

# *Compiler Theory*

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(GCC – the GNU Compiler Collection)

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# GCC

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- Probably the most used compiler.
  - Not only a native compiler but it can also cross-compile any program, producing executables for different systems other than the one it is being used on.
  - GCC is written in C and can compile itself !!
  - Provides numerous front-ends
    - C
    - C++
    - Objective-C
    - Fortran
    - Java
    - Ada
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# *Intermediate Languages for GCC (GENERIC)*

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- *GCC uses three intermediate languages to represent the program during compilation:*
    - *GENERIC*
      - *Is a language-independent representation generated by each front end.*
      - *It is used as an interface between the parser and optimizer.*
      - *It is a common representation that is able to represent programs written in all the languages supported by GCC.*
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# Intermediate Languages for GCC (GIMPLE)

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- *Gimplification (done by the gimplifier) is the compiler pass which lowers GENERIC to GIMPLE. It works recursively by replacing complex statements with sequences of simple statements.*
  
  - *GIMPLE*
    - *Used for target and language independent optimisations (e.g. inlining, constant propagation, etc)*
  
    - *It is a language independent, tree based representation*
  
    - *Differs from GENERIC in that the GIMPLE grammar is more restrictive: expressions contain no more than 3 operands (except for function calls)*
  
    - *It has no control flow structures because these are lowered to gotos*
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# *Intermediate Languages for GCC (RTL)*

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- Register Transfer Language (RTL)
    - It has mainly an internal form i.e. used within GCC structures for optimisations.
    - It also has a textual form which is used when printing debugging dumps (core)
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# Compiling a C Program

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- Compilation refers (as you all obviously know by now) to the process of converting a program from source code (text), in a programming language such as C or C++, into machine code, i.e. a sequence of 1's and 0's used to control what the processing unit (CPU, GPU, etc.) does.
  - `$ gcc -Wall hello.c -o hello`
  - The above compiles the source code in 'hello.c' to machine code and stores it in the executable file 'hello'
  - `-o` specifies the output file
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# GCC warnings flag

- ❑ The option `'-Wall'` turns on all the most commonly-used compiler warnings...
- ❑ You should **ALWAYS** use it!!
- ❑ Because they are essential when detecting problems and debugging.

# GCC warnings example

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- ```
int main (void)
{
    printf ("Three plus two is %f\n", 5);
    return 0;
}
```
  - ```
$ gcc -Wall example.c -0 example
```

*Example.c: In function 'main':*  
*Example.c:6: warning: double format, different type arg (arg 2)*
  - Warnings do not prevent compilation ... but indicate possible problems.
  - The program above compiles (and runs) but gives an incorrect answer.
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# Compiling multiple source files

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- Large programs will always be split in multiple files (if your's are not then you might consider it)
- The nice things about this is that one can compile the individual parts independently.
- Header files are used to specify the prototype of function calls. Eg. `void hello ( const char * name);`

```
#include "hello.h"
int main (void)
{
    hello ("world");
    return 0;
}
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "hello.h"
void hello (const char * name)
{
    printf ("Hello, %s!\n", name);
}
```

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# Compiling multiple source files

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- ❑ `$ gcc -Wall main.c hello_fn.c -o hello`
  - ❑ Note that the header file is not included in the list of files to be compiled.
  - ❑ This is because the directive `#include "hello.h"` in the source files instructs the compiler to include it automatically at the appropriate points.
  - ❑ This is something which is carried out by the pre-processor tool `cpp`.
  - ❑ Only the files which have changed need recompilation because a two-stage process is carried out ... *compilation and linking*
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# Compiling then linking ...

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- ❑ In the first stage the source file is compiled without creating an executable.
  - ❑ The result is referred to as an *object file*, and has the extension `.o` when using gcc compiler.
  - ❑ In the second stage, the object files are merged together by a separate program called a *linker*.
  - ❑ The linker combines all the object files together to create an executable.
  - ❑ Essentially, an *object file* contains machine code where any references to the memory addresses of functions (or variables) in other files are left undefined.
  - ❑ This allows source files to be compiled without direct reference to each other.
  - ❑ The linker fills in these missing addresses when it produces the executable.
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# Creating object files from source files

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- ❑ `$ gcc -Wall -c main.c`
  - ❑ Produces an object file `'main.o'` containing the machine code for the *main* function with a reference to the external function *hello*.
  - ❑ The corresponding memory address is left undefined at this stage
  - ❑ `$ gcc main.o hello_fn.o -o hello`
  - ❑ gcc uses the GNU linker *ld*
  - ❑ It should be noted that linking is effectively an unambiguous process which either succeeds or fails (and it fails only if there are references which cannot be resolved)
  - ❑ Warnings flag is useless here of course!
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# Linking with external libraries

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- A library is a collection of precompiled object files which can be linked into programs. Eg. Math library *libm.a*
  - *Static libraries*: They are created from object files with GNU archiver tool *ar*, and are used by the linker to resolve references to functions at *compile-time*.
  - `$ gcc -Wall add.c -lm -o add`
  - `-l` is used to link against libraries. `-lm` for math one.
  - *Shared libraries*: libraries are loaded and references are resolved at *run-time*.
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# Linking with shared libraries

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- ❑ When a program is linked against a static library, the machine code from any external functions used by the program is copied from the library into the final executable (increasing it's size)
  - ❑ With shared libraries a more advanced form of linking is performed, which makes the executables smaller.
  - ❑ Shared library ext. is ``.so'` for shared objects
  - ❑ Instead of complete machine code of functions the executable would contain a small table of the functions it requires.
  - ❑ Before executable starts running, the machine code of the external functions is copied into memory from the shared library – *dynamic linking*
  - ❑ *Dynamic linking* makes executables smaller.
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# Compilation warning options -Wall

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- -Wcomment (inc. in -Wall)
    - This options warns about nested comments eg. `/* ...  
/* ... */ ... */` which may become a source of confusion.
  
  - -Wformat (inc. in -Wall)
    - This option warns about the incorrect use of format strings in the functions such as `printf`, where the format specified (eg. `%f`) does not agree with the type of the argument.
  
  - -Wunused (inc. in -Wall)
    - This option warns about unused variables. Could be an error or could be genuinely not needed.
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# Compilation warning options -Wall

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- -Wimplicit (inc. in -Wall)
    - This options warns about any functions which are used without being declared. Usually you're missing the #include header file.
  
  - -Wreturn-type (inc. in -Wall)
    - This option warns about functions which are declared without a return type but not declared *void*. It also catches empty return statements in functions that are not declared *void*. It is usually good to avoid ambiguity (eg. Use `'return 0'` not just `'return'`).
  
  - Any compiler warning can be taken as an indication of a potentially serious problem. Good compiler implementations try an pinpoints these cases.
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# Warnings not in -Wall

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- There are cases where one would want the compiler to warn him of “suspicious” code, which might be good but might also indicate potential problems. Check this piece of code: what’s wrong here?

- ```
int foo ( unsigned int x )
{
    if (x < 0)
        return 0
    else
        return 1
}
```

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# -W gcc compiler option

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- The '-W' is a general option which warns about a selection of common programming errors, such as functions which can return without a value and comparisons between signed and unsigned values.
  - From the previous example the compiler outputs:
  - ```
$ gcc -W -c example.c
```

```
Example.c: In function 'foo'
```

```
Example.c:4: warning: comparison of unsigned expressions < 0 is always false
```
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# -W specific options

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- -Wconversion
    - This option warns about implicit type conversions that could cause unexpected results. For eg. `unsigned int x = -1;`
  
  - -Wshadow
    - The option warns about the redeclaration of a variable name in a scope where it has already been declared. This is referred to as variable shadowing. Check code in next slide.
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# -Wshadow

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```
❑ double test ( double x )  
  {  
    double y = 1.0;  
    {  
      double y;  
      y = x;  
    }  
    return y;  
  }
```

- ❑ This is clearly a valid piece of code but some people might think that the return value of  $y = x$  when it's 1.
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# Preprocessor - cpp

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- It is automatically called whenever gcc processes a c or c++ file. Recently it can be inbuilt in the compiler itself. Cpp still exists.
  - Used mainly to expand macros.
  - For eg ... #ifdef:
    - #ifdef TEST
      - Printf("Test Mode ... \n");
    - #endif
  - The gcc option '-DNAME' defines a preprocessor macro NAME from the command line. In the program above if we want to compile in test mode, the command line option '-DTEST' is used.
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# Macros with values

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- In addition to being defined, a macro can also be assigned a value. Clearly this value is inserted in the source code at each point where the macro occurs.
  - `-DNAME=value ...` eg `-DNUM=100` would replace the occurrences of macro `NUM` with `100` in the program
  - `$gcc -Wall -DNUM=100 test.c`
  - `$gcc -Wall -DNUM="50+50" test.c`
  - The above are equivalent gcc calls.
  
  - Macros can also be defined inside the code using the `#define` command. Eg
    - `#define SIZE 100`
    - `int table1[SIZE]`
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# Compiling with optimisation

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- GCC is an optimised compiler, i.e. it provides a number of options which either increase the speed of an executable or else decrease it's size (or both)
  - Source-level optimisation
    - Common subexpression elimination
    - Function inlining (especially important when small functions are continuously invoked). Eg  
double sq(double x) { return x\*x; }  
Consider this function inside a loop!
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# Compiling with optimisation (ii)

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- Speed-space tradeoffs
    - One can produce faster code at the expense of size. Eg. Loop Unrolling
    - Increases the speed of loops by eliminating the “end of loop” condition in each iteration. Eg
    - `For (i=0; i<8; i++) { y[i] = i; }`
    - Is replaced with ...
    - `y[0] = 0; y[1] = 1; etc ...`
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# Compiling with optimisation (iii)

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- Scheduling:
    - The lowest level of optimisation in which the compiler determines the best ordering of individual instructions.
    - Pipelining, in which multiple instructions execute in parallel on the same CPU.
    - The compiler tries to optimise this amount of parallelisation.
    - Increases speed of executable but takes longer to compile due to its complexity!
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# Optimisation Levels (i)

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- ❑ GCC provides a range of general optimisation levels, numbered 0-3 (using `-OLEVEL`), as well as options for specific optimisations.
  - ❑ `-O0` (default): Does not perform any optimisations. Best for debugging.
  - ❑ `-O1` : Turns on the most common forms of optimisation that do not require any speed-space tradeoffs.
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# Optimisation Levels (ii)

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- ❑ -O2 : Turns on O1 plus instruction scheduling. It will not increase the executable size but will take longer to compile. Best for release versions.
  - ❑ -O3 : Turns on speed-space optimisations such as unfolding of loops.
  - ❑ -funroll-loops : specific optimisation
  - ❑ -Os: Turns on optimisations which should decrease the size of the executable.
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# Summary ...

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- A single invocation of GCC consists of the following stages:
    - Preprocessing (to expand macros)
    - Compilation (from source code to assembly language)
    - Assembly (from assembly language to machine code)
    - Linking (to create the final executable)
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# References

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## An Introduction to GCC

- Brian Gough
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