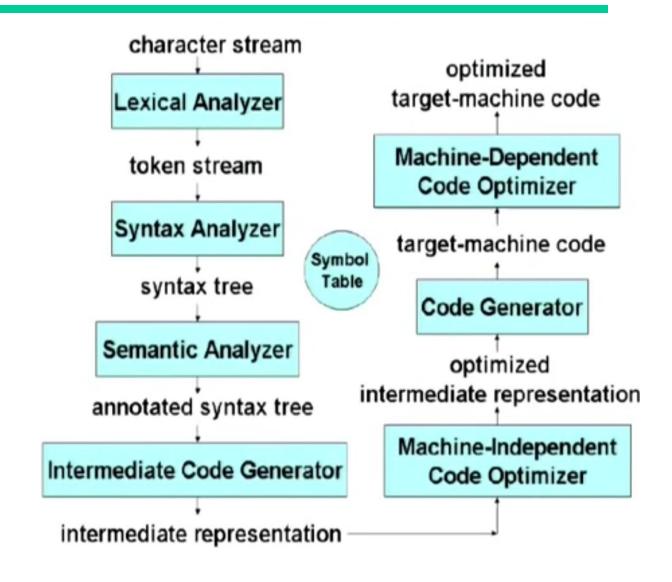
# Syntax Analysis (Part 1)

CSE 415: Compiler Construction

# Phases of a Compiler



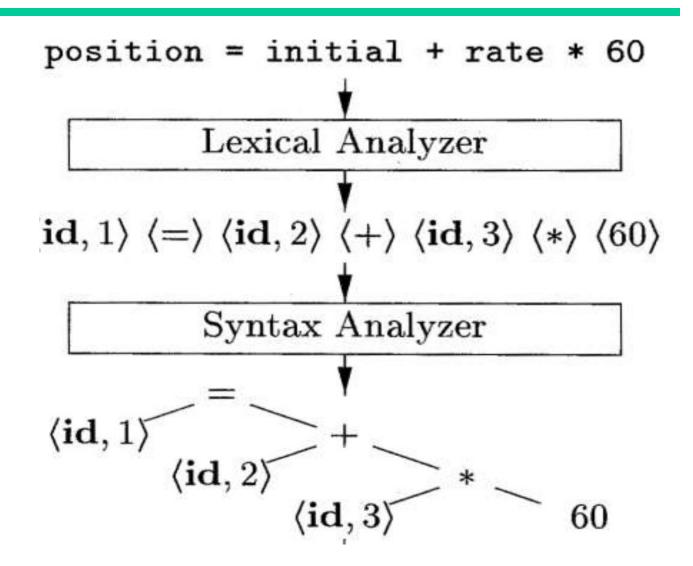
### Grammars

- Every programming language has precise grammar rules that describe the syntactic structure of well-formed programs
  - In C, the rules state how functions are made out of parameter lists, declarations, and statements; how statements are made of expressions, etc.
- Grammars are easy to understand, and parsers for programming languages can be constructed automatically from certain classes of grammars
- Parsers or syntax analyzers are generated for a particular grammar
- Context-free grammars are usually used for syntax specification of programming languages

# What Parsing or Syntax Analysis

- A parser for a grammar of a programming language
  - verifies that the string of tokens for a program in that language can indeed be generated from that grammar
  - reports any syntax errors in the program
  - constructs a parse tree representation of the program (not necessarily explicit)
  - usually calls the lexical analyzer to supply a token to it when necessary
  - could be hand-written or automatically generated
  - is based on context-free grammars
- Grammars are generative mechanisms like regular expressions
- Pushdown automata are machines recognizing context-free languages (like FSA for RL)

# What Parsing or Syntax Analysis



# Context Free Grammar (CFG)

- A CFG is denoted as G = (N. T. P. S)
  - N: Finite set of non-terminals
  - T: Finite set of terminals
  - S ∈ N: The start symbol
  - P: Finite set of productions, each of the form A → α, where A ∈ N and α ∈ (N ∪ T)\*
- Usually, only P is specified and the first production corresponds to that of the start symbol
- Examples

(1) (2) (3) (4)   

$$E_{\odot} \rightarrow E + E$$
  $S \rightarrow 0S0$   $S \rightarrow aSb$   $S \rightarrow aB \mid bA$   
 $E \rightarrow E * E$   $S \rightarrow 1S1$   $S \rightarrow \epsilon$   $A \rightarrow a \mid aS \mid bAA$   
 $E \rightarrow (E)$   $S \rightarrow 0$   $B \rightarrow b \mid bS \mid aBB$   
 $E \rightarrow id$   $S \rightarrow 1$   
 $S \rightarrow \epsilon$ 

## **Dervations**

- $E \Rightarrow^{E \to E + E} E + E \Rightarrow^{E \to id} id + E \Rightarrow^{E \to id} id + id$ is a derivation of the terminal string id + id from E
- In a derivation, a production is applied at each step, to replace a nonterminal by the right-hand side of the corresponding production
- In the above example, the productions E → E + E, E → id, and E → id, are applied at steps 1,2, and, 3 respectively
- The above derivation is represented in short as,
   E ⇒\* id + id, and is read as S derives id + id

# Context Free Languages (CFLs)

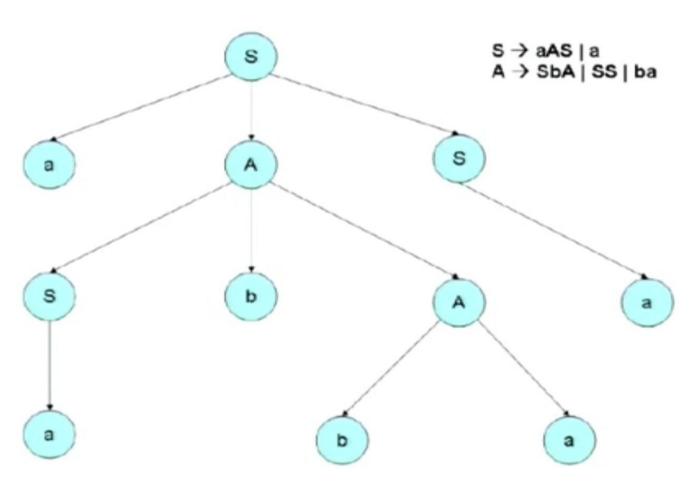
- Context-free grammars generate context-free languages (grammar and language resp.)
- The language generated by G, denoted L(G), is  $L(G) = \{ w \mid w \in T^*, \text{ and } S \Rightarrow^* w \}$ i.e., a string is in L(G), if
  - the string consists solely of terminals
  - the string can be derived from S
- Examples
  - L(G<sub>1</sub>) = Set of all expressions with +, \*, names, and balanced '(' and ')'
  - L(G<sub>2</sub>) = Set of palindromes over 0 and 1

  - L(G<sub>4</sub>) = {x | x has equal no. of a's and b's}
- A string  $\alpha \in (N \cup T)^*$  is a **sentential form** if  $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha$
- Two grammars G<sub>1</sub> and G<sub>2</sub> are equivalent, if L(G<sub>1</sub>) = L(G<sub>2</sub>)

### **Derivation Trees**

- Derivations can be displayed as trees
- The internal nodes of the tree are all nonterminals and the leaves are all terminals
- Corresponding to each internal node A, there exists a production ∈ P, with the RHS of the production being the list of children of A, read from left to right
- The yield of a derivation tree is the list of the labels of all the leaves read from left to right
- If α is the yield of some derivation tree for a grammar G, then S ⇒\* α and conversely

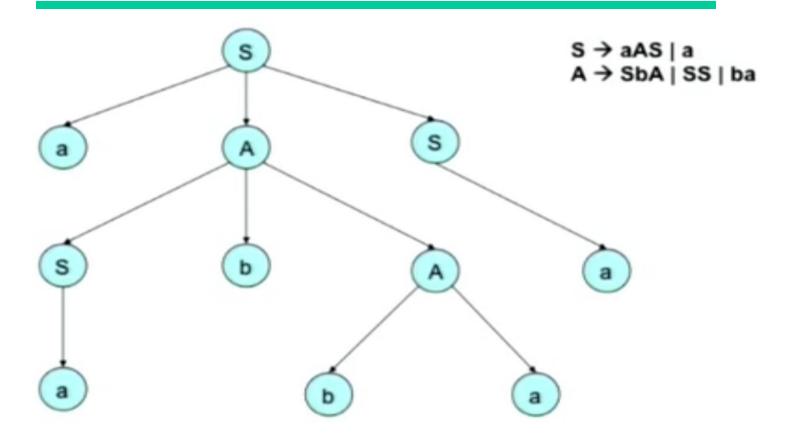
# Derivation Tree Example



# Leftmost and Rightmost Derivations

- If at each step in a derivation, a production is applied to the leftmost nonterminal, then the derivation is said to be leftmost. Similarly rightmost derivation.
- If w ∈ L(G) for some G, then w has at least one parse tree and corresponding to a parse tree, w has unique leftmost and rightmost derivations
- If some word w in L(G) has two or more parse trees, then
   G is said to be ambiguous
- A CFL for which every G is ambiguous, is said to be an inherently ambiguous CFL

# Leftmost and Rightmost Derivations: Example



Leftmost derivation: S => aAS => aSbAS => aabAS => aabbaS => aabbaa

Rightmost derivation: S => aAS => aAa => aSbAa => aSbbaa => aabbaa

# Ambiguous Grammar Examples

The grammar, E → E + E|E \* E|(E)|id
is ambiguous, but the following grammar for the same
language is unambiguous
E → E + T|T, T → T \* F|F, F → (E)|id

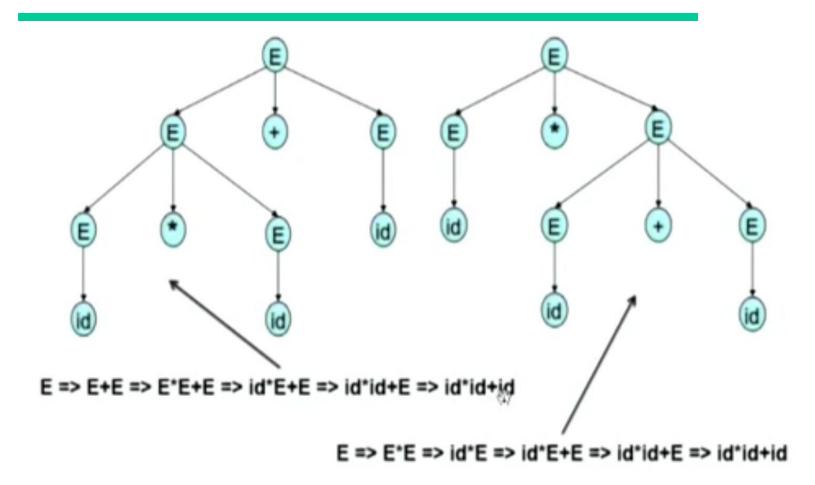
 The grammar, stmt → IF expr stmt | IF expr stmt ELSE stmt | other\_stmt

is ambiguous, but the following equivalent grammar is not

stmt → IF expr stmt | IF expr matched\_stmt ELSE stmt matched\_stmt → IF expr matched\_stmt other\_stmt

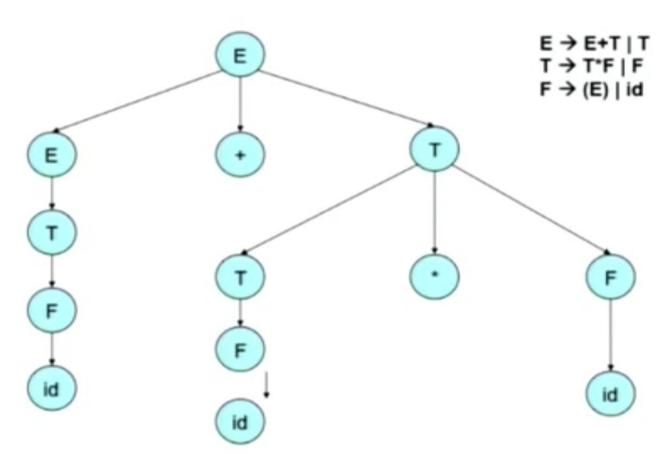
The language,
 L = {a<sup>n</sup>b<sup>n</sup>c<sup>m</sup>d<sup>m</sup> | n, m ≥ 1} ∪ {a<sup>n</sup>b<sup>m</sup>c<sup>m</sup>d<sup>n</sup> | n, m ≥ 1},
 is inherently ambiguous

# Ambiguity Example 1



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

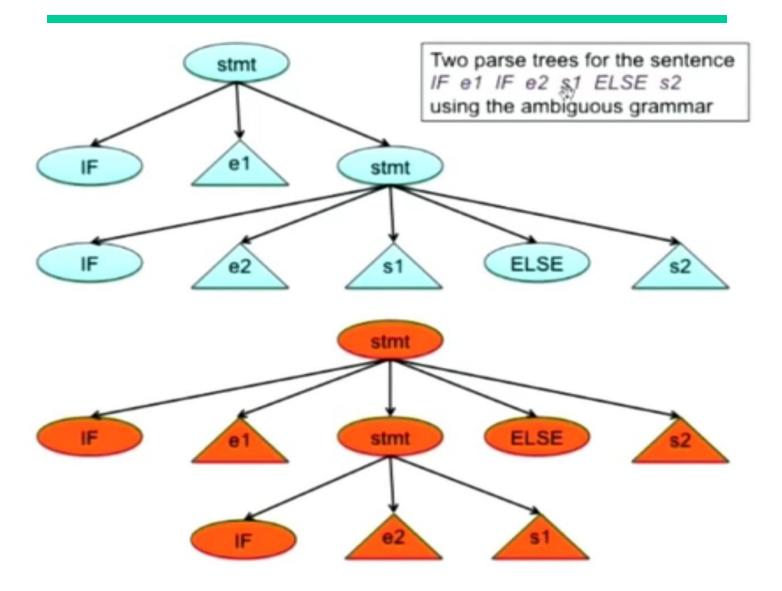
# Equivalent Unambiguous Grammar



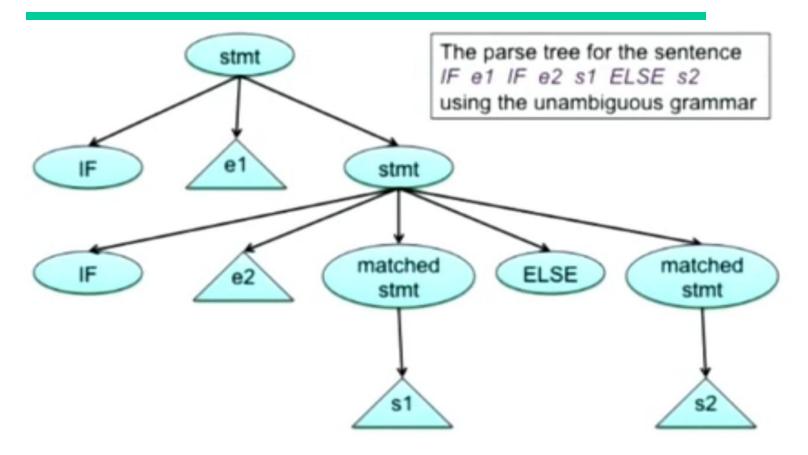
E => E+T => T+T => F+T => id+T => id+T\*F => id+F\*F => id+id\*F => id+id\*id

 $E => T^*F => F^*F => (E)^*F => (E+T)^*F => (T+T)^*F => (F+T)^*F => (id+T)^*F => (id+F)^*id => (id+id)^*F => (id+id)^*id$ 

# Ambiguity Example 2



# Ambiguity Example 2



s→ IF e s | IF e ms ELS s ms → IF e ms ELSE ms | other\_s