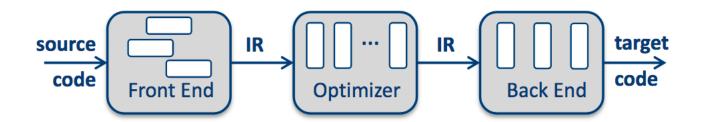
Overview of the Course



The organization of this course

Schedule:

Two weekly lectures

Thursday	14:00	16:00	L1
Friday	9:00	11:00	L1



Roberta Gori roberta.gori@di.unipi.it

One weekly lecture for constructing a compiler

Wednesday	11:00	13:00	L1
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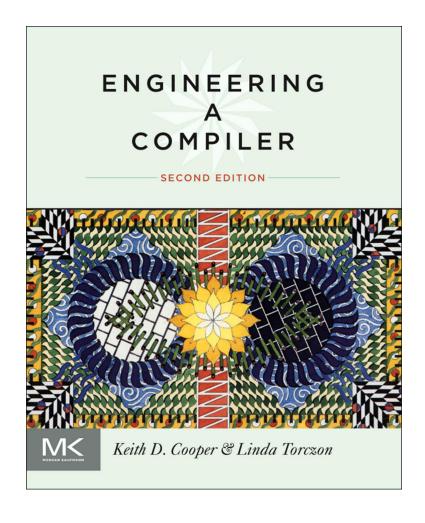
Letterio Galletta

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What we will see

- Formal languages (maybe a recall for someone):
 - ·Grammars, automata, theorems, regular and context free languages
 - ·Chomsky hierarchy
- Lexical analysis
- Parser
- Contextual analysis
- Intermediate representation
- Code shape
- · Optimization
- Dataflow analysis
- · More static analyses: control flow and abstract interpretation
- Register allocation

Our textbook



Other information

· web page, I will add there all the slides

www.di.unipi.it/~gori/Linguaggi-Compilatori2022

Material for specific topics:

- Introduction to Automata Theory, Languages, And Computation. Hopcroft, Motwani, Ullman
- Fondamenti dell'Informatica. Linguaggi formali, calcolabilita' e complessita'.
 Dovier, Giacobazzi
 Bollati Boringhieri
- Principles of Program Analysis.
 Nielson, Nielson, Hankin
 Springer
- <u>Static Inference of Numeric Invariants by Abstract Interpretation</u> a tutorial by Antoine Mine on Abstract interpretation.

About this teacher

Roberta Gori roberta.gori@di.unipi.it

My own research program

- Whole program analysis for verification and optimization
- Static analysis to discern program behavior
- Abstract interpretation based techniques

What you have to do

Actively partecipate to lectures

If you do your exam will consist in

- 1. a project
- 2. a seminar on a chosen topic
- 3. a brief discussion on your project

If you don't you have to add

4. a written test

Compilers

- What is a compiler?
 - A program that translates an executable program in one language (source) into an executable program in another language (target)
 - The compiler should improve the program, in some way
- What is an interpreter?
 - A program that reads an executable program and an input and produces the results of executing that program on the input
- C and C++ are typically compiled,
 Pyton and Scheme are typically interpreted
- Java is complicated
 - Compiled to bytecodes (code for the Java VM)
 - which are then interpreted
 - Or a hybrid strategy is used
 - → Just-in-time compilation

Common mis-statement:

X is an interpreted language
(or a compiled language)

It's a property of the
implementation!

Compilers vs Interpreters

Compiler scans the whole program in one go.	Translates program one statement at a time.		
It converts the source code into object code.	It does not convert source code into object code instead it scans it line by line		
The translation is performed before executing	The translation and execution is performed at the same time		
Good execution time.	Slow in executing the object code.		
It does not require source code for later execution.	It requires source code for later execution.		
The errors are shown at the end together.	Errors are shown line by line.		

Why Study Compilation?

- Compilers are important
 - Responsible for many aspects of system performance
 - Attaining performance has become more difficult over time
 - → In 1980, typical code got 85% or more of peak performance
 - → Today, that number is closer to 5 to 10% of peak
 - → Compiler has become a prime determiner of performance
- Compilers are interesting
 - Compilers are complex program of millions of lines
 - Compilers include many applications of theory to practice
 - Writing a compiler exposes algorithmic & engineering issues
- Compilers are everywhere
 - Many practical applications have embedded languages
 - → Commands, macros, formatting tags ...
 - Many applications have input formats that look like languages

Still many open problems!

Fundamental Principles of Compilation

 The compiler must preserve the meaning of the program being compiled

• The compiler must improve the input program

Reducing the Price of Abstraction

Computer Science is the art of creating virtual objects and making them useful.

- We invent abstractions and uses for them
- We invent ways to make them efficient
- Programming is the way we realize these inventions

Well written compilers make abstraction affordable

- Cost of executing code should reflect the underlying work rather than the way the programmer chose to write it
- Change in expression should bring small performance change
- Cannot expect compiler to devise better algorithms
 - Don't expect bubblesort to become quicksort

Making Languages Usable

It was our belief that if FORTRAN, during its first months, were to translate any reasonable "scientific" source program into an object program only half as fast as its hand-coded counterpart, then acceptance of our system would be in serious danger... I believe that if we failed to produce efficient programs, the widespread use of languages like FORTRAN would have been seriously delayed.

John Backus on the subject of the 1st FORTRAN compiler

Era nostra convinzione che se FORTRAN, durante i suoi primi mesi, avesse tradotto un qualsiasi programma sorgente "scientifico" ragionevole in un programma oggetto piu' efficiente solo della metà della sua controparte codificata a mano, allora l'accettazione del nostro linguaggio sarebbe stata in serio pericolo. Credo che se non fossimo riusciti a produrre programmi efficienti, l'uso diffuso di linguaggi come FORTRAN sarebbe stato seriamente ritardato.

Simple Examples

Which is faster?

```
for (i=0; i<n; i++)
for (j=0; j<n; j++)
A[i][j] = 0;

for (i=0; i<n; i++)
for (j=0; j<n; j++)
A[j][i] = 0;

p = &A[0][0];
t = n * n;
for (i=0; i<t; i++)
*p++ = 0;
```

All three loops have distinct performance.

 $0.51 \text{ sec on } 10,000 \times 10,000 \text{ array}$

 $1.65 \text{ sec on } 10,000 \times 10,000 \text{ array}$

 $0.11 \text{ sec on } 10,000 \times 10,000 \text{ array}$

A good compiler should know these tradeoffs, on each target, and generate the best code. Few real compilers do.

Conventional wisdom suggests using

bzero((void*) &A[0][0],(size_t) n*n*sizeof(int))

 $0.52 \text{ sec on } 10,000 \times 10,000 \text{ array}$

Intrinsic Merit

- Compiler construction poses challenging and interesting problems:
 - Compilers must process large inputs, perform complex algorithms, but also run quickly
 - Compilers have primary responsibility for run-time performance
 - Compilers are responsible for making it acceptable to use the full power of the programming language
 - Computer architects perpetually create new challenges for the compiler by building more complex machines
 - → Compilers must hide that complexity from the programmer
- > A successful compiler requires mastery of the many complex interactions between its constituent parts

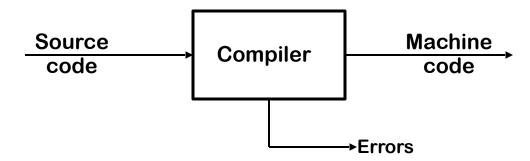
Intrinsic Interest

Compiler construction involves ideas from many different parts of computer science

Artificial intelligence	Greedy algorithms Heuristic search techniques	
Algorithms	Graph algorithms, union-find Dynamic programming	
Theory	DFAs & PDAs, pattern matching Fixed-point algorithms	
Systems	Allocation & naming, Synchronization, locality	
Architecture	Pipeline & hierarchy management Instruction set use	

The View from 35,000 Feet

High-level View of a Compiler

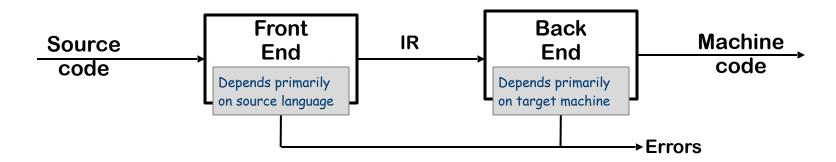


Implications

- Must recognize legal (and illegal) programs
- Must generate correct code
- Must manage storage of all variables (and code)
- Must agree with OS & linker on format for object code

Big step up from assembly language

Traditional Two-pass Compiler

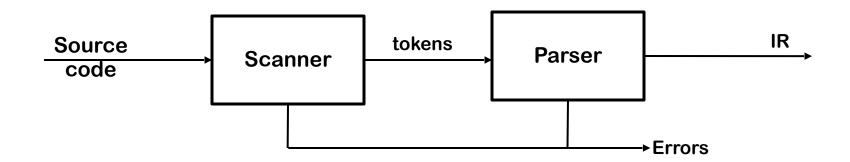


Implications

- Use an intermediate representation (IR)
- Front end maps legal source code into IR
- Back end maps IR into target machine code
- Admits multiple passes (better code)

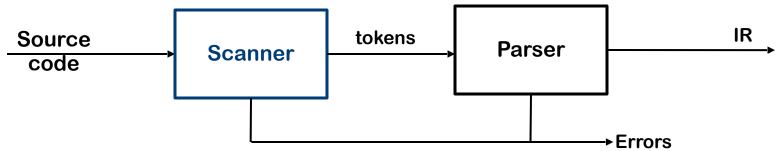
Classic principle from software engineering: Separation of concerns

Typically, front end is O(n) or $O(n \log n)$, while back end is NP-Complete



Responsibilities

- Recognize legal (& illegal) programs
- Report errors in a useful way
- Produce IR & preliminary storage map
- Shape the code for the rest of the compiler
- Much of front end construction can be automated



Scanner

- Maps character stream into words—the basic unit of syntax (Lexical analysis)
- Produces pairs a word & its part of speech

```
x = x + y; becomes \langle id, x \rangle = \langle id, x \rangle + \langle id, y \rangle;
```

- word

 | lexeme, part of speech
 | token type, pair
 | a token type and a lexeme
- Typical tokens include number, identifier, +, -, new, while, if
- Speed is important

Textbooks advocate automatic scanner generation

Commercial practice appears to be hand-coded scanners

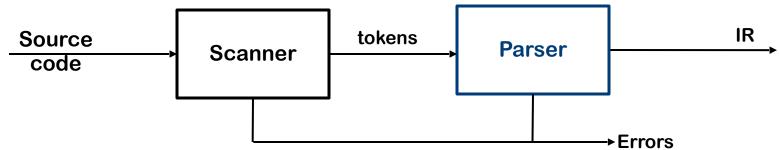
Lexical analysis

Split program into individual words that makes sense:

My mother cooooookes dinner not.

```
while (y < z) {
int x = a + b;
y += x; }
```

```
T While
T LeftParen
T Identifier y
T Less
T Identifier z
T RightParen
T OpenBrace
T Int
T Identifier x
T Assign
T Identifier a
T Plus
T Identifier b
T Semicolon
T Identifier y
T PlusAssign
T Identifier x
T Semicolon
T CloseBrace
```



Parser

- Recognizes context-free syntax & reports errors
 (Syntax Analysis)
- Guides context-sensitive ("semantic") analysis (type checking)
- Builds IR for source program

Hand-coded parsers are fairly easy to build Most books advocate using automatic parser generators

For Lexical and Syntact analysis we need grammars

This grammar defines the set of noises that a sheep makes under normal circumstances

It is written in a variant of Backus-Naur Form (BNF)

Formally, a grammar G = (S,N,T,P)

- 5 is the start symbol
- N is a set of non-terminal symbols
- T is a set of terminal symbols or words
- P is a set of productions or rewrite rules $(P: N \rightarrow N \cup T)$

Context-free syntax can be put to better use

```
S = Goal

T = { number, id, +, - }

N = { Goal, Expr, Term, Op }

P = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 }
```

```
    Goal → Expr
    Expr → Expr Op Term
    I Term
    Term → number
    I id
    Op → +
    I -
```

- This grammar defines simple expressions with addition & subtraction over <u>number</u> and <u>id</u>
- This grammar, like many, falls in a class called "context-free grammars", abbreviated CFG

Given a CFG, we can derive sentences by repeated substitution

- 1. $Goal \rightarrow Expr$
- 2. $Expr \rightarrow Expr Op Term$
- 3. I Term
- 4. $Term \rightarrow number$
- 5. I id
- 6. *Op* → +
- 7. I -

Productio	n Result	
	Goal	
1	Expr	
2	Expr Op Term	
5	Expr Op y	
7	Expr - y	
2	Expr Op term - y	
4	<i>Expr Op 2 - y</i>	> A derivation
6	Expr + 2 - y	
3	<i>Term</i> + 2 - y	
5	x + 2 - y	

To recognize a valid sentence in some CFG, we reverse this process and build up a parse

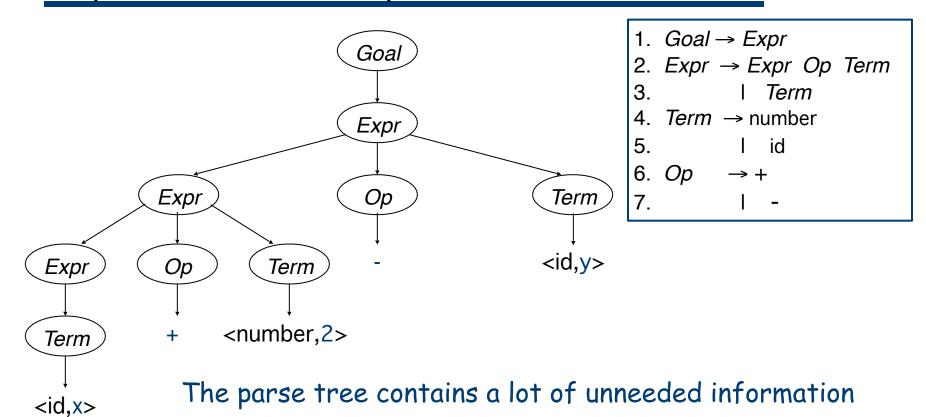
A parse can be represented by a tree (parse tree or syntax tree)

$$x + 2 - y$$

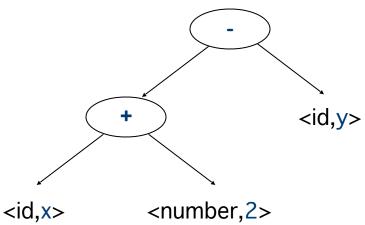
```
1. Goal → Expr
```

- 2. $Expr \rightarrow Expr Op Term$
- 3. | *Term*
- 4. $Term \rightarrow number$
- 5. I id
- 6. $Op \rightarrow +$
- 7. l -

The parse tree for x+2-y



Compilers often use an abstract syntax tree instead of a parse tree



The AST summarizes grammatical structure, without including detail about the derivation

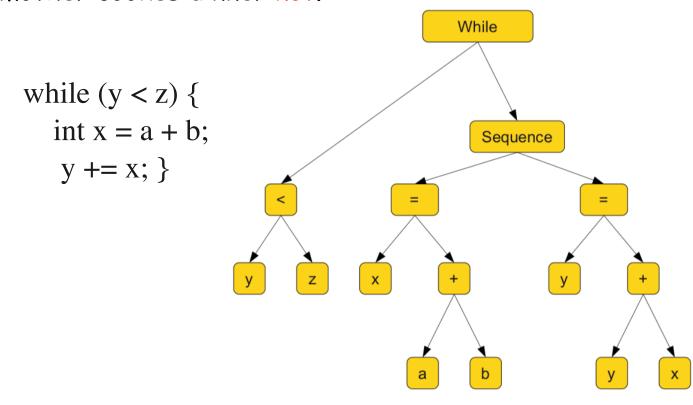
This is much more concise

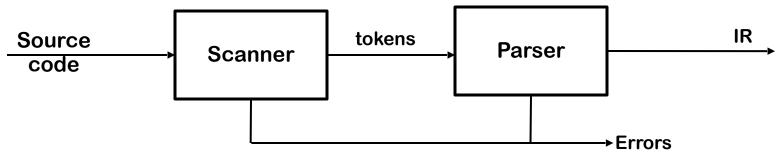
ASTs can be used as intermediate representation

Syntax analysis

Split program to individual words that makes sense:

My mother cookes dinner not.





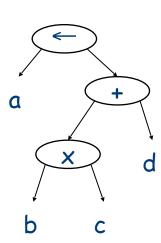
Next step:

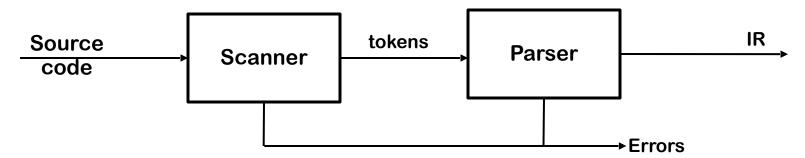
Code shape determines many properties of resulting program

Recall the speed difference between different ways of writing a simple array initialization

$$a \leftarrow b \times c + d$$







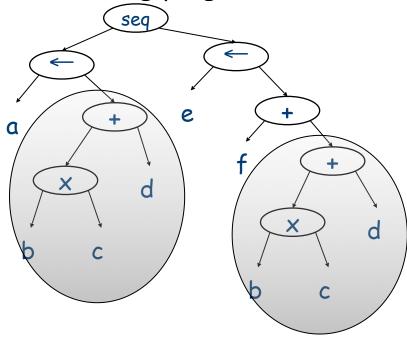
Code shape determines many properties of resulting program

$$a \leftarrow b \times c + d$$

 $e \leftarrow f + b \times c + d$

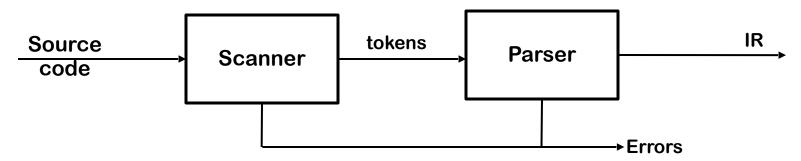


If you turn this AST into code, you will likely get duplication



but getting it right takes a fair amount of effort

The Front End

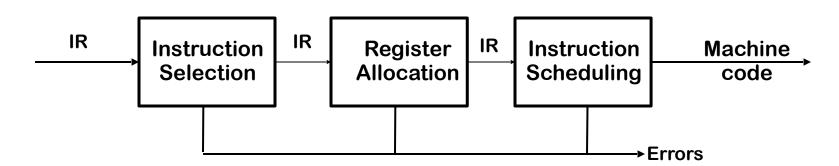


Code shape determines many properties of resulting program

$$a \leftarrow b \times c + d$$
 $e \leftarrow f + b \times c + d$
becomes

We would like to produce a code for the common expression and then reuses it

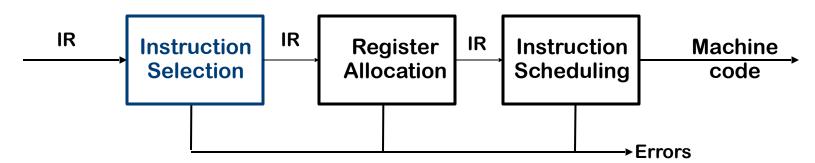
load @b
$$\Rightarrow$$
 r₁
load @c \Rightarrow r₂
mult r₁,r₂ \Rightarrow r₃
load @d \Rightarrow r₄
add r₃,r₄ \Rightarrow r₅
store r₅ \Rightarrow @a
load @f \Rightarrow r₆
add r₅,r₆ \Rightarrow r₇
store r₇ \Rightarrow @e



Responsibilities

- Translate IR into target machine code
- Choose instructions to implement each IR operation
- Decide which value to keep in registers
- Reorder the instructions so that efficiency is gained

Automation has been less successful in the back end

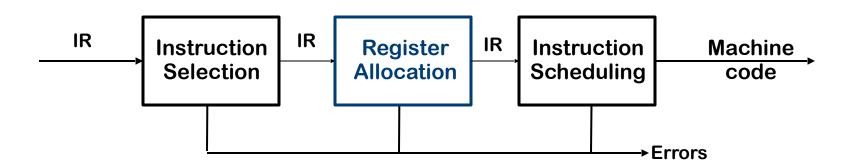


Instruction Selection

- Produce fast, compact code
- Take advantage of target features such as addressing modes
- Usually viewed as a pattern matching problem
 - ad hoc methods, pattern matching, dynamic programming
 - Form of the IR influences choice of technique

This was the problem of the future in 1978

- Spurred by transition from PDP-11 to VAX-11
- RISC architecture simplified this problem



Register Allocation

- Have each value in a register when it is used
- Manage a limited set of resources
- Can change instruction choices & insert LOADs & STOREs
- Optimal allocation is NP-Complete in most settings

Compilers approximate solutions to NP-Complete problems

About ILOC

- ILOC (Intermediate Language for Optimizing Compiler) is a notation used in the textbook to indicate an assembly language for a simple RISC machine.
- Most operations takes arguments that are registers add $r1,r2 \rightarrow r3$ ($r1 + r2 \rightarrow r3$)
- The memory operations loads and stores transfer values between memory and registers

Register allocation for $a = (a \times 2 \times b \times c) \times d$

Use 6 registers!

loadAI r_{arp} , @a \Rightarrow r_1

loadAI r_{arp} , @b \Rightarrow r_2

 $r_1, r_1 \Rightarrow r_1$

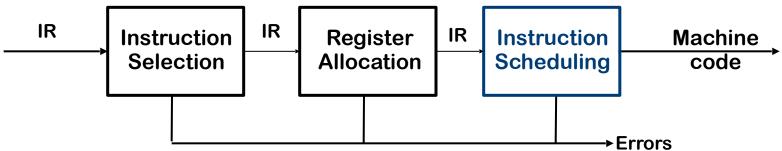
storeAI $r_1 \Rightarrow r_{arp}$, @a // write r_a back to 'a'

add

mult

mult

```
r_{arp}, @a \Rightarrow r_a // load 'a'
                                       loadAI
                                       loadI
                                                  2 \Rightarrow r_2 // constant 2 into r_2
                                       loadAI
                                                  r_{arp}, @b \Rightarrow r_b // load 'b'
                                       loadAI r_{arp}, @c \Rightarrow r_{c} // load 'c'
                                                  r_{arp}, @d \Rightarrow r_d // load 'd'
                                       loadAI
                                       mult
                                                  r_a, r_2 \Rightarrow r_a // r_a \leftarrow a \times 2
                                       mult r_a, r_b \Rightarrow r_a // r_a \leftarrow (a \times 2) \times b
                                       mult r_a, r_c \Rightarrow r_a // r_a \leftarrow (a \times 2 \times b) \times c
                                       mult r_a, r_d \Rightarrow r_a // r_a \leftarrow (a \times 2 \times b \times c) \times d
                                       storeAI r_a \Rightarrow r_{arp},@a // write r_a back to 'a'
                                       // load 'a'
                                  // r_1 \leftarrow a \times 2
                                 // load 'b'
                                                                              Use 3 registers!
      r_1, r_2 \Rightarrow r_1 \qquad // r_1 \leftarrow (a \times 2) \times b
loadAI r_{arp}, @c \Rightarrow r_2 // load 'c'
mult r_1, r_2 \Rightarrow r_1   // r_1 \leftarrow (a \times 2 \times b) \times c
loadAI r_{arp}, @d \Rightarrow r_2 // load 'd'
      r_1, r_2 \Rightarrow r_1 \qquad // r_1 \leftarrow (a \times 2 \times b \times c) \times d
```



Instruction Scheduling

- Avoid hardware stalls and interlocks
- Use all functional units productively
- Can increase lifetime of variables (changing the allocation)

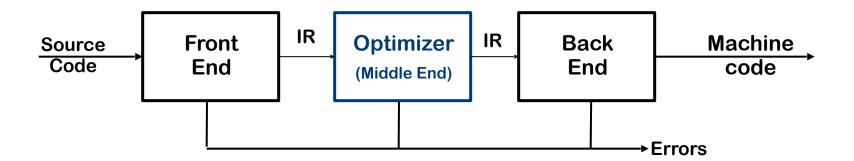
Optimal scheduling is NP-Complete in nearly all cases

Heuristic techniques are well developed

 Reorder operations to reflect the target machine performance constraints

```
Start End
             loadAI r_{arp},@a\Rightarrow r_1
                                                    //load 'a'
  4 4 add r_1, r_1 \Rightarrow r_1 \qquad // r_1 \leftarrow a \times 2
     7 loadAI r_{arp}, @b \Rightarrow r_2 //load 'b'
         9 mult r_1, r_2 \Rightarrow r_1    // r_1 \leftarrow (a \times 2) \times b
        12 loadAI r_{arp}, @c \Rightarrow r_2 //load 'c'
 10
 13
        14 mult r_1, r_2 \Rightarrow r_1    // r_1 \leftarrow (a \times 2 \times b) \times c
        17 loadAI r_{arp}, @d \Rightarrow r_2 //load 'd'
 15
        19 mult r_1, r_2 \Rightarrow r_1    // r_1 \leftarrow (a \times 2 \times b \times c) \times d
 18
                          r_1 \Rightarrow r_{arp}, @a //write r_a back to 'a'
        22 storeAI
 20
```

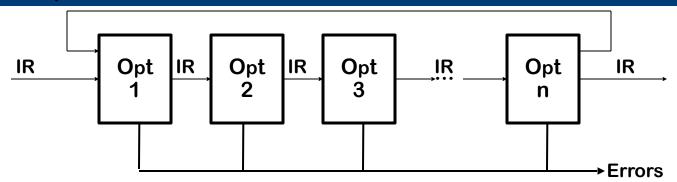
Traditional Three-part Compiler



Code Improvement (or Optimization)

- Analyzes IR and rewrites (or <u>transforms</u>) IR
- Primary goal is to reduce running time of the compiled code
 - May also improve space, power consumption, ...
- Must preserve "meaning" of the code

The Optimizer (or Middle End)



Modern optimizers are structured as a series of passes

Typical Transformations

- Discover & propagate some constant value
- Move a computation to a less frequently executed place
- Specialize some computation based on context
- Discover a redundant computation & remove it
- Remove useless or unreachable code
- Encode an idiom in some particularly efficient form