## CS6013 - Modern Compilers: Theory and Practise Introduction

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## 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 = 40 marks.
- Midterm = 25 marks, Final = 30 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.
- <u>Plagiarism</u> A good word to know. A bad act to own.
  - Will be automatically referred to the institute welfare and disciplinary committee.

#### Contact (Anytime) :

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## Images of the day



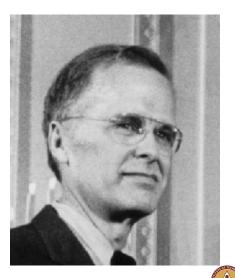


Figure: Grace Hopper and John Backus

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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.



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# Your friends: Languages and Tools

# 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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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/

Get set. Ready steady go!



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

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## Expectations

What qualities are important in a compiler?

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

Each of these shapes your expectations about this course



## 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

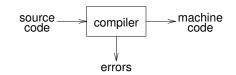
### Changes in compilers should prompt changes in architecture

• New languages and features



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## Abstract view

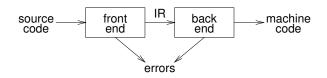


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Implications:

- 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



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).

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

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# Lexical analysis

- Also known as scanning.
- 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:

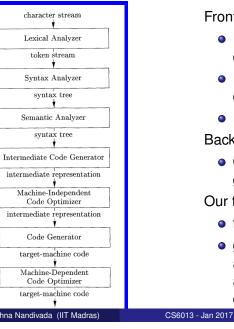
white space

<ws> '∖t' , , '∖ť

<WS> ''

keywords and operators specified as literal patterns: do, end

## 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.

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# More complex syntax

identifiers

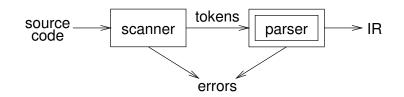
alphabet followed by k alphanumerics (-, \$, &, ...)

- 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).

## 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



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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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# 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 CS6013 - Jan 2017

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## **Derivations**

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

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc} 1 & \langle \text{goal} \rangle & ::= & \langle \text{expr} \rangle \\ 2 & \langle \text{expr} \rangle & ::= & \langle \text{expr} \rangle + \langle \text{term} \rangle \\ 3 & & | & \langle \text{expr} \rangle - \langle \text{term} \rangle \\ 4 & & | & \langle \text{term} \rangle \\ 5 & \langle \text{term} \rangle & ::= & \langle \text{term} \rangle * \langle \text{factor} \rangle \\ 6 & & | & \langle \text{term} \rangle / \langle \text{factor} \rangle \\ 6 & & | & \langle \text{factor} \rangle \\ 7 & & | & \langle \text{factor} \rangle \\ 8 & \langle \text{factor} \rangle & ::= & \text{num} \\ 9 & & | & \text{id} \end{array}$$



## Deriving the derivation

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

We have derived the sentence x + 2 \* y.

We denote this  $(\text{goal}) \rightarrow^* \text{id} + \text{num} * \text{id}$ .

Such a sequence of rewrites is a <u>derivation</u> or a <u>parse</u>. The process of discovering a derivation is called parsing.

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## Top-down parsing

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
- **③** Find 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?

## Different ways of parsing: Top-down Vs Bottom-up

#### 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



# 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

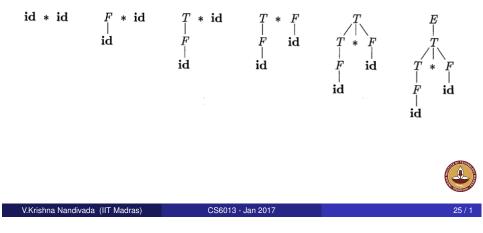
Among the interesting subclasses are:

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

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### Goal:

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



# Parsing review

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).

## **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: ?