

COMP-421 Compiler Design

Presented by Dr Ioanna Dionysiou

Administrative

[ALSU07] Chapter 4 - Syntax Analysis

- This week we will cover up to section 4.3
- Next week we will cover top-down parsing (LL(1) parsers section 4.4) and continue with bottom-up parsing (LR parsers sections 4.5-4.6)

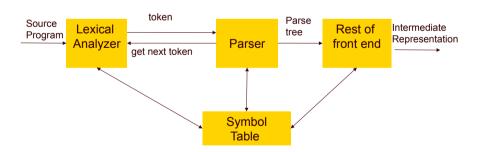
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Lecture Outline

- Role of parser
- Context-free grammars
 - Review definition, derivations and parse trees
- Writing grammars
 - Ambiguity, eliminating left recursion, left factoring





Obtains a string of tokens from the lexical analyzer and verifies that the string of tokens can be generated by the grammar for the source language

Output is some representation of the parse tree

Role of Parser (2)

Assumption

 Output of parser is some representation of a parse tree

Rest of front end

In practice

- Other tasks are also performed
 - Collect more info about tokens
 - Type checking
 - Semantic analysis
 - Generating intermediate code

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Syntax Error Handling

- Most programming language specifications do not describe error handling
 - It's up to the compiler designer
- Programs can contain errors at many different level:
 - Lexical
 - Misspelling an identifier
 - Syntactic (focus of error detection and recovery in a compiler)
 - Arithmetic expression with unbalanced parentheses
 - Semantic
 - Operator applied to an incompatible operand
 - Logical
 - Infinitely recursive call, use = instead of ==

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Types of Parsers

S categories

- Universal parsers
 - Can parse any grammar
 - Too inefficient to use in production compilers
- Top-down parsers
 - Parse trees constructed from top (root) to bottom (leaves)
- Bottom-up parsers
 - Parse trees constructed from bottom (leaves) up to the top (root)
- Most commonly used
 - Top-down and Bottom-Up
 - Input scanned from left-to-right, one symbol at a time
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Syntax Error Handling

• Goals of error handler in a parser

- Report the presence of errors clearly and accurately
 - E.g. print the line that error found and indicate the nature of the error
- Recover from each error quickly enough to be able to detect subsequent errors
 - Panic mode, phrase level, error productions, global correction
- Must not slow down the processing of correct programs

Lecture Outline

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- Context-free grammars
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●Top-down Parsing

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 Recursive-descent parsing, non-recursive predictive parsing, construction of predictive parser

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Context-Free Grammars

$stmt \rightarrow if expr then stmt else stmt$

- Context-free grammars consists of terminals, nonterminals, a start symbol, and productions
 - A set of tokens, known as terminal symbols (if, then, else)
 - A set of nonterminals, which are variables that denote sets of strings (expr, stmt)
 - A set of productions where each production consists of
 - A nonterminal called the left side of the production
 - An arrow →
 - A sequence of terminals and/or nonterminals called the right side of the production
 - A designation of one of the nonterminals as the start symbol (stmt)

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Context-Free Grammars

E→ E +E
E→ E * E
E→(E)
E→ -E
E→ id

Terminals? Nonterminals?

Notational Conventions

- 1) These symbols are terminals:
 - 1) Lower-case letters early in the alphabet such as a, b, c
 - 2) Operator symbols such as *,+, etc
 - 3) Punctuation symbols such as (),!
 - 4) Digits 0,...,9
 - 5) Boldface strings such as if, then

Notational Conventions

- 2) These symbols are nonterminals:
 - 1) Upper-case letters early in the alphabet such as A, B, C
 - 2) The letter S, which when it appears, is usually the start symbol
 - 3) Lower-case italic names such as expr, stmt

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Notational Conventions

 $E \rightarrow E + E | E * E | (E) | - E | id$

Notational Conventions

- Upper-case letters late in the alphabet, such as X, Y, Z, represent grammar symbols (either terminals or nonterminals)
- 4) Lower-case letters late in the alphabet, such as x, y, u, v, represent strings of terminals
- 5) Lower-case Greek letters represent strings of grammar symbols (this is a way to represent a generic production) $A \rightarrow \alpha$
- 6) If $A \rightarrow \alpha_1, A \rightarrow \alpha_2, ..., A \rightarrow \alpha_k$ then we may write $A \rightarrow \alpha_1 |\alpha_2| \alpha_k$
- 7) Unless otherwise stated, the left side of the first production is the start symbol
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Derivations

- There are several ways to view the process by which a grammar defines a language
 - Building a parse tree
 - graphical representation of derivation
 - Derivational view
 - precise description of the top-down construction of a parse tree
 - Idea: a production is a rewriting rule
 - Beginning with the start symbol, each rewriting step replaces the nonterminal by the right side of one of its productions

Using conventional notations, we obtain the grammar on the right

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 $E \rightarrow E + E$

 $E \rightarrow E * E$

 $E \rightarrow (E)$

 $F \rightarrow -F$

 $E \rightarrow id$

Derivations

 $E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid -E \mid id$

Grammar G

The expression $\mathsf{E} \twoheadrightarrow \mathsf{-}\mathsf{E}$ allows us to replace any instance of E by $\mathsf{-}\mathsf{E}$

 $E \Rightarrow -E$ is read 'E derives -E'

We can take a single E and repeatedly apply productions in any order to obtain a sequence of replacements

 $\mathsf{E} \Rightarrow \mathsf{-E} \Rightarrow \mathsf{-(E)} \Rightarrow \mathsf{-(id)}$

The sequence of the above replacements is called a derivation of -(id) from E This is a proof that one particular instance of an expression is the string -(id)

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Is –(id+id) a sentence of G?

 $E \rightarrow E + E | E * E | (E) | - E | id$ Grammar G

- At each step of derivation, there are 2 choices to be made:
 - Which nonterminal to replace, and
 - Having made this choice, which production to use for that nonterminal

General Derivation

 $\alpha_1 \Rightarrow \alpha_2 \Rightarrow \ldots \Rightarrow \alpha_k$

 α_1 derives α_k

Given Grammar G with start symbol S,

L(G) is the language generated by G

Strings in L(G) may only contain terminals of G

A string of terminals w is in L(G) iff S $\stackrel{+}{\Rightarrow}$ w (sentence)

If $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha$ where α may contain nonterminals, then we say that α is a sentential form of G. A sentence is a sentential form with no nonterminals.

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Is –(id+id) a sentence of G?

 $E \rightarrow E + E | E * E | (E) | - E | id$ Grammar G

 $\mathsf{E}{\Rightarrow}\,\mathsf{-}\mathsf{E}{\Rightarrow}\,\mathsf{-}(\mathsf{E}){\Rightarrow}\,\mathsf{-}(\mathsf{id}{+}\mathsf{E}){\Rightarrow}\,\mathsf{-}(\mathsf{id}{+}\mathsf{id})$

 $\mathsf{E}{\Rightarrow}\,\mathsf{-}\mathsf{E}{\Rightarrow}\,\mathsf{-}(\mathsf{E}){\Rightarrow}\,\mathsf{-}(\mathsf{E}{\textbf{+}}\mathsf{E}){\Rightarrow}\,\mathsf{-}(\mathsf{E}{\textbf{+}}\mathsf{id}){\Rightarrow}\,\mathsf{-}(\mathsf{id}{\textbf{+}}\mathsf{id})$

Order of replacement is different

Leftmost and rightmost derivations

- Seftmost derivations ⇒
 - Only the leftmost nonterminal in any sentential form is replaced at each step

 $\mathsf{E} \Rightarrow \mathsf{-}\mathsf{E} \Rightarrow \mathsf{-}(\mathsf{E}) \Rightarrow \mathsf{-}(\mathsf{E}\mathsf{+}\mathsf{E}) \Rightarrow \mathsf{-}(\mathsf{id}\mathsf{+}\mathsf{E}) \Rightarrow \mathsf{-}(\mathsf{id}\mathsf{+}\mathsf{id})$

- Sightmost derivations [⇒]
 - Only the rightmost nonterminal in any sentential form is replaced at each step

```
\mathsf{E} \Rightarrow \mathsf{-} \mathsf{E} \Rightarrow \mathsf{-} (\mathsf{E}) \Rightarrow \mathsf{-} (\mathsf{E} \mathsf{+} \mathsf{E}) \Rightarrow \mathsf{-} (\mathsf{E} \mathsf{+} \mathsf{id}) \Rightarrow \mathsf{-} (\mathsf{id} \mathsf{+} \mathsf{id})
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Parse Tree Definition

Parse Trees and Derivations

- Graphical representation of a derivation
- Filters out the choice regarding replacement order
 - Ignores variations in the order in which symbols in sentential forms are replaced
 - Many-to-one relationship between derivations and parse trees
 - Every parse tree has associated with it a unique leftmost and a unique rightmost derivation
 - We should not assume that every sentence necessarily has one parse tree only or only one leftmost or rightmost derivation!
 - AMBIGUITY

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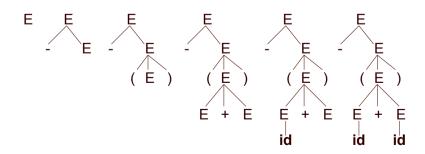
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Building parse tree for derivations

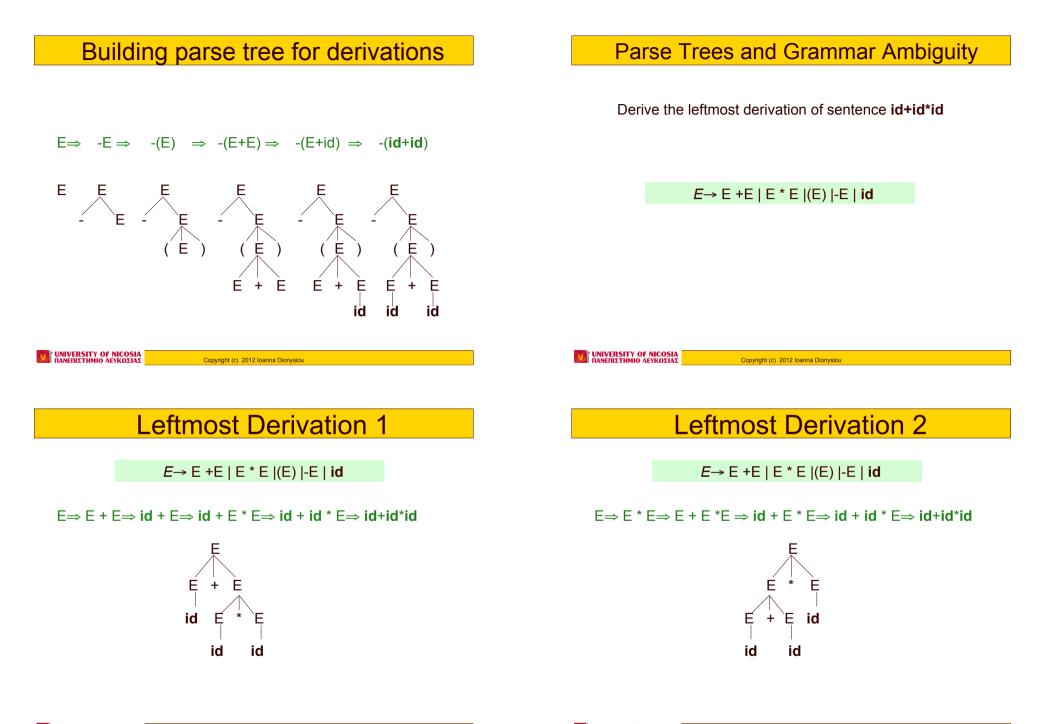


- The root is labeled by the start symbol
- Each leaf is labeled by a terminal or by ε (empty string)
- Each interior node is labeled by a nonterminal
- If A is the nonterminal labeling some interior node and X₁, X₂, ..., X_n are the labels of the children of that node from left to right, then $A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 \dots X_n$ is a production.
 - Here X₁, X₂, ..., X_n stand for a symbol that is either a terminal or a nonterminal.

 $E \Rightarrow \ \ -E \Rightarrow \ \ -(E) \ \ \Rightarrow \ \ -(E+E) \Rightarrow \ \ -(id+E) \Rightarrow \ \ -(id+id)$



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Grammar Ambiguity

A grammar that produces more than one parse trees for some sentence it said to be ambiguous!

Summary

- How can we verify that a sentence belongs to the language generated by grammar G?
 - Parse tree
 - Derivation

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- Or formal proof

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STop-down Parsing

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Writing Grammars

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- Grammars are more powerful than regular expressions
 - A construct that can be described by a regular expression can also be described by a grammar
 - Construct NFA from r.e.
 - Convert NFA into a grammar using simple construction rules
 - For each state i create a nonterminal symbol ${\rm A}_{\rm i}$
 - If state i has transition to state j on symbol a, then introduce production $A_i \rightarrow a A_j$
 - If state i has a transition to state j on input ϵ , then introduce production $A_i \rightarrow A_j$
 - If state i is an accepting state then introduce $A_i \mathop{\rightarrow} \! \epsilon$
 - $-\,$ If state i is the start state, make A_i the start symbol of the grammar

- But not vice versa!

Grammars and Lexical Analysis

- Why user regular expressions to define lexical syntax of a language?
 - Lexical rules are frequently simple
 - Regular expressions provide a notation that is more suitable for tokens than grammars
 - More efficient lexical analyzers can be constructed automatically from regular expressions than from arbitrary grammars
 - Separating the syntactic structure into lexical and non-lexical parts provides a convenient way of modularizing the front-end of the compiler into two manageable-sized components

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Eliminating Ambiguity

- Output Provide the state of the state of
 - Match each <u>else</u> with the closest previous unmatched <u>then</u>
- Statement appearing between a then and else must be 'matched'

stmt → matched_stmt
 | unmatched_stmt
 matched_stmt → if expr then matched_stmt else matched_stmt
 unmatched_stmt → if expr then stmt
 | if expr then matched_stmt else unmatched_stmt

Eliminating Ambiguity

Sometimes an ambiguous grammar can be rewritten to eliminate ambiguity

> $stmt \rightarrow if expr then stmt$ | if expr then stmt else stmt

Derive the parse tree for the following nested if statement (answer in [ALSU07], page 211)

if E1 then if E2 then S1 else S2 $\,$

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Eliminating Ambiguity

 Derive the parse tree for the following string using the unambiguous grammar (answer in [ALSU07],page 210)

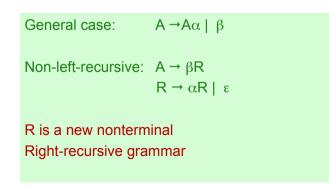
if E1 then if E2 then S1 else S2

Eliminating Left Recursion

- SA grammar is left recursive if
 - it has a nonterminal A such that there is a derivation A $\stackrel{+}{\Rightarrow}$ A α for some string α
 - $A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta$
 - For instance, which productions are left recursive?
 - E →Ex
 - E →(E)
- Top-down parsing cannot handle left-recursive grammars
 - Need to eliminate it

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Eliminating Left Recursion



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Eliminating Left Recursion

General case:	$A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta$
Example:	$expr \rightarrow expr + term \mid stmt$
	A is expr
	α is + <i>term</i> β is <i>stmt</i>

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Eliminating Left Recursion

General case:
$$A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta$$

Non-left-recursive: $A \rightarrow \beta R$
 $R \rightarrow \alpha R \mid \epsilon$

Eliminate the immediate left recursion from the grammar G

$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$	
T→T*F F	
$F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$	

Eliminating Left Recursion

E →	E + T	Т
$T \to$	T*F	F
F →	(E) id	I

First, eliminate the immediate left recursion that occurs for E

 $\begin{array}{ll} \alpha \text{ is +T} & \mathsf{E} \to \mathsf{TE}` \\ \beta \text{ is T} & \mathsf{E}` \to \mathsf{+TE}` \mid \epsilon \end{array}$

New transformed grammar so far is

E → TE` E` → +TE` ε
$T \to T * F \mid F$ $F \to (E) \mid id$

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Eliminating Left Recursion

This technique does not eliminate left recursion involving derivations of two or more steps

 $S \rightarrow A a \mid b$ $A \rightarrow Ac \mid Sd \mid \varepsilon$

In this case, S is left-recursive because



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Eliminating Left Recursion

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{E} \rightarrow \mathsf{TE} \\ \mathsf{E} \\ \stackrel{}{\rightarrow} +\mathsf{TE} \\ \mathsf{T} \rightarrow \mathsf{T} \\ \mathsf{F} \\ \mathsf{F} \\ \mathsf{F} \\ \mathsf{O} \\ \mathsf{(E)} \\ \mathsf{id} \end{array}$

Second, eliminate the immediate left recursion that occurs for T

α is *F	$T \rightarrow FT$
β is F	T` → *FT` ε

Final transformed grammar is

E → TE`
E` → +TE` ε
T → FT`
T` → *FT` ε
$F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$

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Eliminating Left Recursion

```
Arrange the nonterminals in some order A_1, A_2, ..., A_n
for i:= 1 to n do
begin
for j:= 1 to i-1 do
begin
replace each production of the form A_i \rightarrow A_j \gamma
by the productions A_i \rightarrow \delta_1 \gamma |\delta_2 \gamma| ... |\delta_k \gamma
where A_j \rightarrow \delta_1 |\delta_2| ... |\delta_k are all the current A_j productions
end
eliminate the immediate left recursion among the A_i productions
end
```

In-class Exercise	Solution
Order the nonterminals S, AS \rightarrow A a b A \rightarrow Ac Sd ϵ	
i = 1 Immediate left-recursion among S productions? No, so nothing happens i = 2 we substitute the S in A-production $A \rightarrow Sd$ to obtain the following A-productions $A \rightarrow Ac \mid Aad \mid bd \mid \varepsilon$ eliminate the left recursion among A productions $A \rightarrow bdA' \mid A'$ $A \rightarrow cA' \mid adA' \mid \varepsilon$	$S \rightarrow A a \mid b$ $A \rightarrow b d A' \mid A'$ $A' \rightarrow c A' \mid a d A' \mid \epsilon$
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Left Factoring	Left factoring
 It is a grammar transformation that is useful for producing a grammar suitable for predictive parsing Idea: Suppose that it is not clear which of two alternative 	stmt → if expr then stmt else stmt if expr then stmt

- productions to use to expand a nonterminal A
- Rewrite the A-productions to defer this decision when more input is seen (be able to make a right choice then)

Suppose that we have identified token $\ensuremath{\text{if}}$

Which production for stmt to expand?

Left factoring

Left factoring

$A \rightarrow \alpha \beta_1 | \alpha \beta_2$

Suppose input begins with a nonempty string derived from $\alpha,$ then we do not know whether to expand A to $\alpha\beta_1$ or $\alpha\beta_2$

We could defer the decision by expanding A to $\alpha \text{A}`$

Then after seeing the input derived from α we expand A' to β_1 or β_2



See [ALSU07], page 214, Algorithm 4.21

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Left factoring Example

stmt \rightarrow if expr then stmt else stmt
if expr then stmt
a
$expr \rightarrow b$

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Solution

stmt → if expr then stmt stmt` | a stmt` → else stmt | ε expr → b