### CS6013 - Modern Compilers: Theory and Practise Introduction

#### V. Krishna Nandivada

IIT Madras

# What, When and Why of Compilers

#### What:

• A compiler is a program that can read a program in one language and translates it into an equivalent program in another language.

#### When

- 1952, by Grace Hopper for A-0.
- 1957, Fortran compiler by John Backus and team.

#### Why? Study?

- It is good to know how the food you eat, is cooked.
- A programming language is an artificial language designed to communicate instructions to a machine, particularly a computer.
- For a computer to execute programs written in these languages, these programs need to be translated to a form in which it can be executed by the computer.

# Academic Formalities

- Written assignment = 5 marks.
- Programming assignments = 50 marks.
- Midterm = 20 marks, Final = 25 marks.
- Extra marks
  - During the lecture time individuals can get additional 5 marks.
  - How? Ask a <u>good</u> question, answer a <u>chosen</u> question, make a good point! Take 0.5 marks each. Max one mark per day per person.
- Attendance requirement as per institute norms. Non compliance will lead to 'W' grade.
  - Proxy attendance is not a help; actually a disservice.
- Plagiarism A good word to know. A bad act to own.
  - Fail grade guaranteed.

#### Contact (Anytime) :

Instructor: Krishna, Email: nvk@cse.iitm.ac.in, Office: BSB 352. TA : Aman Nougrahiya, Email: amannoug@cse

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# Compilers – A "Sangam"

Compiler construction is a microcosm of computer science

- Artificial Intelligence greedy algorithms, learning algorithms, ...
- Algo graph algorithms, union-find, dynamic programming, ...
- theory DFAs for scanning, parser generators, lattice theory, ...
- systems allocation, locality, layout, synchronization, ...
- **architecture** pipeline management, hierarchy management, instruction set use, ...
- optimizations Operational research, load balancing, scheduling,

Inside a compiler, all these and many more come together. Has probably the healthiest mix of theory and practise.



### Course outline

- A rough outline (we may not strictly stick to this).
  - Overview of Compilers
  - Overview of lexical analysis and parsing.
  - Semantic analysis (aka type checking)
  - Intermediate code generation
  - Data flow analysis
  - Constant propagation
  - Static Single Assignment and Optimizations.
  - Loop optimizations
  - Liveness analysis
  - Register Allocation
  - Bitwidth aware register allocation
  - Code Generation
  - Overview of advanced topics.

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Get set. Ready steady go!

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## Your friends: Languages and Tools

#### Start exploring

- Java familiarity a must Use eclipse to save you valuable coding and debugging cycles.
- JavaCC, JTB tools you will learn to use.
- Make Ant Scripts recommended toolkit.
- Find the course webpage: http://www.cse.iitm.ac.in/~krishna/cs6013/



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## Acknowledgement

These frames borrow liberal portions of text verbatim from Antony L. Hosking @ Purdue and Jens Palsberg @ UCLA.

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### Compilers – A closed area?

"Optimization for scalar machines was solved years ago"

Machines have changed drastically in the last 20 years

Changes in architecture  $\Rightarrow$  changes in compilers

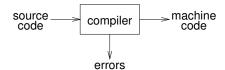
- new features pose new problems
- changing costs lead to different concerns
- old solutions need re-engineering

#### Changes in compilers should prompt changes in architecture

New languages and features

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### Abstract view



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#### Implications:

- recognize legal (and illegal) programs
- generate correct code
- manage storage of all variables and code
- agreement on format for object (or assembly) code

Big step up from assembler — higher level notations



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#### What qualities are important in a compiler?

- Correct code
- Output runs fast
- Compiler runs fast
- Ocmpile time proportional to program size
- Support for separate compilation
- Good diagnostics for syntax errors
- Works well with the debugger
- Good diagnostics for flow anomalies
- Cross language calls
- Onsistent, predictable optimization

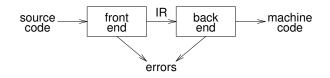
Each of these shapes your expectations about this course

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# Traditional two pass compiler



Implications:

- intermediate representation (IR).
- front end maps legal code into IR
- back end maps IR onto target machine
- simplify retargeting
- allows multiple front ends
- multiple passes  $\Rightarrow$  better code

A rough statement: Most of the problems in the Front-end are simpler (polynomial time solution exists).

Most of the problems in the Back-end are harder (many problems are NP-complete in nature).

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Our focus: Mainly back end (95%) and little bit of front end (5%).

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### Phases inside the compiler



Front end responsibilities:

- Recognize syntactically legal code; report errors.
- Recognize semantically legal code; report errors.
- Produce IR.

Back end responsibilities:

 Optimizations, code generation.

Our target

- five out of seven phases.
- glance over lexical and syntax analysis - read yourself or attend the undergraduate course, if interested.

## More complex syntax

#### identifiers

alphabet followed by k alphanumerics (-, \$, &, ...)

#### numbers

- integers: 0 or digit from 1-9 followed by digits from 0-9
- decimals: integer '.' digits from 0-9
- reals: (integer or decimal) 'E' (+ or -) digits from 0-9
- complex: '(' real ',' real ')'

We need a powerful notation to specify these patterns - regular expressions.

There are mature tools (e.g., flex) that generate lexical token generators (or scanners) from a given specification of tokens (a.k.a. sequence of regular expressions).

Also known as scanning.

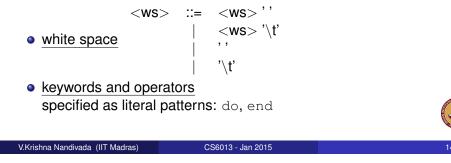
Lexical analysis

• Reads a stream of characters and groups them into meaningful sequences, called lexems.

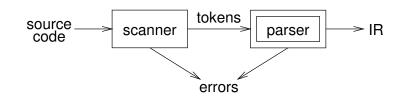
#### A scanner must recognize the units of syntax

Q: How to specify patterns for the scanner?

#### Examples:



# The role of the parser



#### A parser

- performs context-free syntax analysis
- guides context-sensitive analysis
- constructs an intermediate representation
- produces meaningful error messages
- attempts error correction

### Syntax analysis by using a CFG

Context-free syntax is specified with a context-free grammar. Formally, a CFG G is a 4-tuple  $(V_t, V_n, S, P)$ , where:

- $V_t$  is the set of terminal symbols in the grammar. For our purposes,  $V_t$  is the set of tokens returned by the scanner.
- $V_n$ , the nonterminals, is a set of syntactic variables that denote sets of (sub)strings occurring in the language. These are used to impose a structure on the grammar.
- S is a distinguished nonterminal ( $S \in V_n$ ) denoting the entire set of strings in L(G).

This is sometimes called a goal symbol.

*P* is a finite set of productions specifying how terminals and non-terminals can be combined to form strings in the language.

Each production must have a single non-terminal on its left hand side.

The set  $V = V_t \cup V_n$  is called the vocabulary of G V.Krishna Nandivada (IIT Madras) CS6013 - Jan 2015

### **Derivations**

We can view the productions of a CFG as rewriting rules. Using an example CFG:

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# Notation and terminology

- $a, b, c, \ldots \in V_t$
- $A, B, C, \ldots \in V_n$
- $U, V, W, \ldots \in V$
- $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \ldots \in V *$
- $u, v, w, \ldots \in V_t *$

If  $A \rightarrow \gamma$  then  $\alpha A \beta \Rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$  is a single-step derivation using  $A \rightarrow \gamma$ 

Similarly,  $\rightarrow^*$  and  $\Rightarrow^+$  denote derivations of  $\ge 0$  and  $\ge 1$  steps

If  $S \to^* \beta$  then  $\beta$  is said to be a sentential form of G

 $L(G) = \{w \in V_t * \mid S \Rightarrow^+ w\}, w \in L(G) \text{ is called a sentence of } G$ 

Note,  $L(G) = \{\beta \in V * \mid S \rightarrow^* \beta\} \cap V_t *$ 

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## Deriving the derivation

Now, for the string x + 2 \* y:

 $\langle \text{goal} \rangle \Rightarrow$ (expr)  $\langle expr \rangle + \langle term \rangle$  $\Rightarrow$  $\langle expr \rangle + \langle term \rangle * \langle factor \rangle$  $\Rightarrow$  $\langle expr \rangle + \langle term \rangle * \langle id, y \rangle$  $\Rightarrow$  $\langle expr \rangle + \langle factor \rangle * \langle id, y \rangle$  $\Rightarrow$  $\langle expr \rangle + \langle num, 2 \rangle * \langle id, y \rangle$  $\Rightarrow$  $\langle \text{term} \rangle + \langle \text{num}, 2 \rangle * \langle \text{id}, y \rangle$  $\Rightarrow$  $\Rightarrow \langle \text{factor} \rangle + \langle \text{num}, 2 \rangle * \langle \text{id}, y \rangle$  $\langle id, x \rangle + \langle num, 2 \rangle * \langle id, y \rangle$  $\Rightarrow$ 

We have derived the sentence x + 2 \* y. We denote this  $(goal) \rightarrow^* id + num * id$ .

Such a sequence of rewrites is a derivation or a parse.

The process of discovering a derivation is called parsing.

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#### Top-down parsers

- start at the root of derivation tree and fill in
- picks a production and tries to match the input
- may require backtracking
- some grammars are backtrack-free (predictive)

#### Bottom-up parsers

- start at the leaves and fill in
- start in a state valid for legal first tokens
- as input is consumed, change state to encode possibilities (recognize valid prefixes)

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• use a stack to store both state and sentential forms



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# How much lookahead is needed?

We saw that top-down parsers may need to backtrack when they select the wrong production

Do we need arbitrary lookahead to parse CFGs?

- in general, yes
- use the Earley or Cocke-Younger, Kasami algorithms

### Fortunately

- large subclasses of CFGs can be parsed with limited lookahead
- most programming language constructs can be expressed in a grammar that falls in these subclasses

Among the interesting subclasses are:

- LL(1): left to right scan, left-most derivation, 1-token lookahead; and
- and LR(1): left to right scan, reversed right-most derivation, 1-token lookahead



A top-down parser starts with the root of the parse tree, labelled with the start or goal symbol of the grammar.

To build a parse, it repeats the following steps until the fringe of the parse tree matches the input string

- At a node labelled *A*, select a production  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  and construct the appropriate child for each symbol of  $\alpha$
- When a terminal is added to the fringe that doesn't match the input string, backtrack
- Sind next node to be expanded (must have a label in  $V_n$ )

The key is selecting the right production in step 1.

If the parser makes a wrong step, the "derivation" process does not terminate. Why is it bad?

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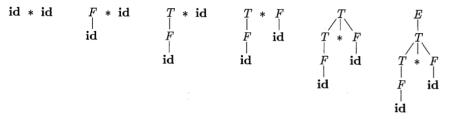
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# Bottom-up parsing

#### Goal:

Given an input string *w* and a grammar *G*, construct a parse tree by starting at the leaves and working to the root.





### **Reductions Vs Derivations**

#### Reduction:

• At each reduction step, a specific substring matching the body of a production is replaced by the non-terminal at the head of the production.

#### **Key decisions**

- When to reduce?
- What production rule to apply?

#### **Reduction Vs Derivations**

- Recall: In derivation: a non-terminal in a sentential form is replaced by the body of one of its productions.
- A reduction is reverse of a step in derivation.
- Bottum-up parsing is the process of "reducing" a string w to the start symbol.
- Goal of bottum-up parsing: build derivation tree in reverse.

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# Closing remarks - parsing

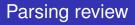
- Overview of Parsing.
- Error checking.
- LR parsing.

#### Reading:

• Ch 1, 3, 4 from the Dragon book.

Announcement:

- Assignment 1 is out. Due in around 10 days.
- Next class: ?



#### Recursive descent

A hand coded recursive descent parser directly encodes a grammar (typically an LL(1) grammar) into a series of mutually recursive procedures. It has most of the linguistic limitations of LL(1).

• LL(*k*)

An LL(k) parser must be able to recognize the use of a production after seeing only the first *k* symbols of its right hand side.

LR(k)

An LR(k) parser must be able to recognize the occurrence of the right hand side of a production after having seen all that is derived from that right hand side with k symbols of lookahead.

There are mature tools (e.g., bison) that generate parsers from a given specification of syntax (a.k.a. grammar).

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Due in arou

