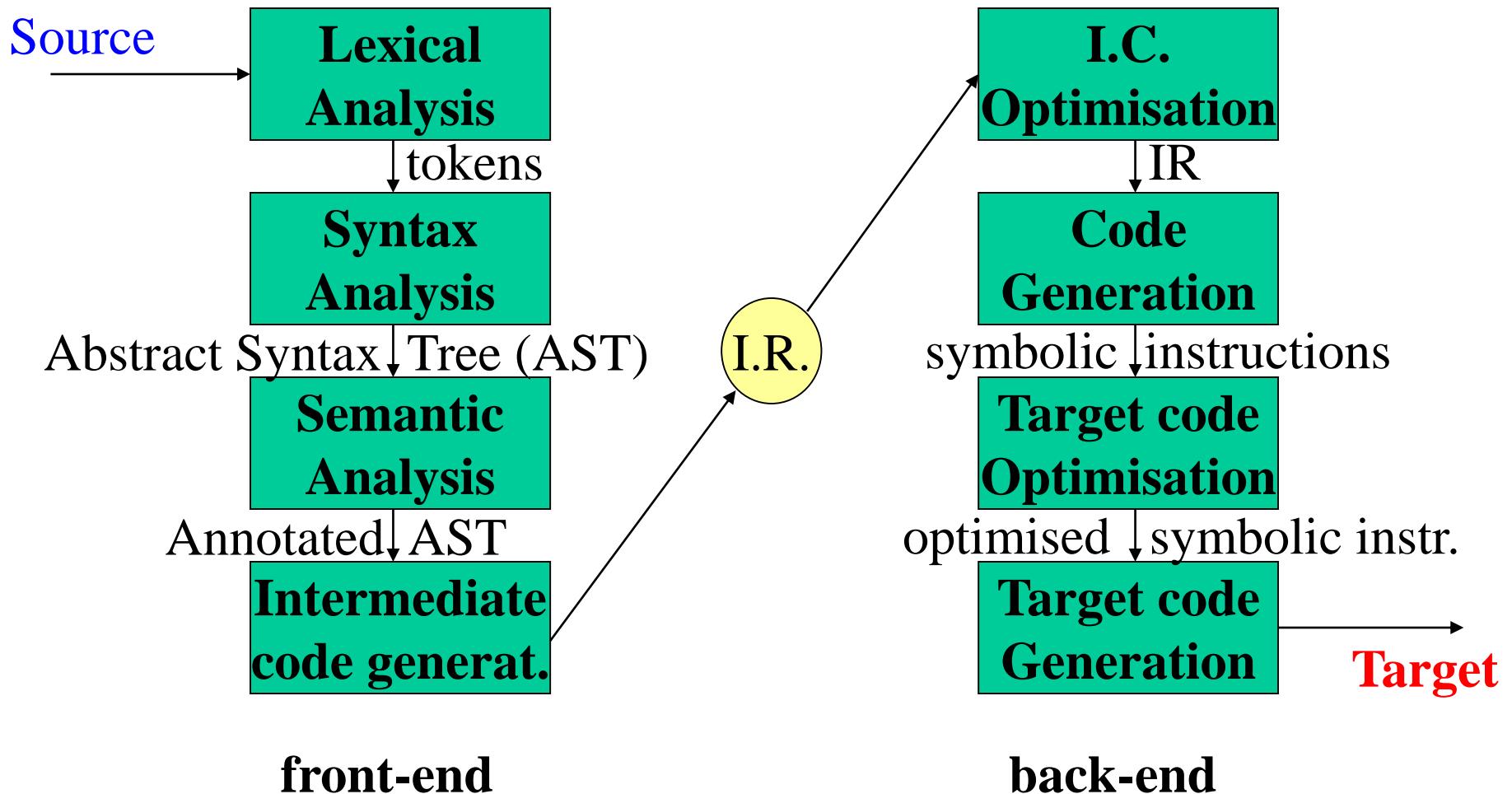
# Intermediate code generation

- While generating machine code directly is possible, it entails **two problems**
  - With **m languages and n target machines**, we **need to write  $m \times n$  compilers**
  - The **code optimizer** which is one of the **largest and very-difficult-to-write components** of any compiler **cannot be reused**.
- By converting source code to an intermediate code, a **machine-independent code optimizer** may be written
- Intermediate code must be easy to produce and easy to translate to machine code
  - A sort of **universal** assembly language
  - Should not contain any **machine-specific** parameters (registers, addresses, etc.)

# Intermediate Code Generation



# General Structure of a compiler



# Different Types of Intermediate Code

- *Quadruples, triples, indirect triples, abstract syntax trees* are the classical forms used for machine-independent optimizations and machine code generation
- *Program Dependence Graph (PDG)* is useful in automatic parallelization, instruction scheduling, and software pipelining

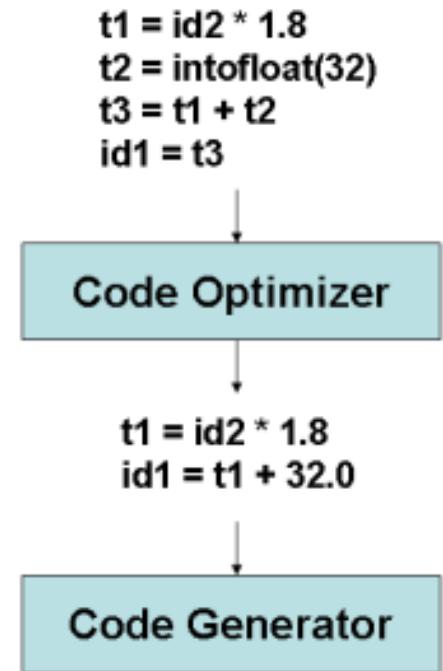
# Machine Independent Code Optimization

- Intermediate code generation process **introduces many inefficiencies**
  - Extra copies of variables, using variables instead of constants, repeated evaluation of expressions, etc.
- **Code optimization removes such inefficiencies** and improves code
- It changes the structure of programs, sometimes of beyond recognition
  - eliminates some programmer-defined variables, in-lines functions, unrolls loops, etc.

# Code Optimization

- Some common optimizations
  - Common sub-expression elimination
  - Copy propagation
  - Dead code elimination
  - Code motion
  - Constant folding
- **Example:**  $x = 15 * 3$  is transformed to  $x = 45$
- Data-flow analysis used to gather required information.

# Code Optimization

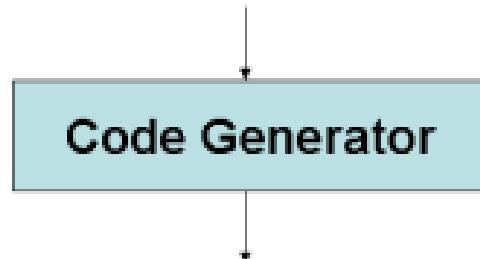


# Code Generation

- Converts intermediate code to machine code
- **Each intermediate code instruction may result in many machine instructions or vice-versa**
- Must handle all aspects of machine architecture
  - Registers, pipelining, cache, multiple function units, etc.
- Generating efficient code
  - Tree pattern matching-based strategies are among the best
- **Storage allocation decisions** are made here
  - *Register allocation and assignment* are the most important problems

# Code Generation

```
t1 = id2 * 1.8  
id1 = t1 + 32.0
```



```
LDF R2, id2  
MULF R2, R2, 1.8  
ADDF R2, R2, 32.0  
STF id1, R2
```

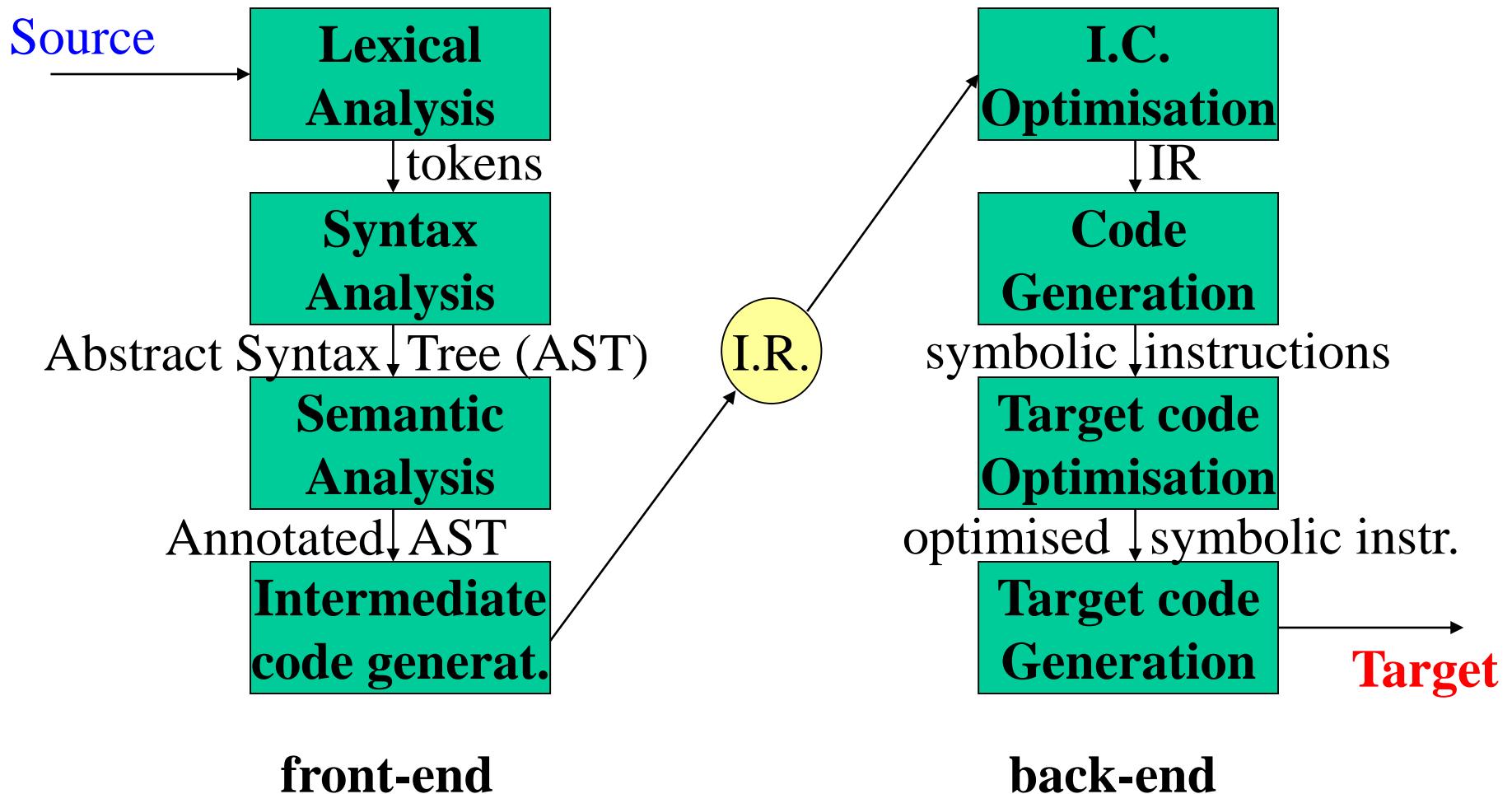
# Code Generation

- 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
- Convert **conditionals** and **iterations** to a **test/jump** or **compare** instructions
- .....

# Post translation optimizations

- Machine dependent optimizations
- Peephole optimizations
  - Analyze sequence of instructions in a small window (peephole) and using preset patterns, replace them with a more efficient sequence
  - Redundant instruction elimination
    - e.g., replace the sequence [LD A,R1][ST R1,A] by [LDA,R1]
  - Use machine idioms (use INC instead of LD and ADD)
- Instruction scheduling (reordering) to eliminate pipeline interlocks and to increase parallelism
- Trace scheduling to increase the size of basic blocks and increase parallelism
- Software pipelining to increase parallelism in loops

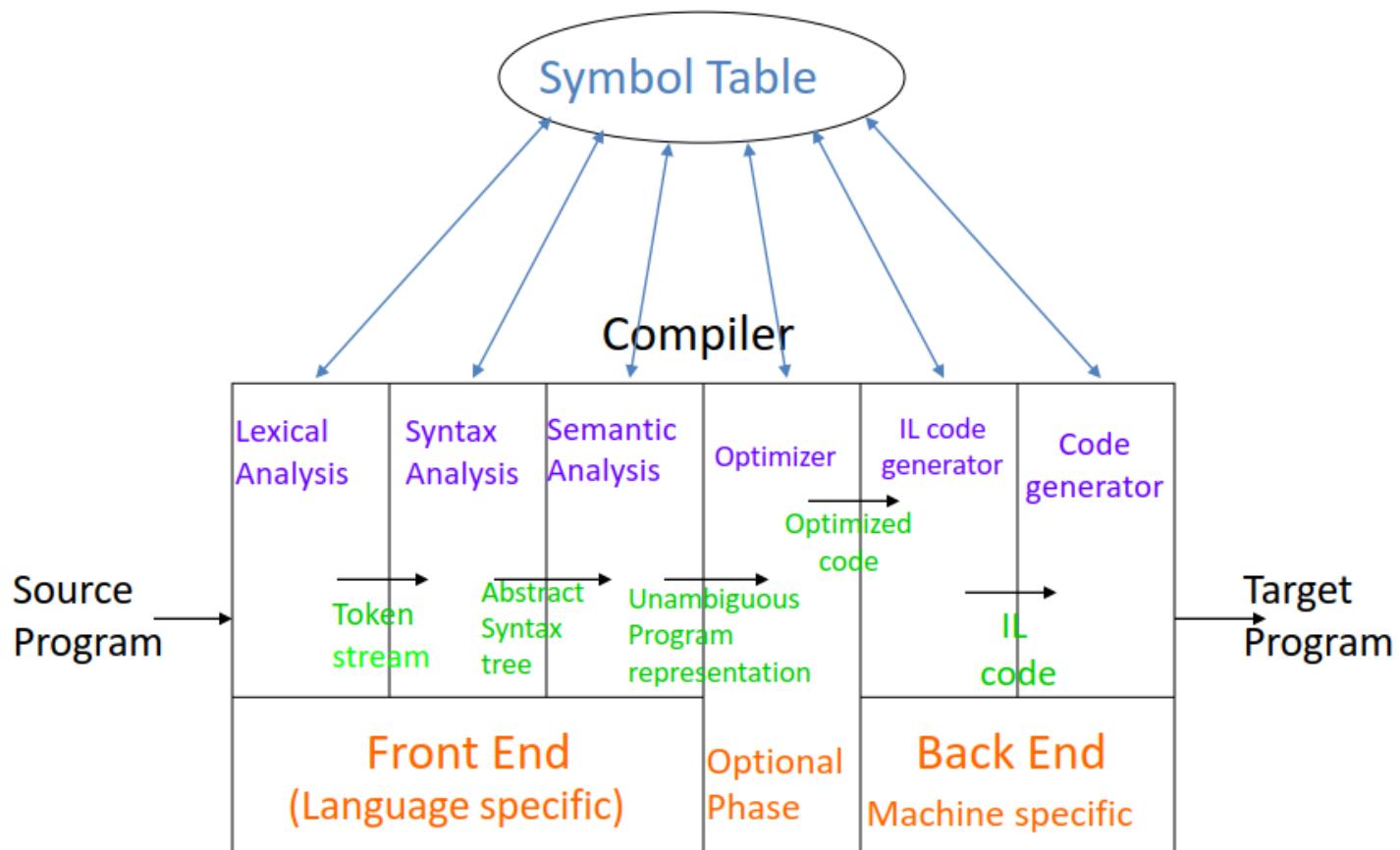
# General Structure of a compiler



# Something missing?

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

# Compiler Structure



# 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

# Finally...

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

- **Scanner generators**: Lex/flex
- **Parser generators**: Yacc/bison

Summary: the structure of a typical compiler was described.

Next lecture: Introduction to lexical analysis.

Reading: Sections 1.2, 1.3