Project overview

The L₃ project

Advanced Compiler Construction Michel Schinz – 2024-02-22

As the semester progresses, you will get:

- parts of an L_3 compiler written in Scala, and
- parts of a virtual machine, written in C.

You will have to:

- do one non-graded, warm-up exercise,
- complete the compiler,
- complete the virtual machine.

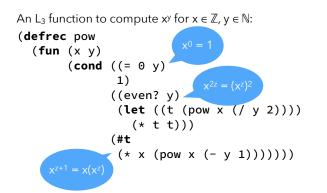
The L₃ language

L₃ is a Lisp-like language. Its main characteristics are:

- it is "dynamically typed",
- it is functional:
- functions are first-class values, and can be nested,
- there are few side-effects (exceptions: mutable blocks and I/O),
- it automatically frees memory,
- it is simple but quite powerful.

The L₃ language

A taste of L₃



Literal values

"c₁...c_n"

String literal (translated to a block expression, see later).

'c'

Character literal.

$\ldots \ -2 \ -1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ \ldots$

Integer literals (also in base 16 with **#x** prefix, or in base 2 with **#b** prefix).

#_tag

Block tag (integer literal, automatically computed by compiler)

#t #f

Boolean literals (true and false, respectively).

#u

Unit literal.

Values

L₃ offers four types of atomic values:
1. unit,
2. booleans,
3. characters, represented by their Unicode code point,
4. integers, 31 bits [!] in two's complement.
and one type of composite value: tagged blocks.

Top-level definitions

(**def** ne)

Top-level non-recursive definition. The expression e is evaluated and its value is bound to name n in the rest of the program. The name n is *not* visible in expression e.

(defrec nf)

Top-level recursive *function* definition. The function expression f is evaluated and its value is bound to name n in the rest of the program. The function can be recursive, i.e. the name n is visible in the function expression f.

Local definitions

(**let** ((n₁ e₁) ...) b₁ b₂ ...)

Parallel local value definition. The expressions e_1, \ldots are evaluated in that order, and their values are then bound to names n_1, \ldots in the body b_1, b_2, \ldots The value of the whole expression is the value of the last b_i .

(**let*** ((n₁ e₁) ...) b₁ b₂ ...)

Sequential local value definition. Equivalent to a nested sequence of let: (let $((n_1 e_1))$ (let (...) ...))

(letrec ($(n_1 f_1) \dots b_1 b_2 \dots$)

Recursive local function definition. The function expressions f_1,\ldots are evaluated and bound to names n_1,\ldots in the body $b_1,b_2\ldots$ The functions can be mutually recursive.

Logical expressions

(and $e_1 \, e_2 \, e_3 \ldots$)

Short-cutting conjunction. If e_1 evaluates to a true value, proceed with the evaluation of e_2 , and so on. The value of the whole expression is that of the last evaluated e_i .

(**or** e₁ e₂ e₃ ...)

Short-cutting disjunction. If e_1 evaluates to a true value, produce that value. Otherwise, proceed with the evaluation of e_2 , and so on.

(not e)

Negation. If e evaluates to a true value, produce the value **#f**. Otherwise, produce the value **#t**.

Conditional expressions

(**if** e₁ e₂ e₃)

Two-ways conditional. If e_1 evaluates to a true value (i.e. anything but **#f**), e_2 is evaluated, otherwise e_3 is evaluated. The value of the whole expression is the value of the evaluated branch.

The else branch, e_3 , is optional and defaults to **#u** (unit).

(cond ($c_1 b_{1,1} b_{1,2} \dots$) ($c_2 b_{2,1} b_{2,2} \dots$) ...)

N-ways conditional. If c_1 evaluates to a true value, evaluate $b_{1,1}$, $b_{1,2}$...; else, if c_2 evaluates to a true value, evaluate $b_{2,1}$, $b_{2,2}$...; etc. The value of the whole expression is the value of the evaluated branch or **#u** if none of the conditions are true.

Loops and blocks

(rec n ((n₁ e₁) ...) b₁ b₂ ...)
General loop. Equivalent to:
 (letrec ((n (fun (n₁ ...) b₁ b₂ ...)))
 (n e₁ ...))

(**begin** b₁ b₂ ...)

Sequential evaluation. First evaluate expression b_1 , discarding its value, then b_2 , etc. The value of the whole expression is the value of the last b_i .

Functions and primitives

(fun $(n_1...) b_1 b_2...$)

Anonymous function with arguments n_1,\ldots and body $b_1,\,b_2,\ldots$ The return value is the value of the last $b_i.$

(ee₁...)

Function application. Expressions e, e_1 , ... are evaluated in order, and then the value of e – which must be a function – is applied to the value of e_1 , ... Note: if e is a simple identifier, a special form of name resolution, based on arity, is used – see later.

(@ pe1e2...)

Primitive application. First evaluate expressions $e_1, e_2, ...$ in that order, and then apply primitive p to the value of these expressions.

Arity-based name lookup

Arity-based name lookup can for example be used to define several functions to create lists of different lengths:

(def list-make@1 (fun (e1) ...))

(def list-make@2 (fun (e1 e2) ...))

and so on for list-make@3, list-make@4, etc.

With these definitions, the following two function applications are both valid:

1. (list-make 1) (invokes list-make@1),

2. (list-make 1 (+ 2 3)) (invokes list-make@2).

However, the following one is *not* valid, unless a definition for the bare name **list-make** also appears in scope:

(map list-make l)

Arity-based name lookup

A special name lookup rule is used when analysing a function application in which the function is a simple name:

(n e₁ e₂ ... e_k)

In such a case, the name n@k - i.e. the name itself, followed by @, followed by the arity in base 10 - is first looked up, and used instead of n instead if it exists. Otherwise, name analysis proceeds as usual.

This allows a kind of overloading based on arity (although it is *not* overloading per se).

Primitives

- L₃ offers the following primitives:
 - integer: < <= + * / % < truncated division/remainder
- integer: shift-left shift-right and or xor
- polymorphic: = id < identity
- type tests: block? int? char? bool? unit?
- character: char->int int->char
- I/O: byte-read byte-write
- tagged blocks: **block-alloc**
- block-tag block-length block-get block-set!

Tagged blocks

L₃ offers a single kind of composite values: tagged blocks. They are manipulated with the following primitives: (@ block-alloc t s) Allocates an uninitialised block with tag t and length s. (@ block-tag b) Returns the tag of block b, as an integer. (@ block-length b) Returns the length of block b. (@ block-get b n) Returns the nth element (0-based) of block b. (@ block-set! b n v) Sets the nth element (0-based) of block b to v.

Valid primitive arguments

Primitives only work correctly when applied to certain arguments, otherwise their behaviour is undefined.

+ - * and or xor : $int \times int \Rightarrow int$

shift-left shift-right : $int \times (int \in \{0, 1, ..., 31\}) \Rightarrow int$

/ %: int × (int \neq 0) \Rightarrow int

< <= : int × int \Rightarrow bool

 $=: \forall a, \beta. a \times \beta \Rightarrow bool$

id:∀a.a⇒a

int->char : *int* ∈ { valid Unicode code-points } ⇒ *char*

 $char \rightarrow int : char \Rightarrow int$

Using tagged blocks

Tagged blocks are a low-level data structure. They are not meant to be used directly in programs, but rather as a means to implement more sophisticated data structures like strings, arrays, lists, etc.

The valid tags range from 0 to 255, inclusive. They are assigned automatically by the compiler, based on the (symbolic) tag names appearing in the program.

Valid primitive arguments

block? int? char? bool? unit?: $\forall a. a \Rightarrow bool$ byte-read : $\Rightarrow int \in \{-1, 0, 1, ..., 255\}$ arbitrary return value block-alloc : $(int \in \{0, 1, ..., 255\}) \Rightarrow ?$ block-alloc : $(int \in \{0, 1, ..., 255\}) \times int \Rightarrow block$ block-tag block-length : $block \Rightarrow int$ block-get : $\exists a. block \times int \Rightarrow a$ block-set! : $\forall a. block \times int \times a \Rightarrow ?$

Undefined behaviour

The fact that primitives have undefined behaviour when applied to invalid arguments means that they can do *anything* in such a case. For example, division by zero can produce an error, crash the program, or produce an arbitrary value like 0.

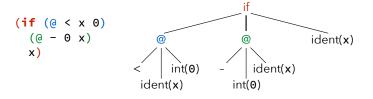
L₃ EBNF grammar (1)

program ::= { def | defrec | expr } expr def ::= (def ident expr) defrec ::= (defrec ident fun) expr ::= fun | let | let* | letrec | rec | begin | if | cond | and | or | not | app | prim | ident | num | block-tag | str | chr | bool | unit exprs ::= expr { expr } fun ::= (fun ({ ident }) exprs) let ::= (let ({ (ident expr) }) exprs) let* ::= (let* ({ (ident expr) }) exprs) letrec ::= (letrec ({ (ident fun) }) exprs) rec ::= (rec ident ({ (ident expr) }) exprs) begin ::= (begin exprs)

Grasping the syntax

Like all Lisp-like languages, L_3 "has no syntax", in that its concrete syntax is very close to its abstract syntax.

For example, the L_3 expression on the left is almost a direct transcription of a pre-order traversal of its AST on the right, in which nodes are parenthesised and tagged, while leaves are unadorned.



L₃ EBNF grammar (2)

if ::= (if expr expr [expr])
cond ::= (cond (expr exprs) {(expr exprs)})
and ::= (and expr expr { expr })
or ::= (or expr expr { expr })
not ::= (not expr)
app ::= (expr { expr })
prim ::= (@ prim-name { expr })

L₃ EBNF grammar (3)

str ::= "{any character except newline}"
chr ::= ' any character '
bool ::= #t | #f
unit ::= #u
ident ::= identstart { identstart | digit } [@ digit { digit }]
identstart ::= a | ... | z | A | ... | Z | | | ! |% | & | * | + | | . | / | : | <| = | > | ? | ^ | _ | ~
prim-name ::= block-tag | etc.

L₃ EBNF grammar (4)

 $\begin{array}{l} num::=num_{2} \mid num_{10} \mid num_{16} \\ num_{2}::= \#b \ digit_{2} \{ \ digit_{2} \} \\ num_{10}::= [-] \ digit_{10} \{ \ digit_{10} \} \\ num_{16}::= \#x \ digit_{16} \{ \ digit_{16} \} \\ digit_{2}::= 0 \mid 1 \\ digit_{10}::= \ digit_{2} \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \\ digit_{16}::= \ digit_{10} \mid A \mid B \mid C \mid D \mid E \mid F \mid a \mid b \mid c \mid d \mid e \mid f \\ block-tag::= \#_ \ identstart \{ \ identstart \mid digit \} \end{array}$

Exercise

Write the L₃ version of the factorial function, defined as: fact(0) = 1 fact(n) = $n \cdot fact(n - 1)$ [if n > 0] What does the following (valid) L₃ program compute? ((fun (f x) (f x)) (fun (x) (@+ x 1)) 20)

L₃ syntactic sugar

L₃ syntactic sugar

 L_3 has a substantial amount of $syntactic \,sugar$: constructs that can be syntactically translated to other existing constructs. Syntactic sugar does not offer additional expressive power to the programmer, but some syntactical convenience.

For example, L_3 allows **if** expressions without an else branch, which is implicitly taken to be the unit value **#u**:

(if $e_1 e_2$) \Leftrightarrow (if $e_1 e_2 \#u$)

L₃ desugaring (1)

To simplify the specification of desugaring for whole programs, we assume that all top-level expressions are wrapped sequentially in a single (program ...) expression. [(program (def n e) s₁ s₂ ...)] = (let ((n [e])) [(program s₁ s₂ ...)]) [(program (defrec n e) s₁ s₂ ...)] = (letrec ((n [e])) [(program s₁ s₂ ...)]) [(program e s₁ s₂ ...)] = [(begin e (program s₁ s₂ ...)]] [(program e)] = [e]

Desugaring

Syntactic sugar is typically removed very early in the compilation process – e.g. during parsing – to simplify the language that the compiler has to handle. This process is known as **desugaring**.

Desugaring can be specified as a function denoted by $[\![\cdot]\!]$ taking an L₃ term and producing a desugared CL₃ term (CL₃ is *Core L*₃, the desugared version of L₃). To clarify the presentation, L₃ terms appear in orange, CL₃ terms in green, and meta-terms in black.

L₃ desugaring (2)

Desugaring sometimes requires the creation of **fresh names**, i.e. names that do not appear anywhere else in the program. Their binding occurrence is underlined in the rules, as illustrated by the one below.

[(begin b₁ b₂ b₃ ...)] =
 (let ((t [b₁])) [(begin b₂ b₃ ...)])
[(begin b)] =
 [b]

L₃ desugaring (3)

$[(let ((n_1 e_1)) b_1 b_2)] =$
(let ((n ₁ [[e ₁]])) [[(begin b ₁ b ₂)]])
$[(let* ((n_1 e_1) (n_2 e_2)) b_1 b_2)] =$
$[(let ((n_1 e_1)) (let * ((n_2 e_2)) b_1 b_2))]$
$[(let* () b_1 b_2)] =$
[(begin b₁ b₂)]
$[[(letrec ((f_1 (fun (n_{1,1}) b_{1,1} b_{1,2}))) b_1 b_2)]] =$
(letrec ((f ₁ (fun (n _{1,1}) [[(begin b _{1,1} b _{1,2})]))
)
[(begin b ₁ b ₂)])

L₃ desugaring (4)

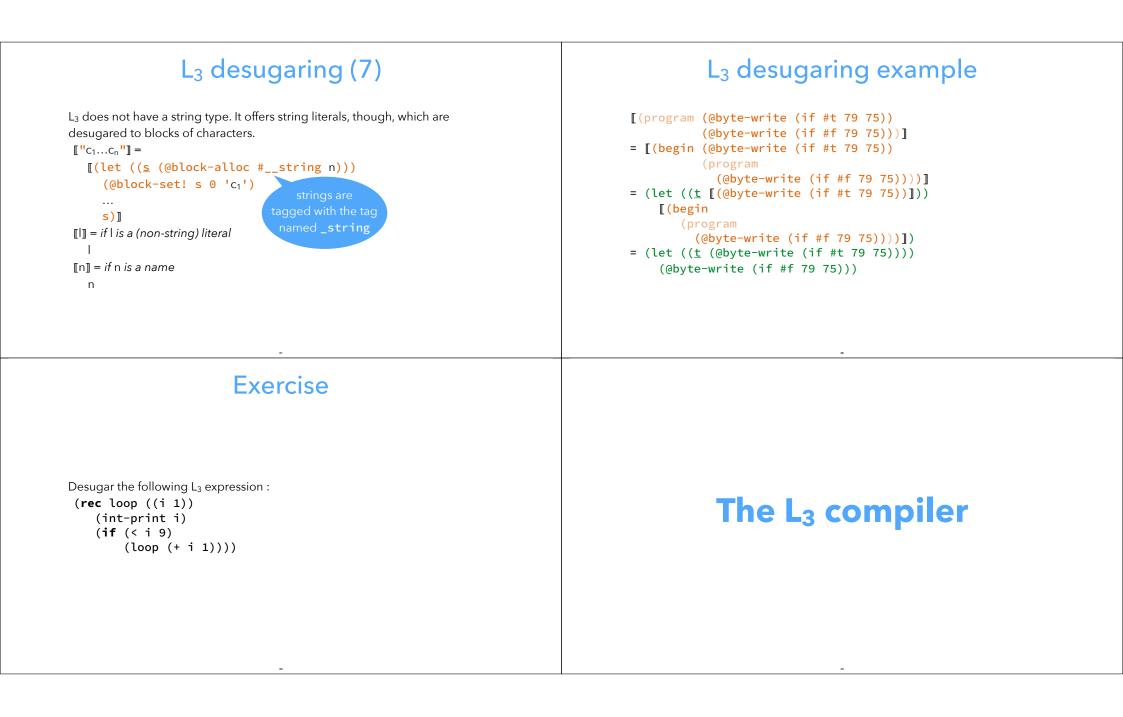
[(fun (n₁...) b₁ b₂...)] =
 (letrec ((f (fun (n₁...) [(begin b₁ b₂...)])))
 f)
[(rec n ((n₁ e₁) ...) b₁ b₂ ...)] =
 (letrec ((n (fun (n₁ ...) [(begin b₁ b₂ ...)])))
 (n [[e₁]]...))
[(e e₁ ...)] =
 ([[e] [[e₁]]...)
[(e p e₁ ...)] =
 ([e p [[e₁]]...)

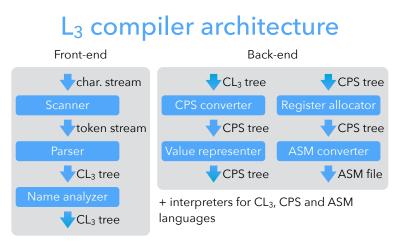
L₃ desugaring (5)

 $[(if e e_1)] = [(if e e_1 #u)]] [(if e e_1 e_2)] = (if [e]] [e_1] [e_2]) [(cond (e_1 b_{1,1} b_{1,2} ...) (e_2 b_{2,1} b_{2,2} ...) ...)] = [(if e_1 (begin b_{1,1} b_{1,2} ...) (cond (e_2 b_{2,1} b_{2,2} ...) ...))] [(cond ())] = #u$

L₃ desugaring (6)

[(and e₁ e₂ e₃ ...)] =
 [(if e₁ (and e₂ e₃ ...) #f)]]
[(and e)] =
 [e]
 [(or e₁ e₂ e₃ ...)] =
 [(let ((<u>v</u> e₁)) (if v v (or e₂ e₃ ...)))]
[(or e)] =
 [e]
 [(not e)] =
 [(if e #f #t)]]





Note: CL₃, CPS and ASM each designate a *family* of very similar languages, with minor differences between them.

Intermediate languages

The L₃ compiler manipulates a total of four (families of) languages:

- 1. L_3 is the source language that is parsed, but never exists as a tree it is desugared to CL_3 immediately,
- 2. CL_3 a.k.a. CoreL₃ is the desugared version of L₃,
- 3. CPS is the main intermediate language, on which optimizations are performed,
- 4. ASM is the assembly language of the target (virtual) machine.

The compiler contains interpreters for the last three languages, which is useful to check that a program behaves in the same way as it is undergoes transformation.

These interpreters also serve as semantics for their language.