

- Written assignment = 5 marks.
- Programming assignments = 35 marks,
- Paper reading = 10 marks.
- Quiz 1 = 10 marks, Quiz 2 = 10 marks, Final = 30 marks.
- Extra marks
 - During the lecture time - individuals can get additional 5 marks.
 - How? - Ask a good question, answer a chosen 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.
 - Will be automatically referred to the institute welfare and disciplinary committee.

Contact (Anytime) :

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CS6013 - Modern Compilers: Theory and Practise

Introduction

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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.



Images of the day

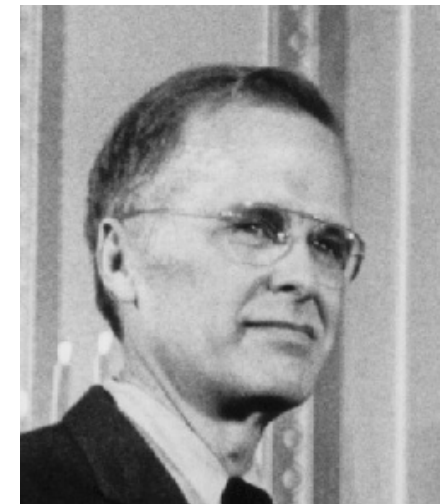


Figure: Grace Hopper and John Backus



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.



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
- Code Generation
- Analyzing/Optimizing Task Parallel Programs
- Overview of advanced topics.



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/>



Get set. Ready steady go!



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 ⇒ 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



Expectations

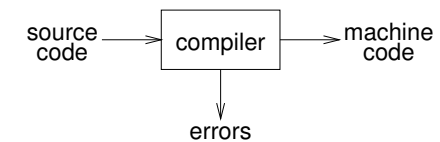
What qualities are important in a compiler?

- 1 Correct code
- 2 Output runs fast
- 3 Compiler runs fast
- 4 Compile time proportional to program size
- 5 Support for separate compilation
- 6 Good diagnostics for syntax errors
- 7 Works well with the debugger
- 8 Good diagnostics for flow anomalies
- 9 Cross language calls
- 10 Consistent, predictable optimization

Each of these shapes your expectations about this course



Abstract view



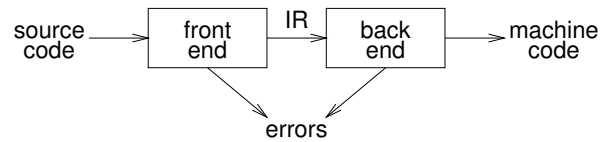
Implications:

- 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



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

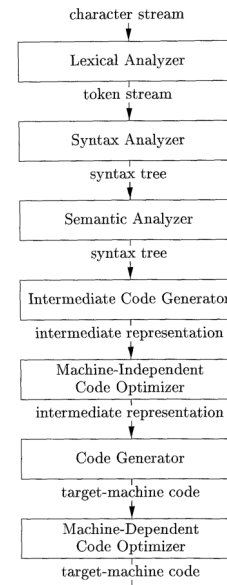
A rough statement: Most of the problems in the Front-end are simpler (polynomial time solution exists).

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

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



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.



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
 $\langle ws \rangle ::= \langle ws \rangle ' '$
 $\langle ws \rangle '\t'$
- keywords and operators
specified as literal patterns: do, end



More complex syntax

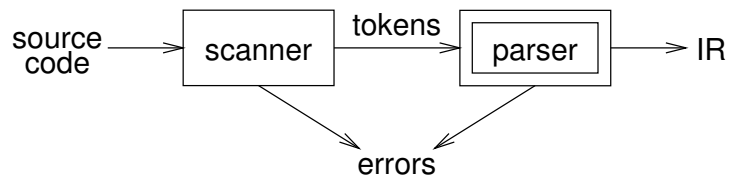
- identifiers
alphabet followed by k alphanumerics (., \$, &, ...)
- numbers
 - integers: 0 or digit from 1-9 followed by digits from 0-9
 - decimals: integer '.' digits from 0-9
 - reals: (integer or decimal) 'E' (+ or -) digits from 0-9
 - complex: '(' real ',' real ')'

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



Notation and terminology

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

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 ≥ 0 and ≥ 1 steps

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

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

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



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



Derivations

We can view the productions of a CFG as rewriting rules.

Using an example CFG:

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			$\langle \text{term} \rangle / \langle \text{factor} \rangle$
7			$\langle \text{factor} \rangle$
8	$\langle \text{factor} \rangle$	$::=$	num
9			id



Deriving the derivation

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

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \text{goal} \rangle &\Rightarrow \langle \text{expr} \rangle \\ &\Rightarrow \langle \text{expr} \rangle + \langle \text{term} \rangle \\ &\Rightarrow \langle \text{expr} \rangle + \langle \text{term} \rangle * \langle \text{factor} \rangle \\ &\Rightarrow \langle \text{expr} \rangle + \langle \text{term} \rangle * \langle \text{id}, y \rangle \\ &\Rightarrow \langle \text{expr} \rangle + \langle \text{factor} \rangle * \langle \text{id}, y \rangle \\ &\Rightarrow \langle \text{expr} \rangle + \langle \text{num}, 2 \rangle * \langle \text{id}, y \rangle \\ &\Rightarrow \langle \text{term} \rangle + \langle \text{num}, 2 \rangle * \langle \text{id}, y \rangle \\ &\Rightarrow \langle \text{factor} \rangle + \langle \text{num}, 2 \rangle * \langle \text{id}, y \rangle \\ &\Rightarrow \langle \text{id}, x \rangle + \langle \text{num}, 2 \rangle * \langle \text{id}, y \rangle\end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

The process of discovering a derivation is called parsing.



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)
- use a stack to store both state and sentential forms



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

- 1 At a node labelled A , select a production $A \rightarrow \alpha$ and construct the appropriate child for each symbol of α
- 2 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?



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:

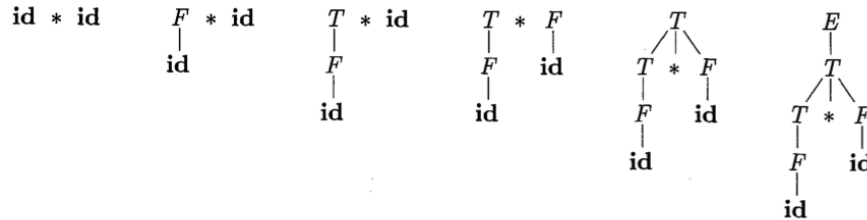
LL(1): left to right scan, left-most derivation, 1-token lookahead;
and
LR(1): left to right scan, reversed right-most derivation, 1-token lookahead



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.
- Bottom-up parsing is the process of “reducing” a string w to the start symbol.
- Goal of bottom-up parsing: build derivation tree in reverse.



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).



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: ?

