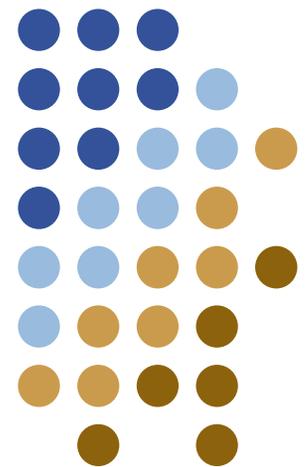
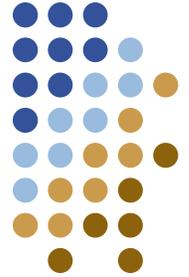


# Compilers

## Lecture 2 *Overview*

Yannis Smaragdakis, U. Athens  
(original slides by Sam Guyer@Tufts)



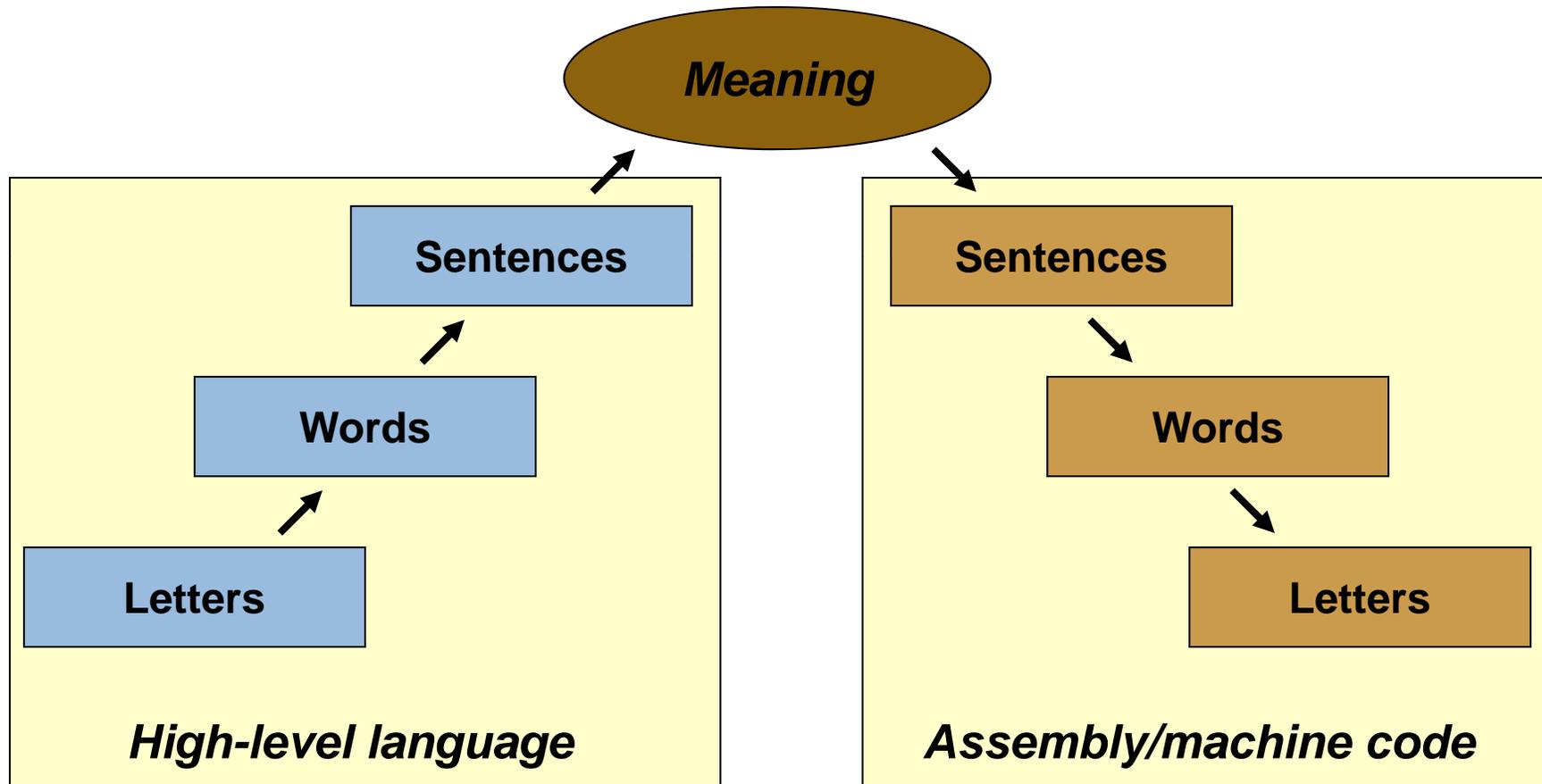
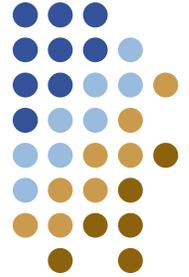


# Last time...

- The compilation problem
  - Source language
    - High-level abstractions
    - Easy to understand and maintain
  - Target language
    - Very low-level, close to machine
    - Few abstractions
- Concerns
  - Systematic, correct translation
  - High-quality translation



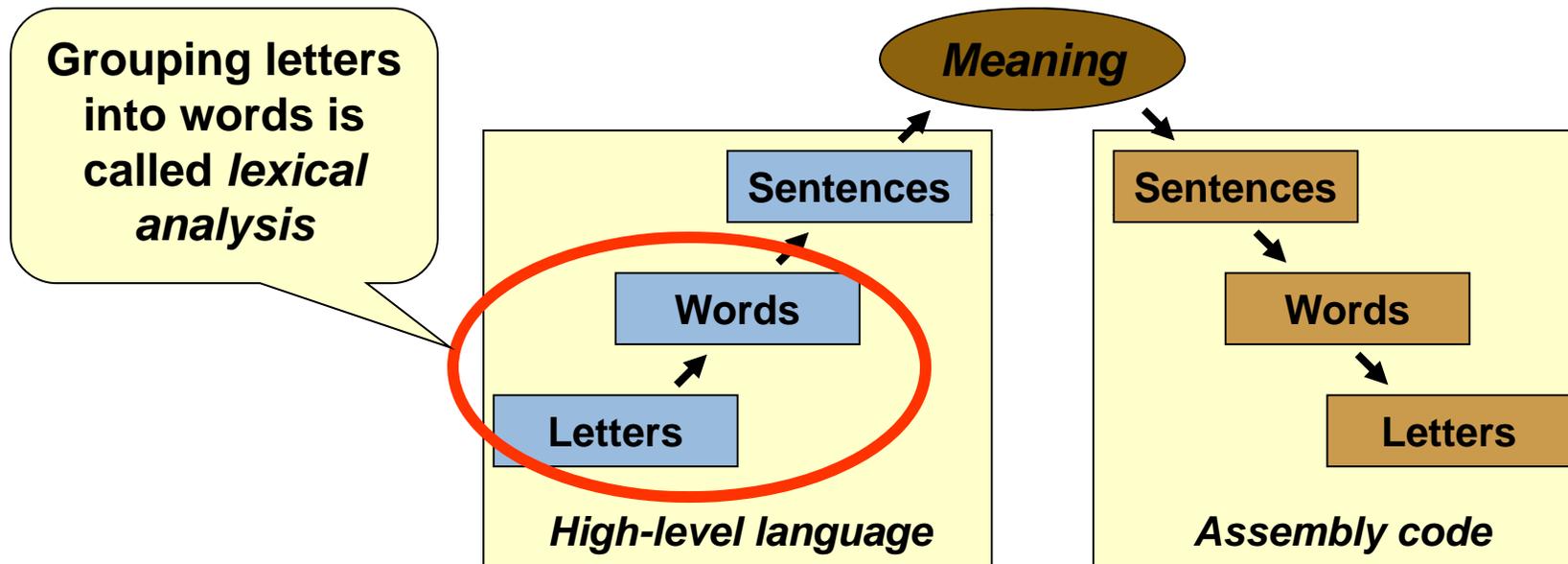
# Translation strategy





# Compilation strategy

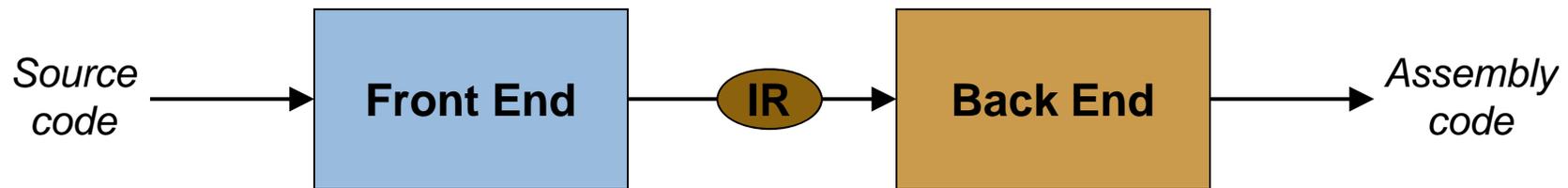
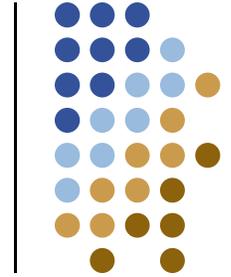
- Follows directly from translation strategy:



- A series of *passes*
  - Each pass performs one step
  - Transforms the program representation



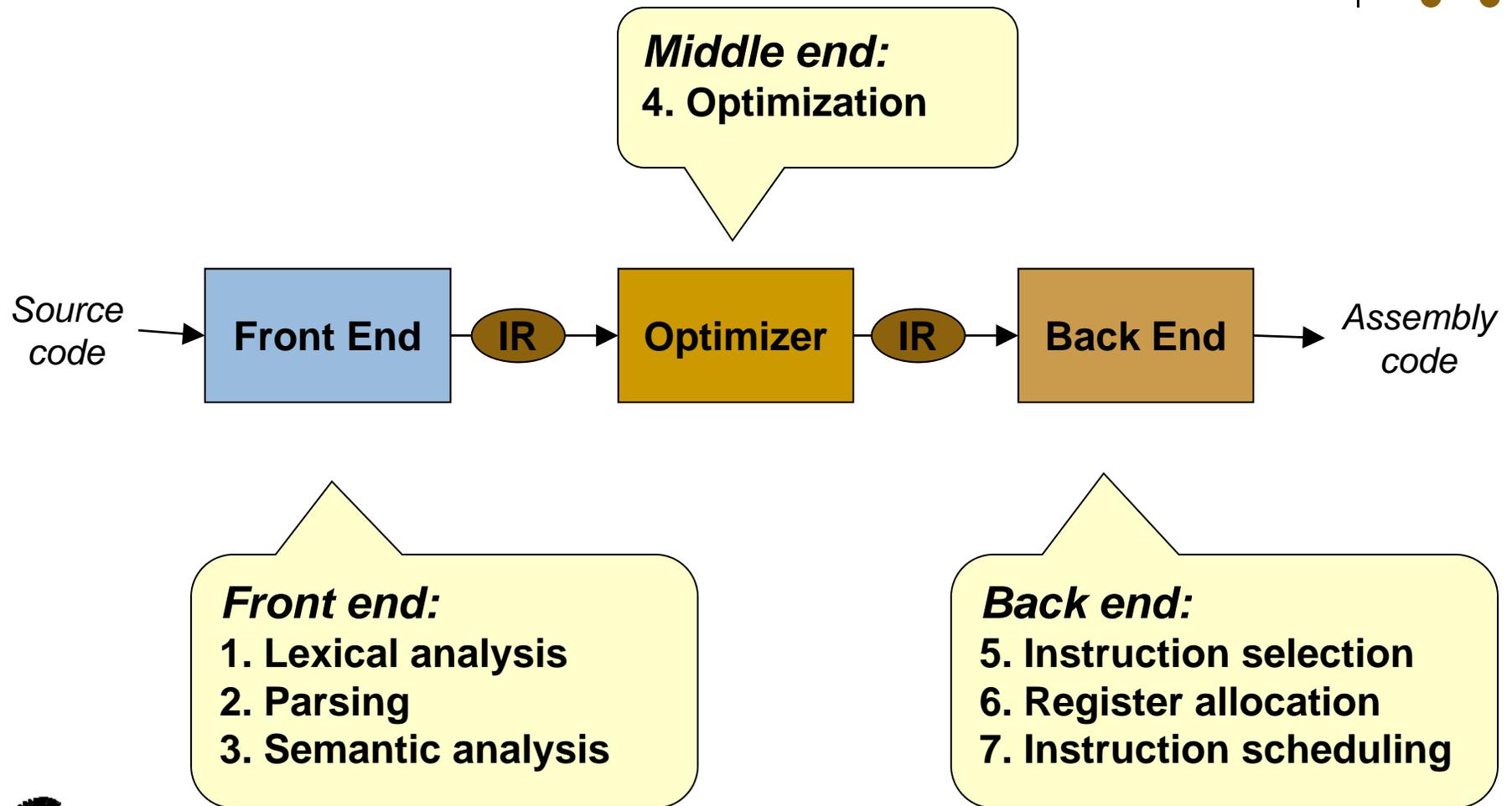
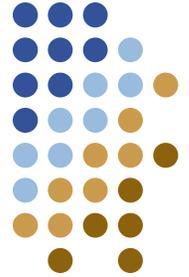
# Basic compiler structure



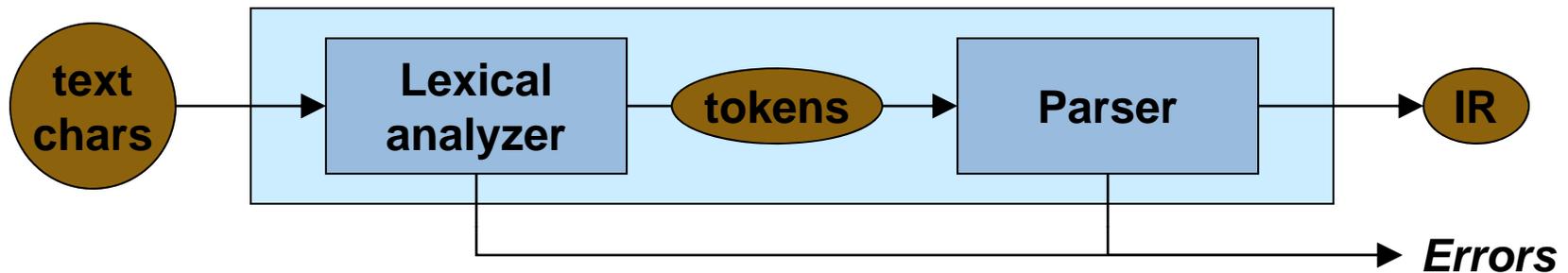
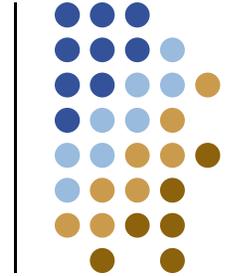
- Traditional two-pass compiler
  - **Front-end** reads in source code
  - **Internal representation** captures meaning
  - **Back-end** generates assembly
- Advantages?
  - Decouples input language from target machine



# Modern optimizing compiler

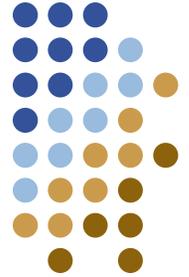


# The front end



- Responsibilities?
  - Recognize legal (and illegal programs)
  - Report errors in a useful way
  - Generate internal representation
- How it works
  - **Good news:** linear time, mostly generated automatically
  - By analogy to natural languages...





# Lexical Analysis

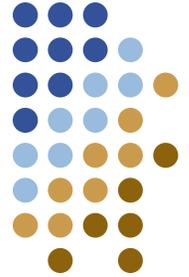
- First step: recognize words.
  - Smallest unit above letters

This is a sentence.

- Some lexical rules
  - Capital “T” (start of sentence symbol)
  - Blank “ ” (word separator)
  - Period “.” (end of sentence symbol)



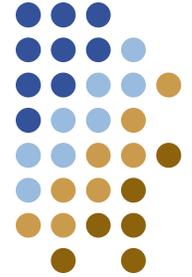
# More Lexical Analysis



- Lexical analysis is not trivial. Consider:  
`ist his ase nte nce`
- Often a key question:
  - What is the role of “white space” in the language?
- Plus, programming languages are typically more cryptic than English:

`*p->f ++ = -.12345e-5`



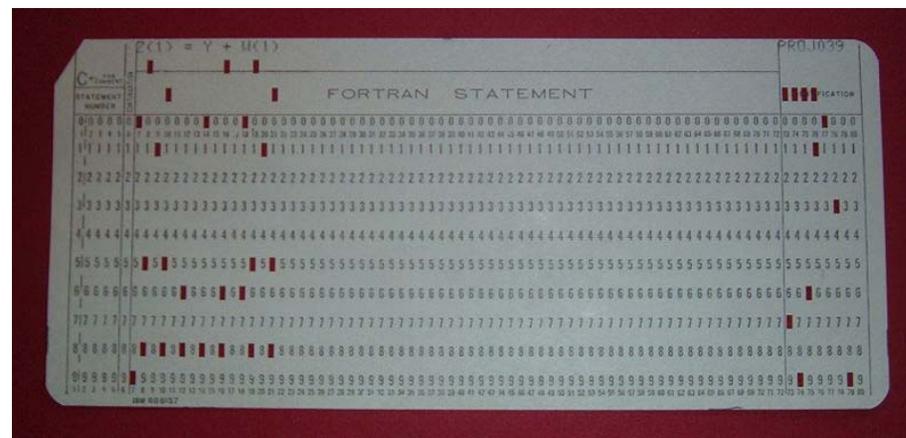


# Early compilers

- Strict formatting rules:

```
C AREA OF THE TRIANGLE
799 S = (IA + IB + IC) / 2.0
    AREA = SQRT( S * (S - IA) * (S - IB) *
+           (S - FLOATF(IC)))
    WRITE OUTPUT TAPE 6, 601, IA, IB, IC, AREA
```

- Why?
  - Punch cards!
  - And it's easier





# Lexical analysis

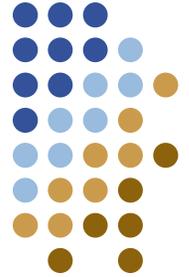
- Another example:

```
void func(float * ptr, float val)
{
    float result;
    result = val/*ptr;
}
```

- Why is this case interesting?  
“/\*” is the comment delimiter



# Lexical Analysis

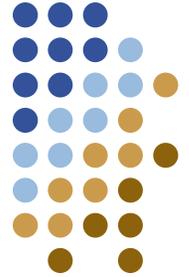


- Lexical analyzer divides program text into “words” or *tokens*

if x == y then z = 1; else z = 2;

- Tokens have value and type:  
<if, *keyword*>, <x, *identifier*>, <==, *operator*>, etc....



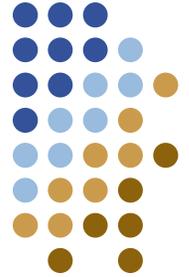


# Specification

- How do we specify tokens?
  - Keyword – an exact string
  - What about identifier? floating point number?
- Regular expressions
  - Just like Unix tools grep, awk, sed, etc.
  - Identifier: `[a-zA-Z_][a-zA-Z_0-9]*`
  - Algorithms for matching regexps
    - Actually, generate code that does the matching
    - This code is often called a *scanner*



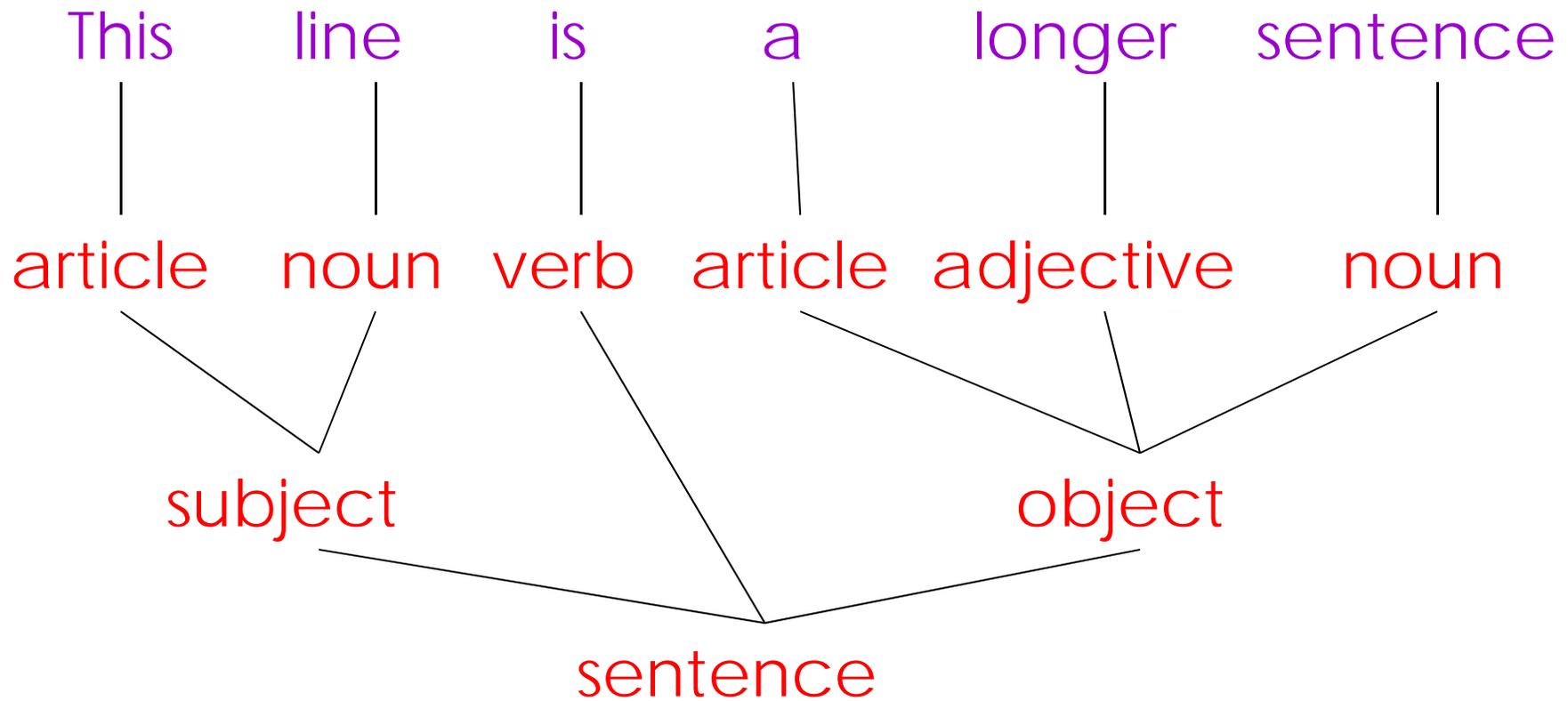
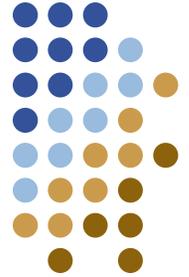
# Parsing

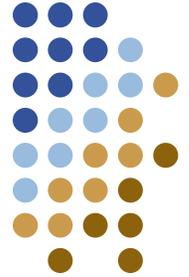


- Once words are understood, the next step is to understand sentence structure
- Parsing = Diagramming Sentences
  - The diagram is a tree...



# Diagramming a Sentence



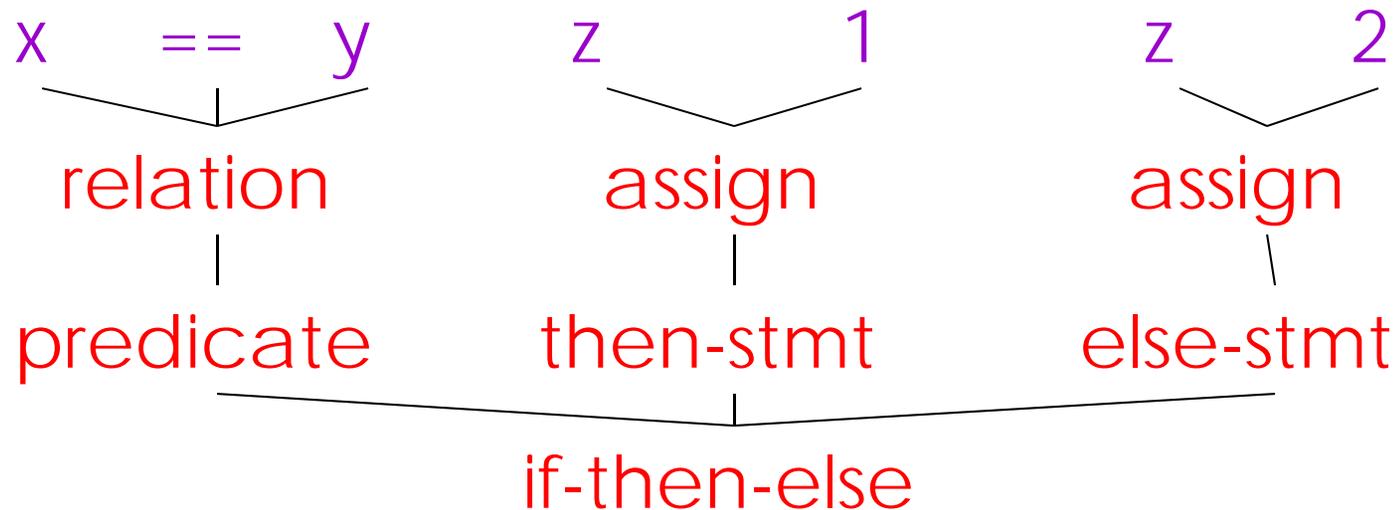


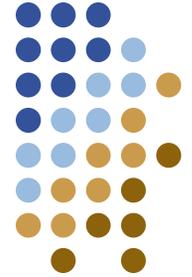
# Diagramming programs

- Diagramming program expressions is the same
- Consider:

If  $x == y$  then  $z = 1$ ; else  $z = 2$ ;

- Diagrammed:





# Specification

- How do we describe the language?  
*Same as English: using grammar rules*

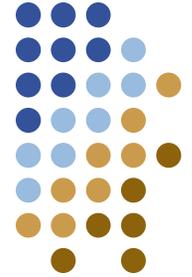
1. *sentence*  $\rightarrow$  *subject verb object*  
2. *subject*  $\rightarrow$  *noun-phrase*  
3. *noun-phrase*  $\rightarrow$  *article noun-phrase*  
4.                   | *adjective noun-phrase*  
5.                   | *noun*  
...etc...

1. *goal*  $\rightarrow$  *expr*  
2. *expr*  $\rightarrow$  *expr op term*  
3.           | *term*  
4. *term*  $\rightarrow$  number  
5.           | id  
6. *op*    $\rightarrow$  +  
7.           | -

Tokens from scanner

- Formal grammars
  - Chomsky hierarchy – **context-free grammars**
  - Each rule is called a **production**





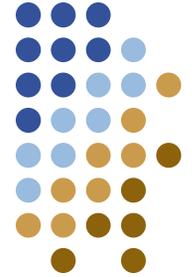
# Using grammars

- Given a grammar, we can **derive** sentences by repeated substitution
- **Parsing** is the reverse process – given a sentence, find a derivation (same as diagramming)

1.	<i>goal</i>	→	<i>expr</i>
2.	<i>expr</i>	→	<i>expr op term</i>
3.			<i>term</i>
4.	<i>term</i>	→	<u>number</u>
5.			<u>id</u>
6.	<i>op</i>	→	+
7.			-

<u>Production</u>	<u>Result</u>
	<i>goal</i>
1	<i>expr</i>
2	<i>expr op term</i>
5	<i>expr op y</i>
7	<i>expr - y</i>
2	<i>expr op term - y</i>
4	<i>expr op 2 - y</i>
6	<i>expr + 2 - y</i>
3	<i>term + 2 - y</i>
5	<i>x + 2 - y</i>

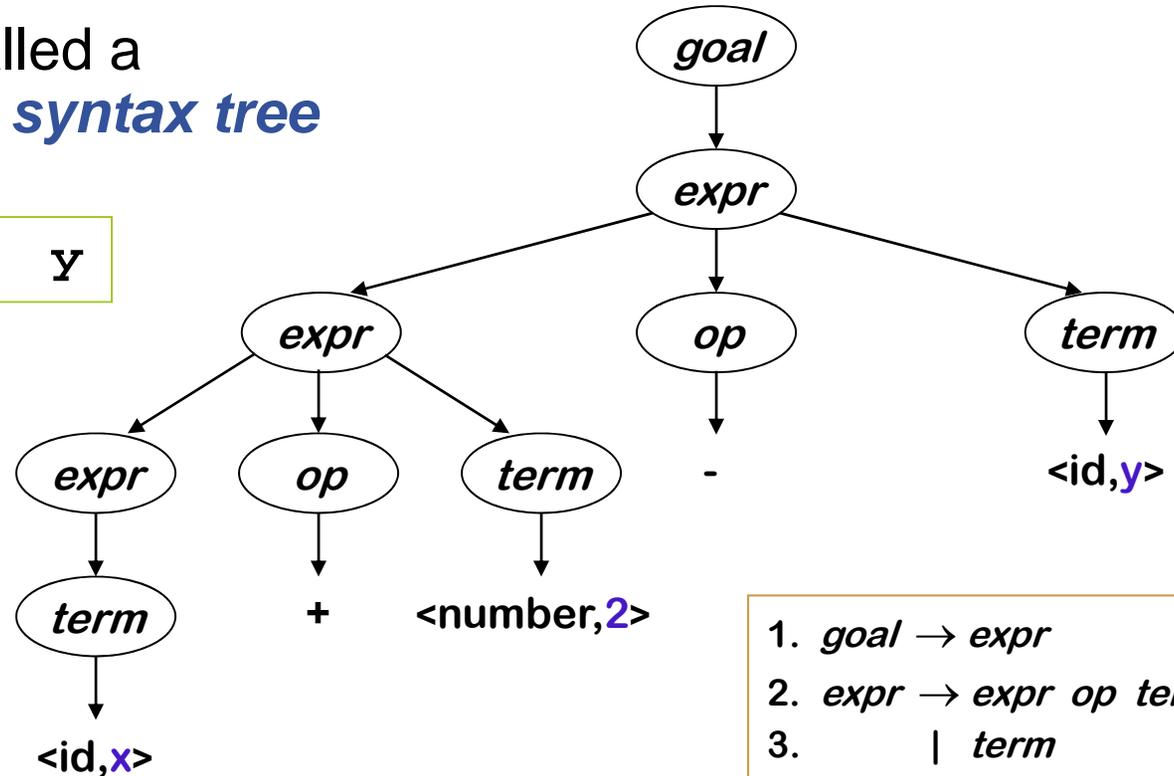




# Representation

- Diagram is called a *parse tree* or *syntax tree*

x + 2 - y



1. *goal* → *expr*
2. *expr* → *expr op term*
3.     | *term*
4. *term* → number
5.     | id
6. *op* → +
7.     | -

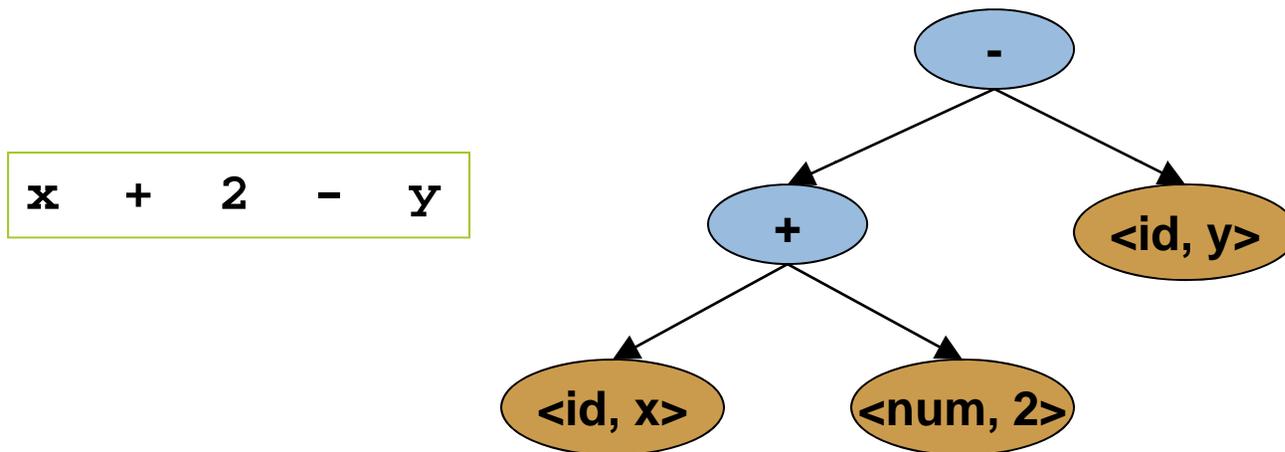
- Notice: Contains a lot of unneeded information.





# Representation

- Compilers often use an *abstract syntax tree*



- More concise and convenient:
  - Summarizes grammatical structure without including all the details of the derivation
  - ASTs are one kind of *intermediate representation* (IR)



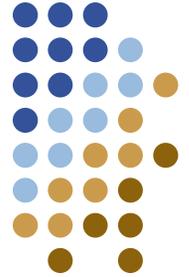


# Semantic Analysis

- Once sentence structure is understood, we can try to understand “meaning”
  - What would the ideal situation be?
  - Formally check the program against a specification
  - This capability is coming
- Compilers perform limited analysis to catch inconsistencies
- Some do more analysis to improve the performance of the program



# Semantic Analysis in English



- Example:

Jack said Jerry left his assignment at home.

What does “his” refer to? Jack or Jerry?

- Even worse:

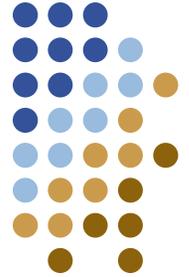
Jack said Jack left his assignment at home?

How many Jacks are there?

Which one left the assignment?



# Semantic analysis in programs

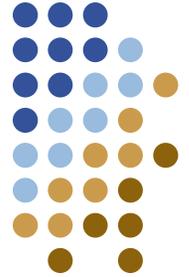


- Programming languages define strict rules to avoid such ambiguities
- What does this code print? Why?
  - This Java code prints “4”; the inner-most declaration is used.

```
{  
    int Jack = 3;  
    {  
        int Jack = 4;  
        System.out.print(Jack);  
    }  
}
```



# More Semantic Analysis



- Compilers perform many semantic checks besides variable bindings

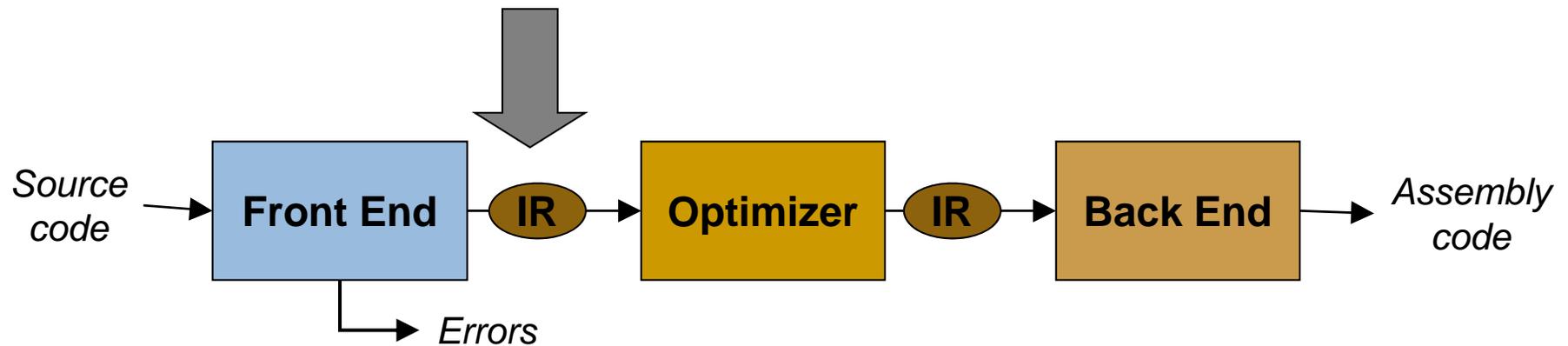
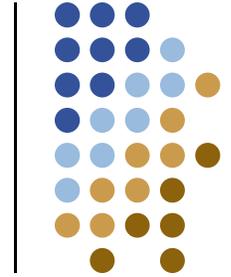
- Example:

Jack left her homework at home.

- A “type mismatch” between **her** and **Jack**; we know they are different people  
*(I’m assuming Jack is male)*



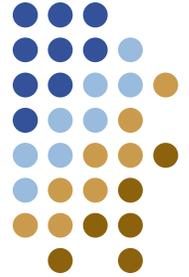
# Where are we?



- Front end
  - Produces fully-checked AST
  - Problem: AST still represents source-level semantics



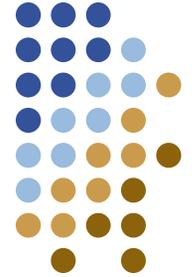
# Intermediate representations



- Many different kinds of IRs
  - High-level IR (e.g. AST)
    - Closer to source code
    - Hides implementation details
  - Low-level IR
    - Closer to the machine
    - Exposes details (registers, instructions, etc)
  - Many tradeoffs in IR design
- Most compilers have 1 or maybe 2 IRs:
  - Typically closer to low-level IR
  - Better for optimization and code generation

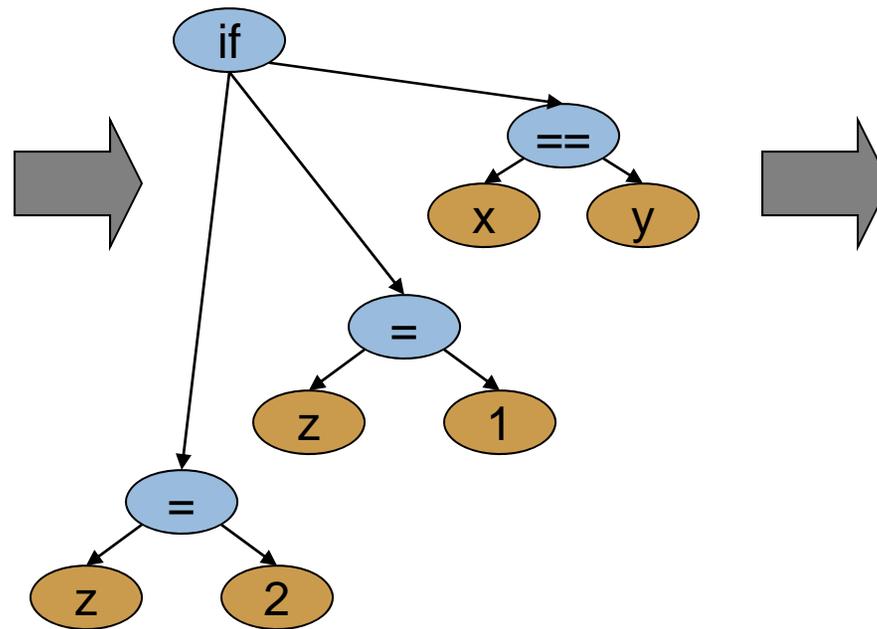


# IR lowering



- Preparing for optimization and code gen
  - Dismantle complex structures into simple ones
  - Process is called *lowering*
  - Result is an IR called *three-address code*

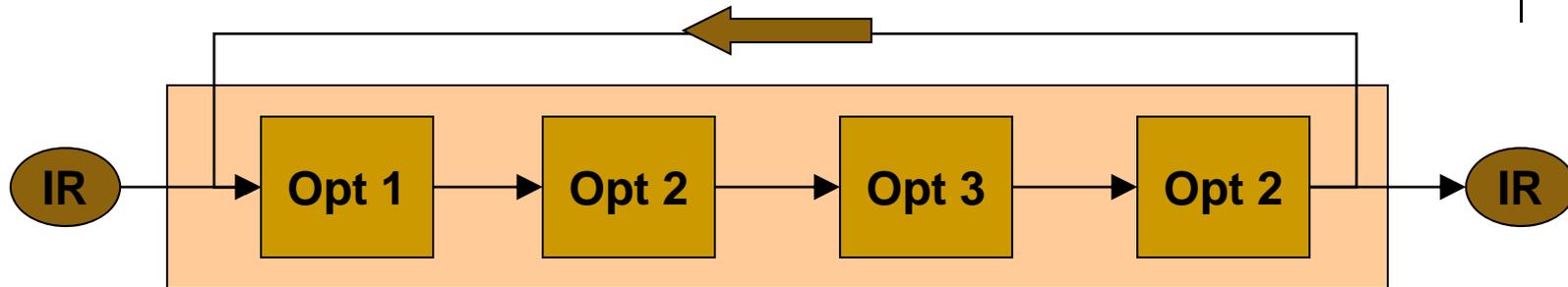
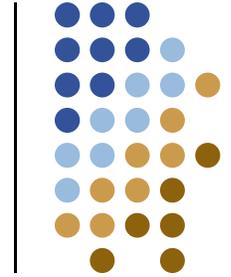
```
if (x == y)
  z = 1;
else
  z = 2;
```



```
t0 = x == y
br t0 label1
goto label2
label1:
z = 1
goto label3
label2:
z = 2
label3:
```



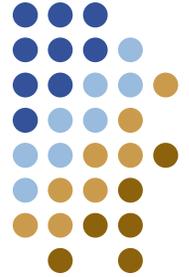
# Optimization



- Series of passes – often repeated
  - **Goal:** reduce some cost
    - Run faster
    - Use less memory
    - Conserve some other resource, like power
  - Must preserve program semantics
- Dominant cost in most modern compilers

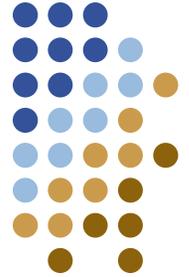


# Optimization



- General scheme
  - Analysis phase:
    - Pass over code looking for opportunities
    - Often uses a formal analysis framework
  - Transformation phase
    - Modify the code to exploit opportunity
- Classic optimizations
  - Dead-code elimination, common sub-expression elimination, loop-invariant code motion, strength reduction
- This class: time permitting





# Optimization example

- Array accesses

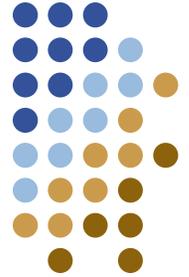
```
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)  
  for (j = 0; j < M; j++)  
    A[i][j] = A[i][j] + C;
```

```
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)  
  for (j = 0; j < M; j++){  
    t0 = &A + (i * M) + j  
    (*t0) += C;  
  }
```

```
for (i = 0; i < N; i++) {  
  t1 = i * M  
  for (j = 0; j < M; j++){  
    t0 = &A + t1 + j  
    (*t0) += C;  
  }  
}
```

```
t1 = 0;  
for (i = 0; i < N; i++) {  
  for (j = 0; j < M; j++){  
    t0 = &A + t1 + j  
    (*t0) += C;  
  }  
  t1 = t1 + M;  
}
```





# Optimization

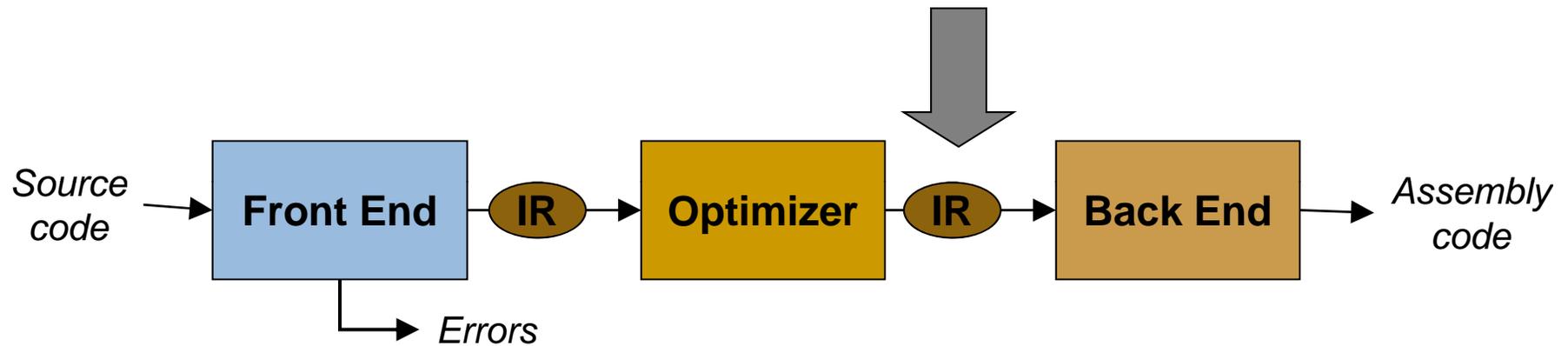
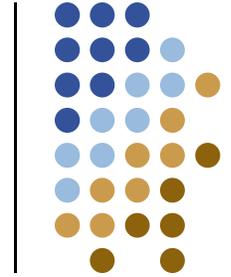
- Often contain assumptions about performance tradeoffs of the underlying machine

Like what?

- Relative speed of arithmetic operations – plus versus times
- Possible parallelism in CPU
  - Example: multiple additions can go on concurrently
- Cost of memory versus computation
  - Should I save values I've already computed or recompute?
- Size of various caches
  - In particular, the instruction cache



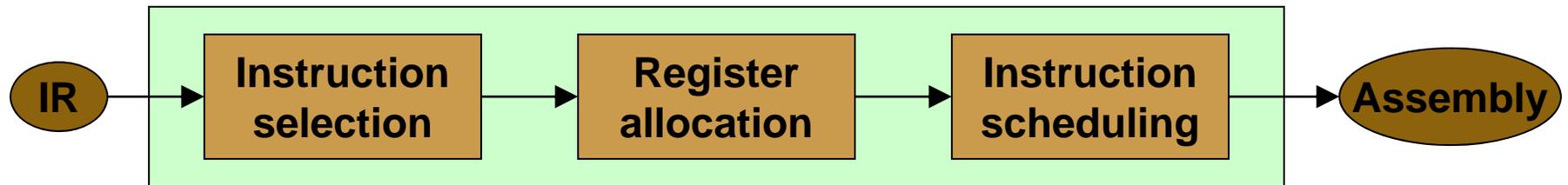
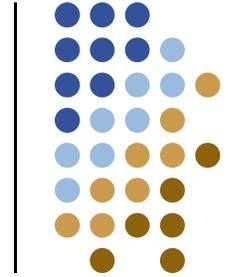
# Where are we?



- Optimization output
  - Transformed program
  - Typically, same level of abstraction

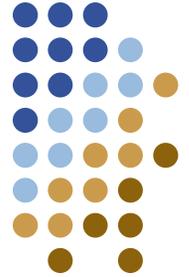


# Back end



- Responsibilities
  - Map abstract instructions to real machine architecture
  - Allocate storage for variables in registers
  - Schedule instructions (often to exploit parallelism)
- How it works
  - **Bad news:** very expensive, poorly understood, some automation

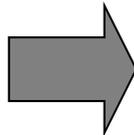




# Instruction selection

- Example: RISC instructions

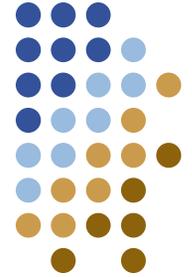
```
...  
label1:  
t1 = b * c  
y = a + t1  
z = d + t1  
...
```



```
load @b      => r1  
load @c      => r2  
mult r1, r2  => r3  
load @a      => r1  
add r3, r1   => r1  
store r1     => @y  
load @d      => r1  
add r3, r1   => r1  
store r1     => @z
```

- Notice:
  - Explicit loads and stores
  - Lots of registers – “*virtual registers*”





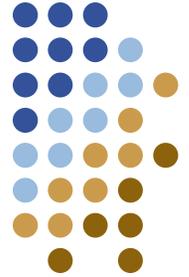
# Register allocation

- Goals:
  - Have each value in a register when it is used
  - Manage a limited set of resources
  - Often need to insert loads and stores

	<b>Intel Nehalem</b>	<b>Intel Penryn</b>
L1 Size / L1 Latency	64KB / 4 cycles	64KB / 3 cycles
L2 Size / L2 Latency	256KB / 11 cycles	6MB* / 15 cycles
L3 Size / L3 Latency	8MB / 39 cycles	N/A
Main Memory (DDR3)	107 cycles (33.4 ns)	160 cycles (50.3 ns)

- Algorithms
  - Optimal allocation is NP-complete
  - Many back-end algorithms compute approximate solutions to NP-complete problems

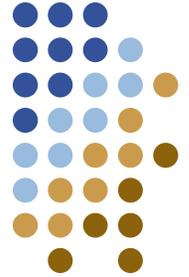




# Instruction scheduling

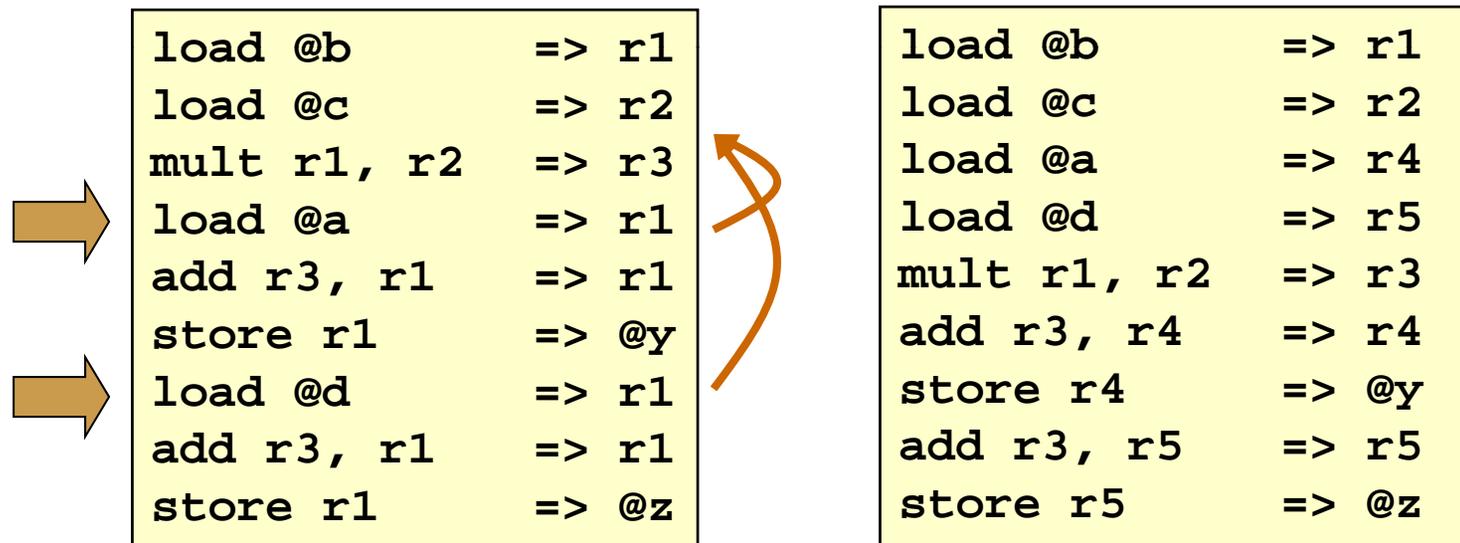
- Change the order of instructions
  - Why would that matter?
  - Even single-core CPUs have parallelism
  - Multiple functional units – called superscalar
    - Group together different kinds of operations
    - E.g., integer vs floating point
  - Parallelism in memory subsystem
    - Initiate a load from memory
    - Do other work while waiting





# Instruction scheduling

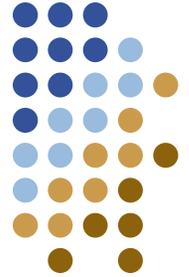
- Example:
  - Move loads early to avoid waiting
  - BUT: often creates extra register pressure



May stall on loads

Start loads early, hide latency, but need 5 registers

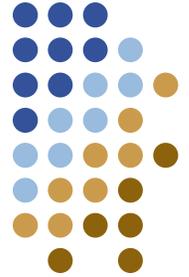




# Finished program

- What else does the code need to run?
- Programs need support at run-time
  - Start-up code
  - Interface to OS
  - Libraries
- Varies significantly between languages
  - C – fairly minimal
  - Java – Java virtual machine





# Run-time System

- Memory management services
  - Manage heap allocation
  - Garbage collection
- Run-time type checking
- Error processing (exception handling)
- Interface to the operating system
- Support of parallelism
  - Parallel thread initiation
  - Communication and synchronization

