

Compiler Architecture and Design Issues

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ABSTRACT

A compiler translates and/or compiles a program written in a suitable source language into an equivalent target language through a number of stages. Starting with recognition of token through target code generation provide a basis for communication interface between a user and a processor in significant amount of time. A new approach GLAP model for design and time complexity analysis of lexical analyzer is proposed in this paper. In the model different steps of tokenizer (generation of tokens) through lexemes, and better input system implementation have been introduced. Disk access and state machine driven Lex are also reflected in the model towards its complete utility. The model also introduces generation of parser. Implementation of symbol table and its interface using stack is another innovation of the model in acceptance with both theoretically and in implementation widely. The course is suitable for advanced undergraduate and beginning graduate students. The growing complexity and high efficiency requirements of embedded systems call for new code optimization techniques and architecture exploration, using retargetable C and C++ compilers.

Keywords :— compiler, recognition, token, complexity, interface

I. INTRODUCTION

Compilers and operating systems constitute the basic interfaces between a programmer and the machine. Compiler is a program which converts high level programming language into low level programming language or source code into machine code. Understanding of these relationships eases the inevitable transitions to new hardware and programming languages and improves a person's ability to make appropriate trade off in design and implementation. Many of the techniques used to construct a compiler are useful in a wide variety of applications involving symbolic data. The term compilation denotes the conversion of an algorithm expressed in a human-oriented source language to an equivalent algorithm expressed in a hardware- oriented target language. We shall be concerned with the engineering of compilers their organization, algorithms, data structures and user interfaces. It is not difficult to see that this translation process from source text to instruction sequence requires considerable effort and follows complex rules. The construction of the first compiler for the language Fortran(formula translator) around 1956 was a daring enterprise, whose success was not at all assured. It involved about 18 man years of effort, and therefore figured among the largest programming projects of the time. Programming languages are tools used to construct formal descriptions of finite computations

(algorithms). Each computation consists of operations that transform a given initial state into some final state.

II. STORAGE MANAGEMENT

In this section we shall discuss management of storage for collections of objects, including temporary variables, during their lifetimes. The important goals are the most economical use of memory and the simplicity of access functions to individual objects. Source language properties govern the possible approaches, as indicated by the following questions :

1. Is the extent of an object restricted, and what relationships hold between the extents of distinct objects (e.g. are they nested)?
2. Does the static nesting of the program text control a procedure's access to global objects, or is access dependent upon the dynamic nesting of calls?
3. Is the exact number and size of all objects known at compilation time?
 - Frontend
 - Dependent on source language
 - Lexical analysis
 - Parsing
 - Semantic analysis (e.g., type checking)

A. Static Storage Management

We speak of static storage management if the compiler can provide fixed addresses for all objects at the time the program is translated (here we assume that translation includes binding), i.e. we can answer the first question above with 'yes'. Arrays with dynamic bounds, recursive procedures and the use of anonymous objects are prohibited. The condition is fulfilled for languages like FORTRAN and BASIC, and for the objects lying on the outermost contour of an ALGOL 60 or Pascal program. (In contrast, arrays with dynamic bounds can occur even in the outer block of an ALGOL 68 program.) If the storage for the elements of an array with dynamic bounds is managed separately, the condition can be forced to hold in this case also.

B. Dynamic Storage Management Using a Stack

All declared values in languages such as Pascal and SIMULA have restricted lifetimes. Further, the environments in these languages are nested: The extent of all objects belonging to the contour of a block or procedure ends before that of objects from the dynamically enclosing contour. Thus we can use a stack discipline to manage these objects: Upon procedure call or block entry, the activation record containing storage for the local objects of the procedure or block is pushed onto the stack. At block end, procedure return or a jump out of these constructs the activation record is popped of the stack. (The entire activation record is stacked, we do not deal with single objects individually!) An object of automatic extent occupies storage in the activation record of the syntactic construct with which it is associated. The position of the object is characterized by the base address, b , of the activation record and the relative location offset, R , of its storage within the activation record. R must be known at compile time but b cannot be known (otherwise we would have static storage allocation). To access the object, b must be determined at runtime and placed in a register. R is then either added to the register and the result used as an indirect address, or R appears as the constant in a direct access function of the form 'register+constant'. The extension, which may vary in size from activation to activation, is often called the second order storage of the activation record.

C. Dynamic Storage Management Using a Heap

The last resort is to allocate storage on a heap: The objects are allocated storage arbitrarily within an area of memory. Their

addresses are determined at the time of allocation, and they can only be accessed indirectly. Examples of objects requiring heap

storage are anonymous objects such as those created by the Pascal new function and objects whose size changes unpredictably during their lifetime. (Linked lists and the extensible arrays of ALGOL 68 belong to the latter class.) The use of a stack storage discipline is not required, but simply provides a convenient mechanism for reclaiming storage when a contour is no longer relevant. By storing the activation records on a heap, we broaden the possibilities for specifying the lifetimes of

objects. Storage for an activation record is analyzed and understood all the provided review comments thoroughly. Now make the required amendments in your paper. If you are not confident about any review comment, then don't forget to get clarity about that comment. And in some cases there could be chances where your paper receives number of critical remarks. In that case don't get disheartened and try to improvise the maximum. Released only if the program fragment (block, procedure, class) to which it belongs has been left and no pointers to objects within this activation record exist. Heap allocation is particularly simple if all objects required during execution can 'fit' into the designated area at the same time. In most cases, however, this is not possible. Either the area is not large enough or, in the case of virtual storage, the working set becomes too large. We shall only sketch three possible recycling strategies for storage and indicate the support requirements placed upon the compiler by these strategies.

Storage can be recycled automatically by a process known as garbage collection, which operates in two steps:

- Mark. All accessible objects on the heap are marked as being accessible.
- Collect. All heap storage is scanned.
- The storage for unmarked objects is recycled, and all marks are erased.

This has the advantage that no access paths can exist to recycled storage, but it requires considerable support from the compiler and leads to periodic pauses in program execution. In order to carry out the mark and collect steps, it must be possible for the

run-time system to find all pointers into the heap from outside, find all heap pointers held within a given object on the heap, mark an object without destroying information, and find all heap objects on a linear sweep through the heap. Only the questions of finding pointers affect the

compiler; there are three principal possibilities for doing this:

1. The locations of all pointers are known beforehand and coded into the marking algorithm.
2. Pointers are discovered by a dynamic type check. (In other words, by examining a storage location we can discover whether or not it contains a pointer.)
3. The compiler creates a template for each activation record and for the type of every object that can appear on the heap. Pointer locations and (if necessary) the object length can be determined from the template.

III. ERROR HANDLING

Error Handling is concerned with failures due to many causes: errors in the compiler or its environment (hardware, operating system), design errors in the program being compiled, an incomplete understanding of the source language, transcription errors, incorrect data, etc. The tasks of the error handling process are to detect each error, report it to the user, and possibly make some repair to allow processing to continue. It cannot generally determine the cause of the error, but can only diagnose the visible symptoms. Similarly, any repair cannot be considered a correction (in the sense that it carries out the user's intent); it merely neutralizes the symptom so that processing may continue.

The purpose of error handling is to aid the programmer by highlighting inconsistencies. It has a low frequency in comparison with other compiler tasks, and hence the time required to complete it is largely irrelevant, but it cannot be regarded as an 'add-on' feature of a compiler. Its influence upon the overall design is pervasive, and it is a necessary debugging tool during construction of the compiler itself. Proper design and implementation of an error handler, however, depends strongly upon complete understanding of the compilation process. This is why we have deferred consideration of error handling until now.

Errors, Symptoms, Anomalies and Limitations

We distinguish between the actual error and its symptoms. Like a physician, the error handler sees only symptoms. From these symptoms, it may attempt to diagnose the underlying error. The diagnosis always involves some uncertainty, so we may choose simply to report these symptoms with no further attempt at diagnosis. Thus the word 'error' is often used when 'symptom' would be more appropriate. A simple example of the symptom/error distinction is the use of an undeclared identifier in LAX.

The use is only a symptom, and could have arisen in several ways:

- The identifier was misspelled on this use.
- The declaration was misspelled or omitted.
- The syntactic structure has been corrupted, causing this
- use to fall outside of the scope of the declaration.

Most compilers simply report the symptom and let the user perform the diagnosis. An error is detectable if and only if it results in a symptom that violates the definition of the language.

This means that the error handling procedure is dependent upon the language definition, but independent of the particular source program being analyzed. For example, the spelling errors in an identifier will be detectable in LAX (provided that they do not result in another declared identifier) but not in FORTRAN, which will simply treat the misspelling as a new implicit declaration. We shall use the term anomaly to denote something that appears suspicious, but that we cannot be certain is an error. Anomalies cannot be derived mechanically from the language definition, but require some exercise of judgement on the part of the implementor. As experience is gained with users of a particular language, one can spot frequently-occurring errors and report them as anomalies before their symptoms arise.

IV. CODE IMPROVEMENT FOR LOW POWER ENERGY

In addition to the same old code improvement goals of high performance and tiny code size, the facility and energy potency of generated code is progressively necessary. Embedded-system architects should conform sufficient cooling constraints and should ensure economical use of battery capability in mobile systems. Compilers will support power and energy savings. Frequently, performance improvement implicitly optimizes energy efficiency; in several cases, the shorter the program runtime, the less energy is consumed. "Energy-conscious" compilers, armed with an energy model of the target machine, provide priority to the lowest-energy-consuming (instead of the littlest or fastest) instruction sequences. Since systems generally pay a big portion of energy on memory accesses, an alternative choice is to maneuver oftentimes used blocks of program code or knowledge into economical on-chip memory.

V. NEW IMPROVEMENT METHODOLOGIES

Despite the difficulties in compiler style for embedded processors, there's some smart news: not like compilers for desktop computers, compilers for ASIPs needn't be in no time. Most embedded-software developers agree that a slow compiler is appropriate, as long as it generates economical code. Even long compilation of AN application (with all improvement flags switched on) would be, as long because the compiler delivers its result quicker than a person's software engineer. A compiler will exploit AN hyperbolic quantity of compilation time by victimization simpler (and a lot of time-consuming) improvement techniques. Examples square measure genetic algorithms, simulated hardening, whole number applied math, and branch-and-bound search, that square measure on the far side the scope of ancient desktop compilers. Researchers have with success applied these techniques to code improvement for difficult architectures love DSPs, and more add this direction appears worthy.

Phase coupling Many fashionable superior embedded processors have terribly long instruction word architectures. A VLIW processor problems multiple directions (typically four to eight) per instruction cycle to use similarity in application programs. as a result of all parallel practical units should be fed with operands and store a result, a VLIW processor ordinarily needs several register file ports, that square measure pricey from a value performance viewpoint. agglomeration the info path, with every cluster containing its own native units and register file, will circumvent this expense. getting high code quality for clustered VLIW processors needs section coupling—close interaction between code generation phases in an exceedingly compiler—which isn't enforced in ancient

compilers. The multiple phases of compilers should execute in some order, and every section will impose uncalled-for restrictions on ulterior phases. A phase-ordering downside exists between register allocation and scheduling: If register allocation comes initial, false dependencies between directions, caused by register sharing among variables, may occur, limiting the answer house for the hardware. If planning comes initial, the register pressure (the range of at the same time needed physical registers) is also therefore high that several spill directions should be inserted within the code. This puts some further needs on the compile.

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