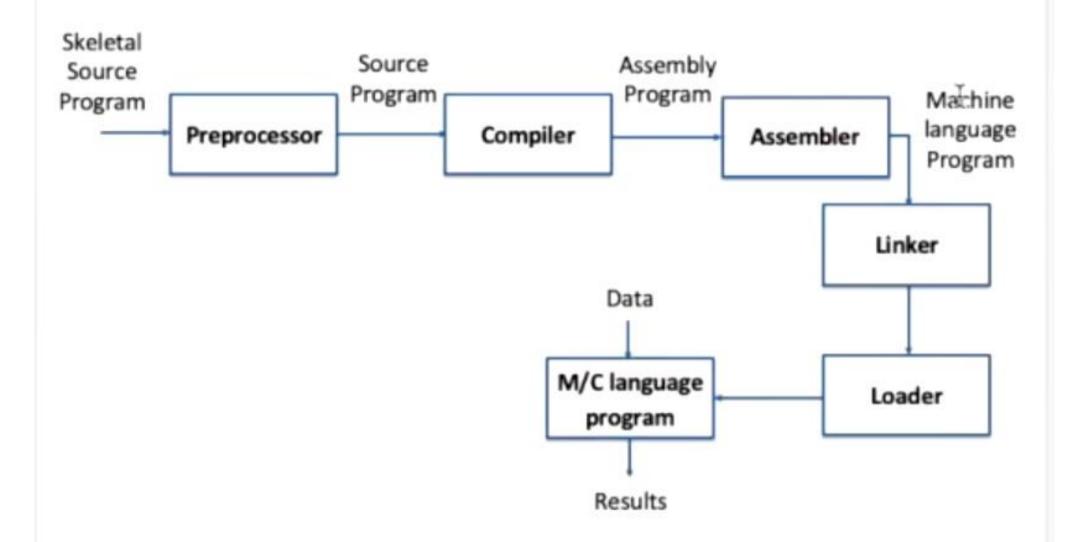
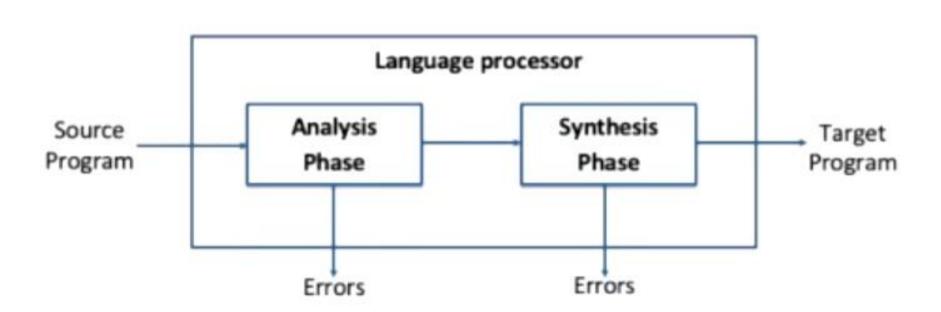
Practical arrangement of language processors



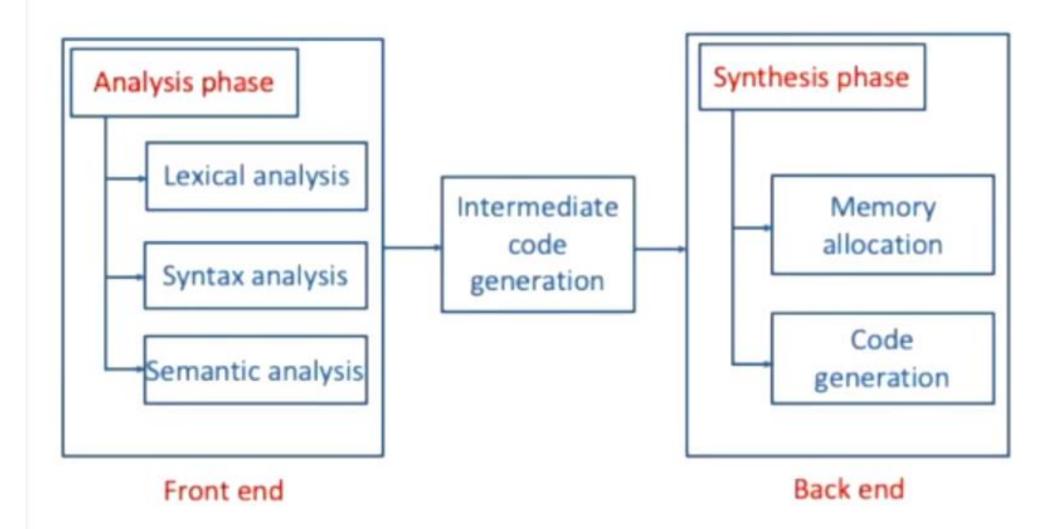
Overview of Compiler

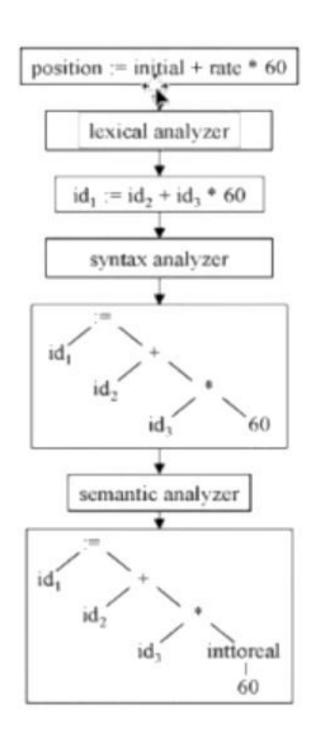
Language processing = Analysis of Source Program +
Synthesis of Target Program



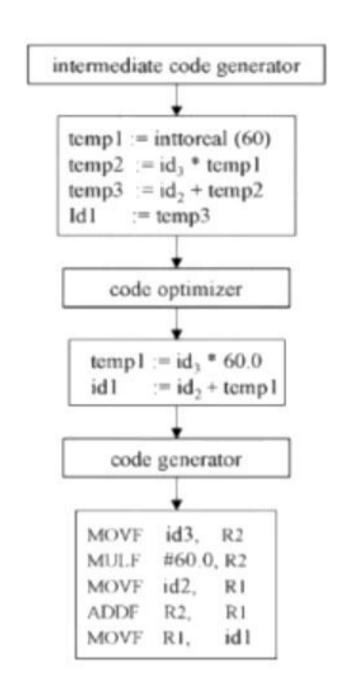


Phases of language processor (Toy compiler)





Typical Phases of a Compiler



Lexical Analysis / Scanning

Content

- Programming language grammar
- Classification of grammar
- Ambiguity in grammatic specification
- Scanning
- Language processor development tools (LEX)

Programming language grammar

Formal language

- A formal language is a collection of valid sentences, where each sentence is a sequence of words, and each word is a sequence of graphic symbols acceptable in a language.
- Set of rules that specify the construction of words and sentences is called formal language grammar.

Formal language grammar

Write sentence of simple tense.

Sentence type	Rules	Example She eats a fruit	
Affirmative	subject verb + object		
Negative	subject + do/does + not + verb + object	She does not eat a fruit	
Interrogative	do/does + subject + verb + object + ?	Does she eat a fruit?	

- A grammar G of a language L_G is a quadruple (Σ, SNT, S, P) where
 - Σ is the alphabet of L_G , i.e. the set of terminal symbols
 - SNT is the set of nonterminal symbols
 - S is the start symbol
 - P is the set of productions

Terminal symbol:

- A symbol in the alphabet.
- It is denoted by lower case letter and punctuation marks used in language.

```
<Noun Phrase> → <Article><Noun> <Article> → a | an | the
```

Article > a | all | the

<Noun> → boy | apple

- A grammar G of a language L_G is a quadruple (Σ, SNT, S, P) where
 - Σ is the alphabet of L_G , i.e. the set of terminal symbols
 - SNT is the set of nonterminal symbols
 - S is the start symbol
 - P is the set of productions

Nonterminal symbol:

- The name of syntax category of a language, e.g., noun, verb, etc.
- It is written as a single capital letter, or as a name enclosed between < ... >, e.g., A or <Noun>

```
<Noun Phrase> → <Article><Noun>
```

- <Article> → a | an | the
- <Noun> → boy | apple

- A grammar G of a language L_G is a quadruple (Σ, SNT, S, P) where
 - Σ is the alphabet of L_G , i.e. the set of terminal symbols
 - SNT is the set of nonterminal symbols
 - S is the start symbol
 - P is the set of productions

Start symbol: First nonterminal symbol of the grammar is called start symbol.

```
<Noun Phrase> → <Article><Noun>
<Article> → a | an | the
<Noun> → boy | apple
```

- A grammar G of a language L_G is a quadruple (Σ, SNT, S, P) where
 - Σ is the alphabet of L_G , i.e. the set of terminal symbols
 - SNT is the set of nonterminal symbols
 - S is the start symbol
 - P is the set of productions

Production: A production, also called a rewriting rule, is a rule of grammar. It has the form of

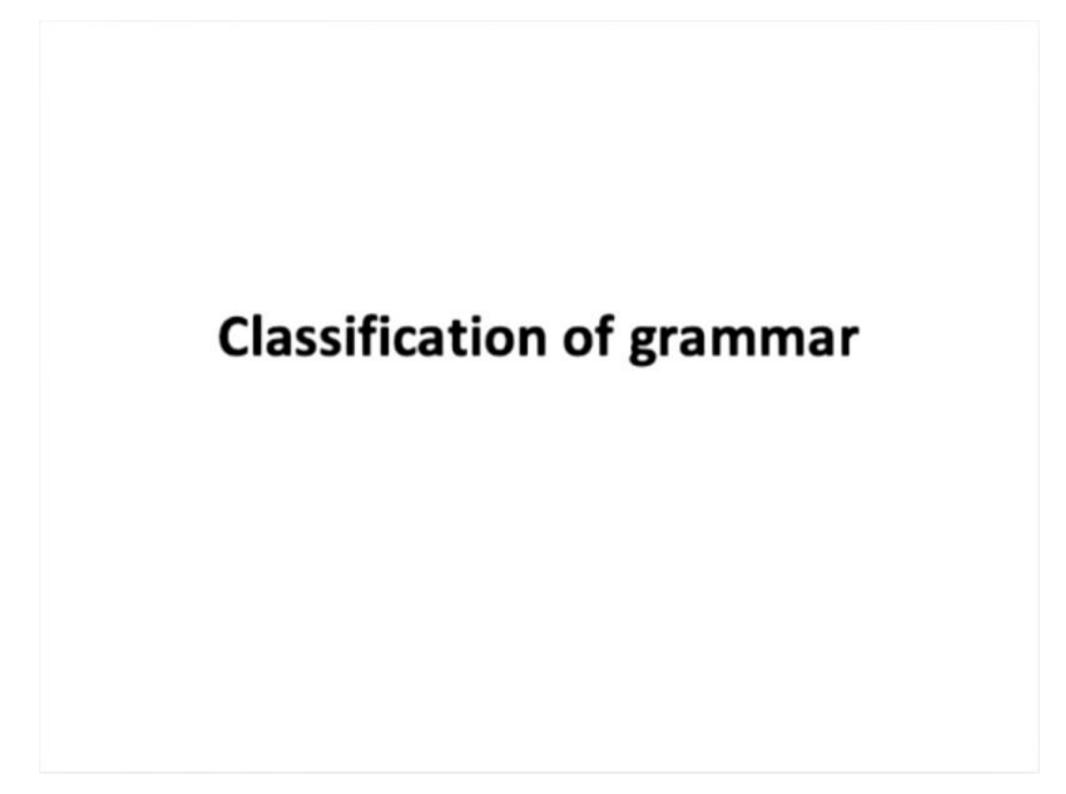
A nonterminal symbol → String of terminal and nonterminal symbols

```
<Noun Phrase> → <Article><Noun> <Article> → a | an | the <Noun> → boy | apple
```

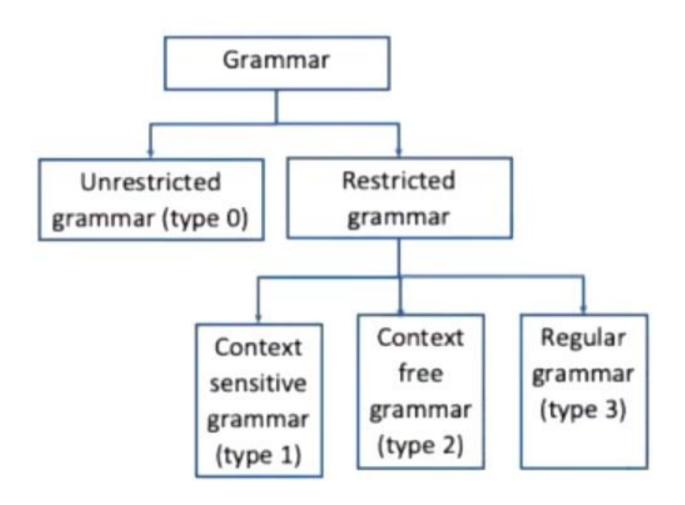
Example: Grammar

Write terminals, non terminals, start symbol, and productions for following grammar.

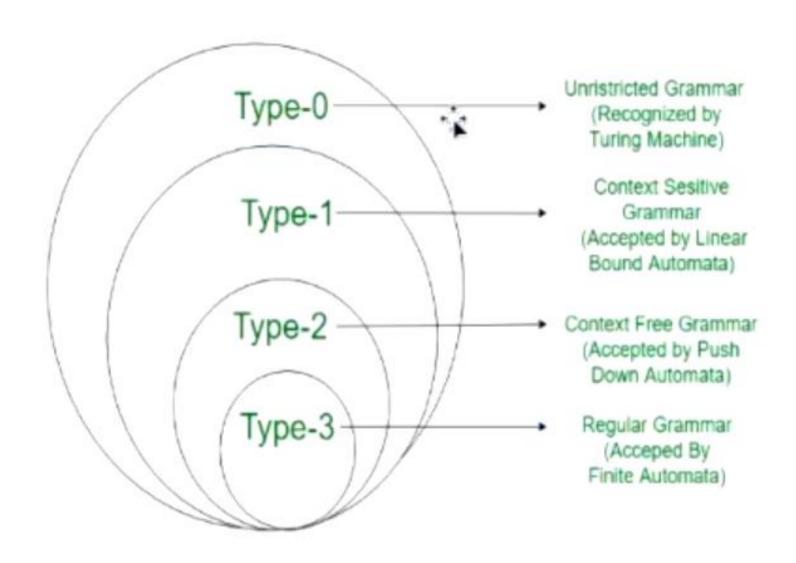
```
E \rightarrow E O E | (E) | -E | id
0 → + | - | * | / | ↑
Terminals: id + - * / \uparrow ()
Non terminals: E, O
Start symbol: E
Productions: E \rightarrow E O E | (E) | -E | id
                         0 \to + | - | * | /
IΛ
```



Classification of grammar (Chomsky hierarchy)



Classification of grammar (Chomsky hierarchy)



Type 0 grammar (Phrase Structure Grammar)

Their productions are of the form:

$$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$$

- where both α and β can be strings of terminal and nonterminal symbols.
- Such productions permit arbitrary substitution of strings during derivation or reduction, hence they are not relevant to specification of programming languages.
- Example: S → ACaB

$$Bc \rightarrow acB$$

$$CB \rightarrow DB$$

$$aD \rightarrow Db$$

Type 1 grammar (Context Sensitive Grammar)

Their productions are of the form:

$$\alpha A\beta \rightarrow \alpha \pi \beta$$

- where A is non terminal and α , β , π are strings of terminals and non terminals.
- The strings α and β may be empty, but π must be non-empty.
- Here, a string π can be replaced by 'A' (or vice versa) only when it is enclosed by the strings α and β in a sentential form.
- Productions of Type-1 grammars specify that derivation or reduction of strings can take place only in specific contexts. Hence these grammars are also known as context sensitive grammars.
- These grammars are also not relevant for programming language specification since recognition of programming language constructs is not context sensitive in nature.
- Example: AB → AbBc
 A → bcA
 B → b

Type 2 grammar (Context Free Grammar)

Their productions are of the form:

• Where
$$A$$
 is non terminal and π is string of terminals and non terminals.

- These grammars do not impose any context requirements on derivations or reductions which can be applied independent of its context.
- CFGs are ideally suited for programming language specification.
- Example: S → Xa

 $X \rightarrow a$

 $X \rightarrow aX$

 $X \rightarrow abc$

Type 3 grammar (Linear or Regular grammar)

Their productions are of the form:

$$A \rightarrow tB \mid t$$
 or $A \rightarrow Bt \mid t$

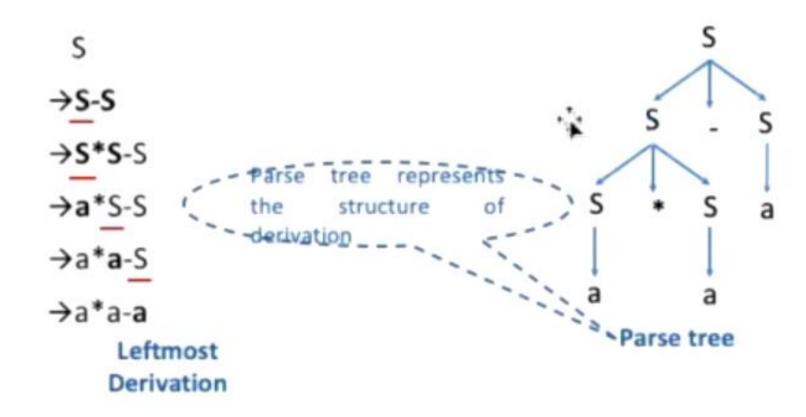
- Where A, B are non terminals and t is terminal.
- The specific form of the RHS alternatives namely a single terminal symbol or a string containing a single terminal and a single nonterminal.
- However, the nature of the productions restricts the expressive power of these grammars, e.g., nesting of constructs or matching of parentheses cannot be specified using such productions.
- Hence the use of Type-3 productions is restricted to the specification of lexical units, e.g., identifiers, constants, labels, etc.
- Example: X → a | aY
 Y → b

Derivation

- Let production P₁ of grammar G be of the form P₁: A → α and let β be a string such that β = γAθ, then replacement of A by α in string β constitutes a derivation according to production P₁.
- There are two types of derivation:
 - Leftmost derivation
 - 2. Rightmost derivation

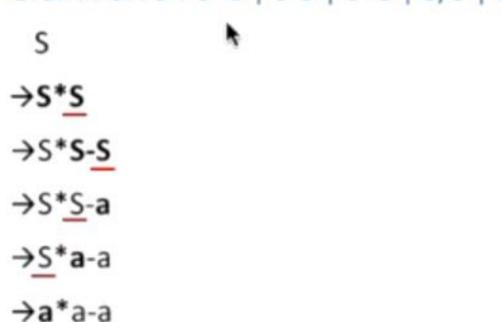
Leftmost derivation

- A derivation of a string W in a grammar G is a left most derivation
 if at every step the left most non terminal is replaced.
- Grammar: S→S+S | S-S | S*S | S/S | a Output string: a*a-a



Rightmost derivation

- A derivation of a string W in a grammar G is a right most derivation if at every step the right most non terminal is replaced.
- It is all called canonical derivation.
- Grammar: S→S+S | S-S | S*S | S/S | a Output string: a*a-a



S * S
a S - S
a a

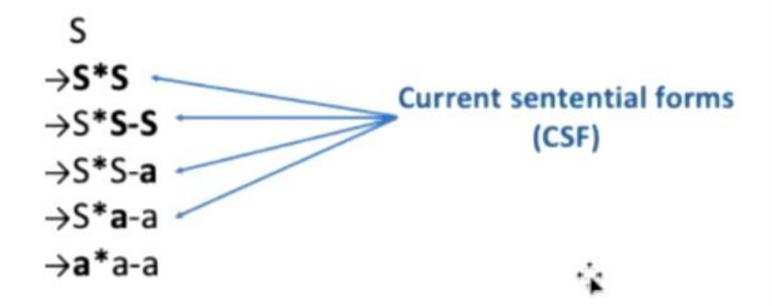
Rightmost Derivation

Reduction

• Let production P_1 of grammar G be of the form P_1 : $A \to \alpha$ and let σ be a string such that $\sigma \to \gamma \alpha \theta$, then replacement of α by A in string σ constitutes a reduction according to production P_1 .

Current sentential form

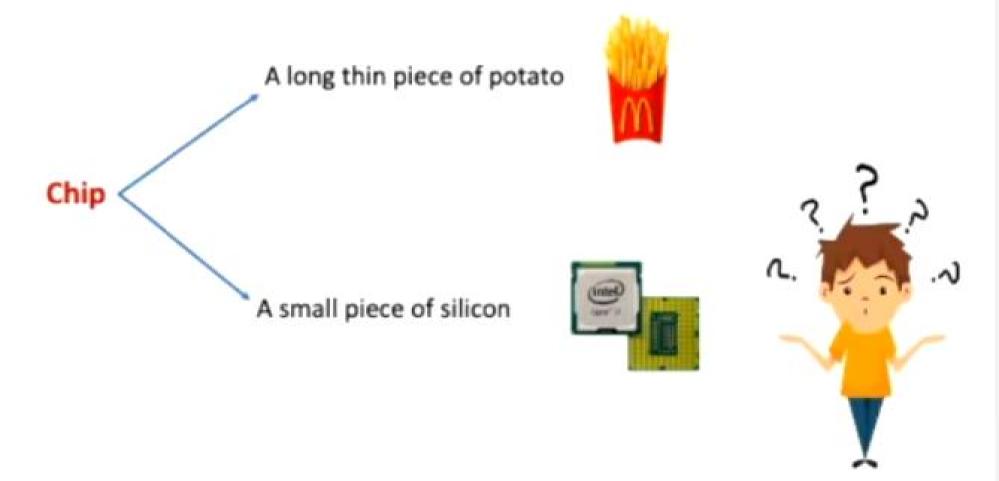
- Current sentential form is any string derivable from start symbol.
- Grammar: S→S+S | S-S | S*S | S/S | a Output string: a*a-a



Ambiguity in grammatic specification

Ambiguity

 Ambiguity, is a word, phrase, or statement which contains more than one meaning.

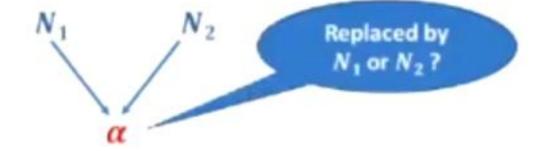


Ambiguity

 In formal language grammar, ambiguity would arise if identical string can occur on the RHS of two or more productions.



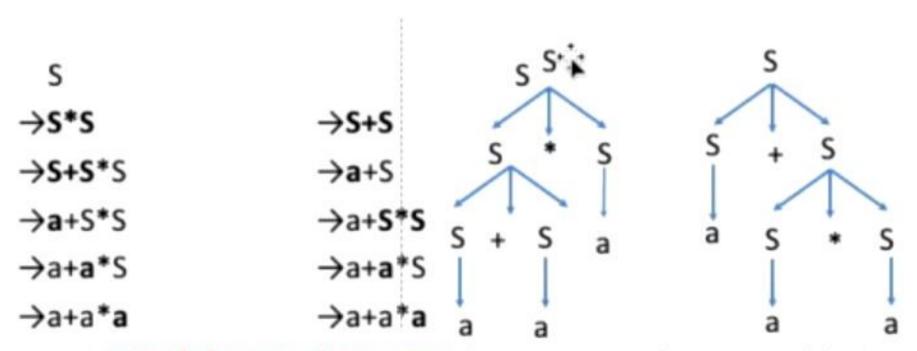
$$N_1 \rightarrow \alpha$$
 $N_2 \rightarrow \alpha$



α can be derived from either N₁ or N₂

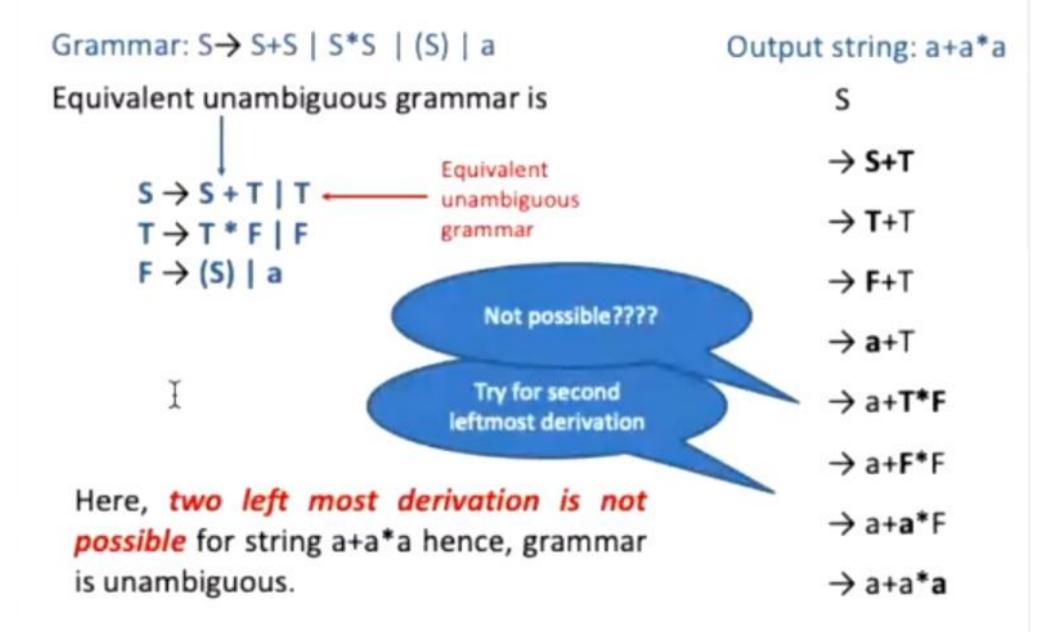
Ambiguous grammar

- Ambiguous grammar is one that produces more than one leftmost or more then one rightmost derivation for the same sentence.
- Grammar: S→S+S | S*S | (S) | a
 Output string: a+a*a



Here, Two leftmost derivation for string a+a*a is possible hence, above grammar is ambiguous.

Eliminating ambiguity

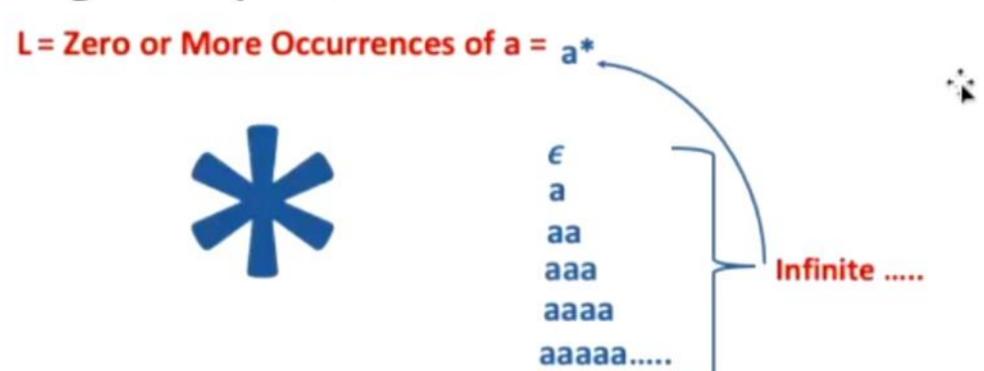


Regular expression

- A regular expression is a sequence of characters that define a pattern.
- Notational shorthand's
 - One or more occurrences: +
 - Zero or more occurrences: *
 - Alphabets: Σ

 Regular Expression is mainly for use in pattern matching with strings, or string matching, i.e. "find and replace"-like operations.

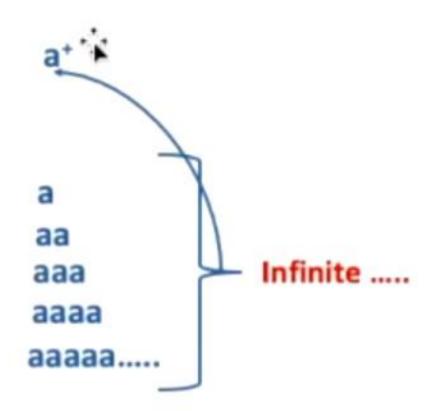
Regular expression



Regular expression

L = One or More Occurrences of a =





Precedence and associativity of operators

Operator	Precedence	Associative
Kleene *	1	left
Concatenation	2 _Y	left
Union	3	left

Regular expression examples

Strings: 0,1

$$R. E. = 0 | 1$$

Strings: 0, 11, 111

$$R.E_{1} = 0 | 11 | 111$$

Strings: ϵ , a, aa, aaa, aaaa ...

$$R.E. = a$$

Strings: a, aa, aaa, aaaa

$$R.E. = a^+$$

Strings: abc, bca, bbb, cab, al

$$R. E. = (a|b|c) (a|b|c) (a|b|c)$$

Strings: 0, 11, 101, 10101, 11

$$R.E. = (0 | 1)^{+}$$

Finite State Automata



Finite state automata

• A finite state automata is a triple (S, Σ, T) where

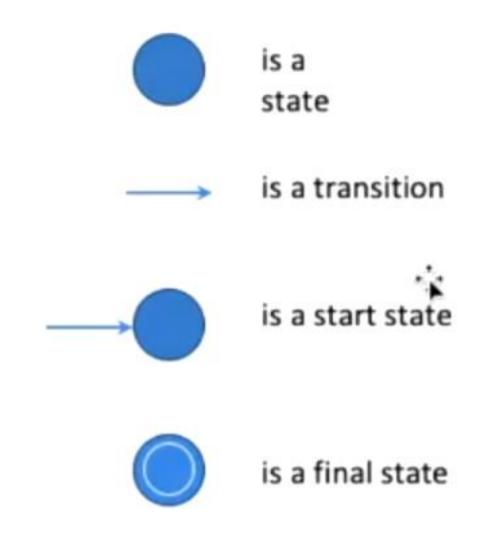
S: is a finite set of states one of which is the initial state s_{init} one or more of which are the final states.

 Σ : is the input symbols.

T: is a finite set of state transitions defining transitions out of states in S on encountering symbols in Σ .



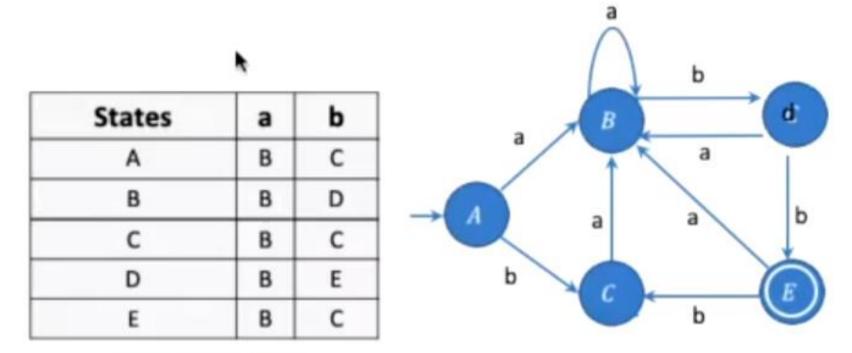
Finite state automata notations



Finite state automata

- Deterministic finite state automaton:
 - It is a finite state automaton none of whose states has two or more transitions for the same source symbol.
 - The DFA has the property that it reaches a unique state for every source string input to it.
- Non Deterministic finite state automaton:
 - No restriction on edges leaving states.
 - There can be several with the same symbol as label and some edges can be labeled as ε.

DFA

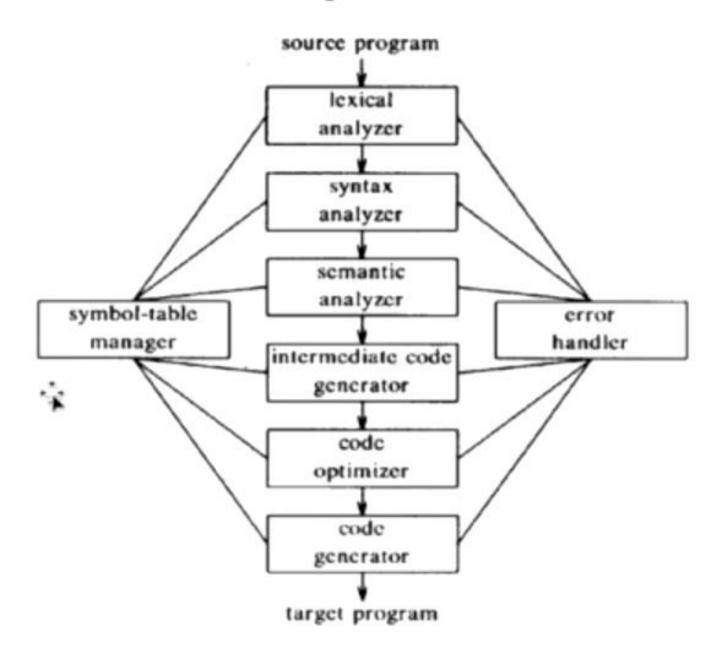


Transition Table

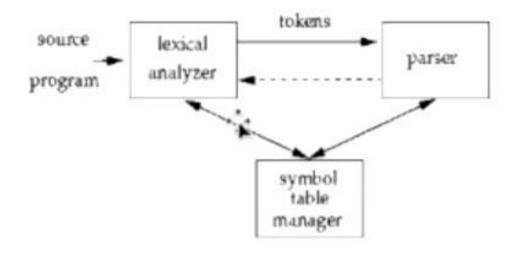
DFA

Lexical Analysis (Scanning)

Phases of a compiler



Overview



- Main task: to read input characters and group them into "tokens" – (Constants, identifiers, keywords etc.)
- Secondary tasks:
 - Skip comments and white space;
 - Correlate error messages with source program (e.g., line number of error).

Lexical Analysis: Terminology

 token: a name for a set of input strings with related structure.

Example: "identifier," "integer constant"

 pattern: a rule describing the set of strings associated with a token.

Example: "a letter followed by zero or more letters, digits, or underscores."

lexeme: the actual input string that matches a pattern.

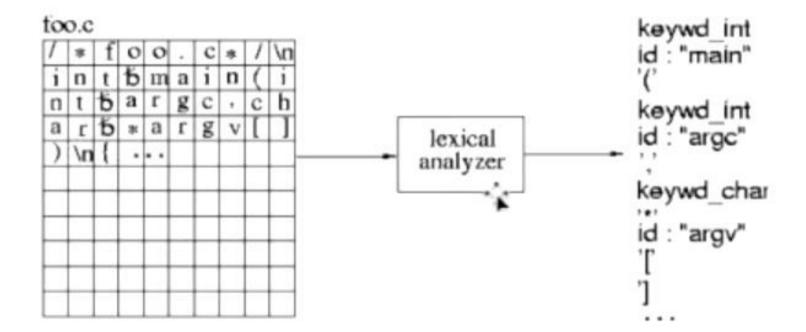
Example: count

Lexical Analysis

Lexeme	Token	Attribute Value
White space		
Sequence of digits	NUM	Numeric value of sequence
div	DIV	.5.
mod	MOD	
Other sequence of a letter		
then letters and digits	ID	Index into symtable
End - of - file char	DONE	
Any other character	character	NONE
**		

Description of tokens

Lexical Analysis



Examples

```
Input: count = 123
Tokens:
  identifier: Rule: "letter followed by ..."
            Lexeme: count
  assg_op : Rule: =
            Lexeme: =
  integer_const : Rule: "digit followed by ..."
                Lexeme: 123
```

Attributes for Tokens

- If more than one lexeme can match the pattern for a token, the scanner must indicate the actual lexeme that matched.
- This information is given using an <u>attribute</u> associated with the token.

```
Example: The program statement
   count = 123
yields the following token-attribute pairs:
   ⟨identifier, pointer to the string "count"⟩
   ⟨assg_op,⟩
   ⟨integer_const, the integer value 123⟩
```

Implementing Lexical Analyzers

Different approaches:

 Using a scanner generator, e.g., lex or flex. This automatically generates a lexical analyzer from a high-level description of the tokens.

(easiest to implement; least efficient)

 Programming it in a language such as C, using the I/O facilities of the language.

(intermediate in ease, efficiency)

Implementing Lexical Analyzers

- Identify keywords, identifiers id table
- Identify operators operator table
- Identify Preprocessor Directives Keyword # in id table
- Identify comments

Program

```
# include < stdio.h >
int main ( void )

    Int a, b;

float c, d;

    for ( i=0; i<=10; i++) / * can be any other loop */</li>

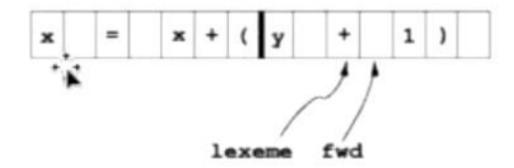
• d = a + b + c:

    printf( "%f",d ); /* can be any other function */
```

Input Buffering

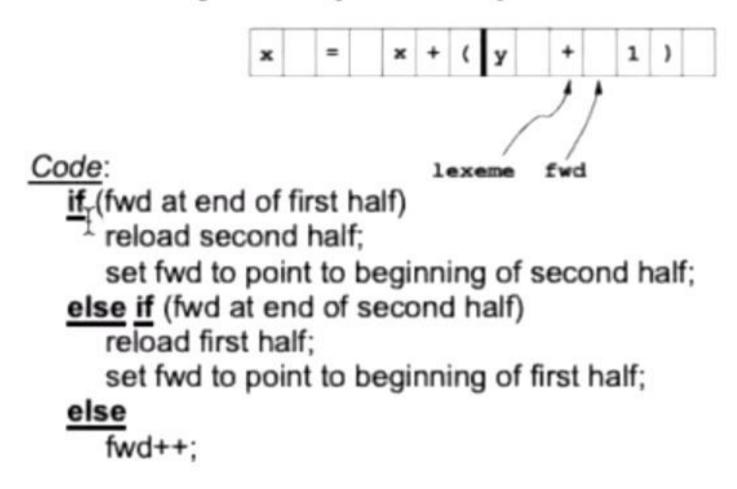
- Scanner performance is crucial:
 - This is the only part of the compiler that examines the entire input program one character at a time.
 - Disk input can be slow.
 - The scanner accounts for ~25-30% of total compile time.
- We need look ahead to determine when a match has been found.
- Scanners use <u>double-buffering</u> to minimize the overheads associated with this.

Buffer Pairs



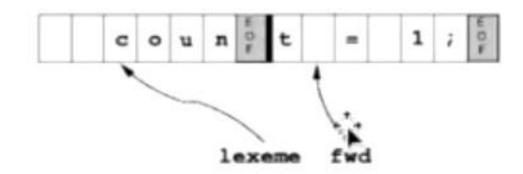
- Use two N-byte buffers (N = size of a disk block; typically, N = 1024 or 4096).
- Read N bytes into one half of the buffer each time.
 If input has less than N bytes, put a special EOF marker in the buffer.
- When one buffer has been processed, read N bytes into the other buffer ("circular buffers").

Buffer pairs (cont'd)



it takes two tests for each advance of the fwd pointer.

Buffer pairs: Sentinels



- Objective: Optimize the common case by reducing the number of tests to one per advance of fwd.
- <u>Idea</u>: Extend each buffer half to hold a sentinel at the end.
 - This is a special character that cannot occur in a program (e.g., EOF).
 - It signals the need for some special action (fill other buffer-half, or terminate processing).