

CS107: Outlook

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- Final topics about compilers in practice and research.
- Review for the final exam.
- Final exam: May 7th, 3:30-5:30 pm at JCC 140.

Parsers and Parser Generators

- In the class, we have implemented a recursive-descent parser for simple languages.
- There are many different ways to write parsers, or even generate them automatically from a grammar specification.

- Top-down parsing: recognize what is expected to be seen
 - Recursive-descent parsing
 - Many variants of LL (left-to-right, leftmost derivation)
 - Cannot handle left recursion (e.g. $E \rightarrow E + E$) without transformation
- Bottom-up parsing: recognize what has already been seen
 - Many variants of LR (left-to-right, rightmost derivation in reverse)
 - Generally more powerful than top-down parsing

- Given a grammar specification, automatically generate a parser for it.
- Examples
 - Yacc / Bison for C/C++
 - ANTLR
 - ...

- Given a grammar specification, automatically generate a parser for it.
- Examples
 - Yacc / Bison for C/C++
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 - ...
- Less control over error handling and reporting
- Performance tends to be worse than hand-written parser

Compiler Generators

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- Parser can be generated from a grammar specification, but what about the rest of the compiler?
- Interpreters and compilers are closely related, and we can mechanically obtain compilers by transforming interpreter!

- Idea: specializing self-applicable partial evaluator
- Futamura projections (Yoshihiko Futamura, 1971)

Systems • Computers • Controls, Vol. 2, No. 5, 1971
Translated from Denshi Tsushin Gakkai Ronbunshi, Vol. 54-C, No. 8, August 1971, pp. 721-728

Partial Evaluation of Computation Process—an Approach to a Compiler-Compiler

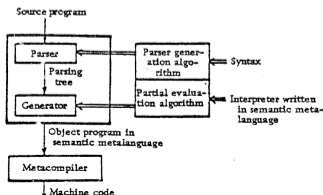
Yoshihiko Futamura, Member

Central Research Laboratory, Hitachi, Ltd., Kokubunji, Tokyo, Japan 185

SUMMARY

This paper reports the relationship between formal description of semantics (i. e., interpreter) of a programming language and an actual compiler. The paper also describes a method to automatically generate an actual compiler from a formal description which is, in some sense, the partial evaluation of a computation process.

The compiler-compiler inspired by this method differs from conventional ones in that the compiler-compiler based on our method can describe



Partial Evaluation

Partial evaluation is the process of evaluating a program with known inputs at compile time, producing a specialized version of the program that is more efficient for those inputs.

```
def pow(x: Int, n: Int): Int =  
  if (n == 0) 1 else x * pow(x, n - 1)
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```
def pow(x: Int, n: Int): Int =  
  if (n == 0) 1 else x * pow(x, n - 1)
```

Specialize it with $n = 3$ at compile time (but x is only known at run time):

```
  pow(x, 3)  
=> if (3 == 0) 1 else x * pow(x, 2)  
=> x * pow(x, 2)  
=> x * (if (2 == 0) 1 else x * pow(x, 1))  
=> x * (x * (if (1 == 0) 1 else x * pow(x, 0)))  
=> x * (x * (x * 1))
```

The partial evaluation result is a *program* $x * (x * (x * 1))$ that is more efficient than the original program $\text{pow}(x, 3)$.

Partial Evaluation

- Notation: partial evaluator (specializer/mixer) pe ; interpreter $eval$ for a source language; $\llbracket p \rrbracket(x)$ denotes executing program p on x .
- First projection (compilation): $\llbracket pe \rrbracket(eval, srcPrg) = tgtPrg$
 - such that $\llbracket eval \rrbracket(srcPrg, input) = \llbracket tgtPrg \rrbracket(input)$

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- Fourth projection (self-generation): $\llbracket cogen \rrbracket(pe) = cogen$

- GraalVM/Truffle (Oracle) is a partial evaluation framework for building compilers from interpreters.
- Support many languages (Python, JavaScript, etc.) running on the JVM with high performance.
- The compiler performs better by removing the interpreter overhead.

Practical Partial Evaluation for High-Performance Dynamic Language Runtimes.

Würthinger et al., PLDI 17

Optimizations

The Phase Ordering Problem

Phase-ordering problem: optimizations can be mutually beneficial, and the order in which they are applied can affect the final performance of the generated code.

- Choose a fixed order
- Iteratively apply optimizations until no more improvement can be made

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But neither guarantees the optimal result!

The Phase Ordering Problem

```
x := 42;
while (...) {
  if (x == 42) {
    f();
  } else {
    g();
    x := x + 1;
  }
}
y := x;
```

```
// How can we optimize it to
// the following code?
x := 42;
while (...) {
  f();
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// the following code?*

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x := 42;
while (...) {
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```

- Need constant propagation and dead-code elimination, but ...
 - Constant propagation cannot establish that x is always 10, because of the loop.
 - DCE cannot remove the **else**-branch, because it cannot determine that it is unreachable.

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- Need constant propagation and dead-code elimination, but ...
 - Constant propagation cannot establish that x is always 10, because of the loop.
 - DCE cannot remove the **else**-branch, because it cannot determine that it is unreachable.
- Each optimization/analysis makes pessimistic assumptions, and combined we get stuck at a local minimum, no matter the order of these optimizations!

Still not a fully solved problem, but there are some promising approaches:

- Super-optimization: search for the optimal sequence of instructions for a given program, often using techniques like theorem proving, brute-force enumeration, or genetic algorithms.
- Equality saturation: represent all possible equivalent programs in a single data structure (e.g., e-graph), and then search for the optimal program within this structure.

- egg (<https://egraphs-good.github.io/>) is an e-graph and equality saturation implementation in Rust.
- In e-graph representation, n equalities can be constructed in $O(n \log n)$ time.
- *egg: Fast and extensible equality saturation*. Willsey et al., POPL '20.

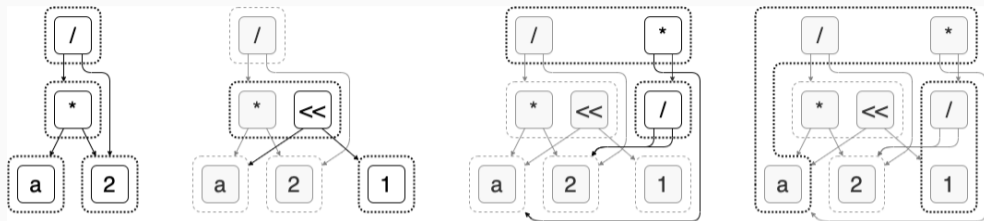
Defining a simple semi-ring language:

```
define_language! {  
  enum SimpleLanguage {  
    Num(i32),  
    "+" = Add([Id; 2]),  
    "*" = Mul([Id; 2]),  
    Symbol(Symbol),  
  }  
}
```

Providing the possible algebraic equalities:

```
fn make_rules() -> Vec<Rewrite<SimpleLanguage, ()>> {
    vec![
        rewrite!("commute-add"; "(+ ?a ?b)" => "(+ ?b ?a)"),
        rewrite!("commute-mul"; "(* ?a ?b)" => "(* ?b ?a)"),
        rewrite!("add-0"; "(+ ?a 0)" => "?a"),
        rewrite!("mul-0"; "(* ?a 0)" => "0"),
        rewrite!("mul-1"; "(* ?a 1)" => "?a"),
    ]
}
```

Equality Saturation



- Initial graph represents $(a * 2) / 2$
- Add equality $x * 2 = x \ll 1$, so $(x \ll 1) / 2$ is also captured without forgetting the original program.
- Add equality $(x * y) / z = x * (y / z)$, so $a * (2 / 2)$ is captured.
- Add equality $x / x = 1$ and $x * 1 = x$, so a is captured.

The final representation captures all possible programs under the given equalities, and we can search for the optimal one.

- We have talked about dataflow analysis and optimizations, but they work on a low-level register-transfer language (RTL) or intermediate representation.
- It doesn't immediately apply to the CPS IR or other higher-levels IRs with first-class functions, or even just function pointers.
- Because functions can be used as data, but they also impact control flow, and the optimizations and analyses need to be aware of both aspects.

Control-flow analysis (CFA) is a static analysis technique used to determine the possible control flow of a program, especially in the presence of higher-order functions.

```
def foo(f):  
    return f(42) // control-flow question: what is the actual callee of f?  
  
f(lambda x: x + 1) // data-flow question: what is the value passed to f?
```

Control-flow analysis on higher-order program is in general undecidable, but can be approximated too.

Compilers for higher-order languages either need to perform control-flow analysis and optimize based on the results, or can convert the program into first-order representation, followed by other optimizations and analyses.

Trustworthy Compilation

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Ken Thompson's Hack: it is possible to write a compiler that

- inserts a backdoor into the compiled code (e.g. for a password checker), and
- also inserts backdoor generator when compiling itself, so that the new compiler generated also has the malicious behavior.

Reflections On Trusting Trust, Ken Thompson, Turing Award Lecture, 1984.

We built a compiler, but how do we know it is correct? Can we trust it to not introduce bugs or alter the behavior of the program?

- We can test it, and it indeed can find a lot bugs.
- Testing is not easy as you may thought – we need to generate programs satisfying certain properties (e.g., grammar, type system, etc.).
- Testing in practice could often find many bugs.

For the past three years, we have used Csmith to discover bugs in C compilers. Our results are perhaps surprising in their extent: to date, we have found and reported more than 325 bugs in mainstream C compilers including GCC, LLVM, and commercial tools. [Figure 1](#) shows a representative example. Every compiler that we have tested, including several that are routinely used to compile safety-critical embedded systems, has been crashed and also shown to silently miscompile valid inputs. As measured by the responses to our bug

Finding and Understanding Bugs in C Compilers. Yang et al., PLDI 11

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- But testing is not exhaustive, and cannot guarantee the absence of bugs.
- Can we have higher assurance and trust in compilers?

Establish Trustworthy in Compilation

- Translation validation: validate the correctness of each compilation by checking that the source and target programs are semantically equivalent.
 - $\forall S, C, \text{Validate}(S, C) = \text{true} \Rightarrow S \approx C$
 - No need to trust the compiler, but need to verify the validator.

Establish Trustworthy in Compilation

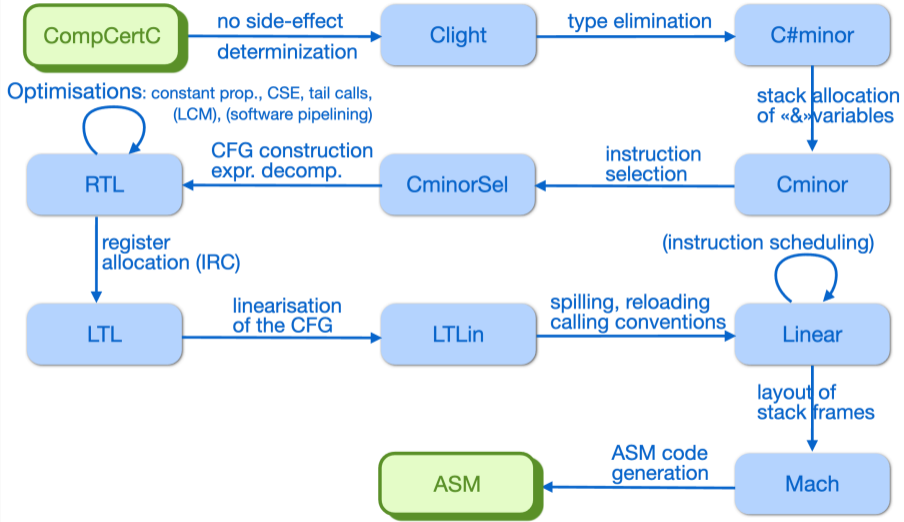
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 - $\forall S, C, \text{Validate}(S, C) = \text{true} \Rightarrow S \approx C$
 - No need to trust the compiler, but need to verify the validator.
- Verified compilation: prove the correctness of the compiler itself, so that any program compiled by it is guaranteed to be correct.
 - $\forall S, C, \text{Compile}(S) = \text{OK}(C) \Rightarrow S \approx C$
 - The compiler is verified and can be trusted when it produces $\text{OK}(C)$.

A prominent example of verified compiler is CompCert (<https://compcert.org/>), a realistic C compiler that has been formally verified to be correct.

Semantic preservation theorem: For all source programs S and compiler-generated code C , if the compiler, applied to the source S , produces the code C , without reporting a compile-time error, then the observable behavior of C is one of the possible observable behaviors of S .

Formal verification of a realistic compiler. Leroy. Comm. ACM, 2009.

Verified Compilation: CompCert



- Each pass is implemented and verified using a proof assistant language Rocq/Coq (~ 170k lines of code+proof).

A tiny example in Rocq:

```
Fixpoint compile (e : exp) : prog :=  
  match e with  
  | Const n => iConst n :: nil  
  | Binop b e1 e2 => compile e2 ++ compile e1 ++ iBinop b :: nil  
end.
```

```
Theorem compile_correct : forall e,  
  progDenote (compile e) nil = Some (expDenote e :: nil).
```

Proof.

...

- Support C99/C11 with a few minor exceptions.
- Decent performance of generated code (80-90% of GCC).
- Can generate several architectures (PowerPC, ARM, RISC-V and x86).
- ACM Software System Award 2021
- ACM SIGPLAN Programming Languages Software award 2022

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- If you want to learn about verification and proof assistants, consider taking my CS150 Special Topics in Spring 27!

The striking thing about our CompCert results is that the middle-end bugs we found in all other compilers are absent. As of early 2011, the under-development version of CompCert is the only compiler we have tested for which Csmith cannot find wrong-code errors. This is not for lack of trying: we have devoted about six CPU-years to the task. The apparent unbreakability of CompCert supports a strong argument that developing compiler optimizations within a proof framework, where safety checks are explicit and machine-checked, has tangible benefits for compiler users.

Finding and Understanding Bugs in C Compilers. Yang et al., PLDI 11

Compilers Everywhere

- Deep learning (neural networks/LLMs) compilers
- Data analytics and query compilation
- Digital fabrication such as 3D printers
- ...

The problems we talked about in the class exist in all these domains, and the techniques we have learned can be applied to them as well.

- A deep learning compiler transforms high-level neural network programs into efficient executable (training/inference) code for hardware.
- Eventually, the code is executed as just matrix/linear algebra operations.
- Examples: PyTorch, TensorFlow, JAX, etc.

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- Diverse and heterogeneous hardware:
 - CPU (vectorization, SIMD)
 - GPU (massive parallelism)
 - Specialized accelerators, TPU, etc.

- Transform a high-level declarative query into an efficient executable plan.
- Execution speed becomes more critical as memory becomes cheaper and faster, and the bottleneck shifts from IO to computation.
- Users write queries in SQL (what to compute, not how)
- Pipeline: SQL → Logical plan → Physical plan → Machine-level execution

Query Compilation

High-level SQL query:

```
SELECT COUNT(*)  
FROM R, S  
WHERE R.name == "R1"  
      AND R.sid == S.sid
```

Intermediate query plan:

```
AggOp(  
  HashJoinOp(  
    SelectOp(R, "name", EQ, "R1"),  
    S, "sid", "rid"),  
  COUNT)
```

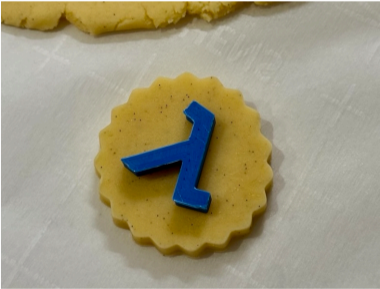
Query Compilation

Eventually generating efficient executable code:

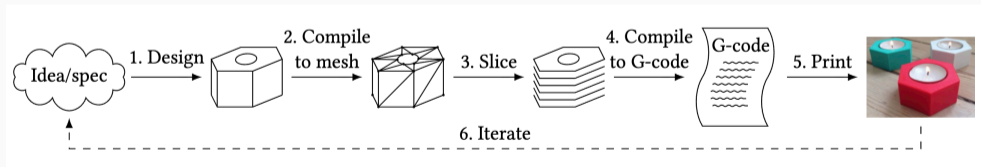
```
val MR: Array[R] = ... // Indexed R on sid
/* Actual Query Processing */
var count = 0
for (s <- S) {
  val r = MR(s.sid)
  if (r.name == "R1") {
    if(r.sid == s.sid) {
      count += 1
    }
  }
}
count
```

How to Architect a Query Compiler. Shaikhha et al., SIGMOD '16.

- How do a user design and fabricate a 3D object?
- They don't directly manipulate the motor on the 3D printer!



- How do a user design and fabricate a 3D object?
- They don't directly manipulate the motor on the 3D printer!
- Create a high-level design using a CAD software
- Compile the design into surface mesh representation (e.g., STL file)
- Slice the mesh and generate G-code for the printer to execute



Surface mesh representation is the triangulation of the object surface.

```
facet normal 0.866025 0.5 0
  outer loop
    vertex 1.0 0.0 1
    vertex 0.5 0.866025 0
    vertex 0.5 0.866025 1
  endloop
endfacet
```

This is the “intermediate representation” for the 3D object!

G-code is the instruction to manipulate the control motors of the 3D printer, and is also used in CNC machines and other digital fabrication tools.

```
M204 S500  
;TYPE:Skirt/Brim  
G1 F1200  
G1 X88.913 Y105.56 E.02426  
G1 X89.599 Y105.287 E.02315
```

This is the “assembly language” for the 3D printer!

- Compiler is not only a translator, but automates the process to eliminate abstractions!
- If you want to explore research in compilers/PL, talk to me about potential research projects!