



# **COMPILER DESIGN**

## **SUBJECT CODE: 303105349**

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## CHAPTER-2

### Introduction to syntax analysis



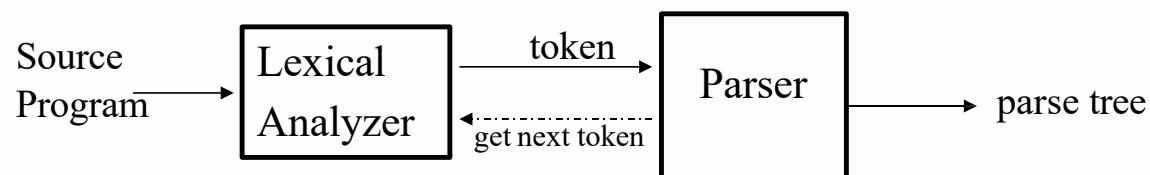
## Syntax Analyzer

- *Syntax Analyzer* creates the syntactic structure of the given source program.
- This syntactic structure is mostly a *parse tree*.
- Syntax Analyzer is also known as *parser*.
- The syntax of a programming is described by a *context-free grammar (CFG)*. We will use BNF (Backus-Naur Form) notation in the description of CFGs.
- The syntax analyzer (parser) checks whether a given source program satisfies the rules implied by a context-free grammar or not.
  - If it satisfies, the parser creates the parse tree of that program.
  - Otherwise the parser gives the error messages.
- A context-free grammar
  - gives a precise syntactic specification of a programming language.
  - the design of the grammar is an initial phase of the design of a compiler.
  - a grammar can be directly converted into a parser by some tools.



## Parser

- Parser works on a stream of tokens.
- The smallest item is a token.





## Parsers (cont.)

- We categorize the parsers into two groups:
  1. **Top-Down Parser**
    - the parse tree is created top to bottom, starting from the root.
  2. **Bottom-Up Parser**
    - the parse is created bottom to top; starting from the leaves
- Both top-down and bottom-up parsers scan the input from left to right (one symbol at a time).
- Efficient top-down and bottom-up parsers can be implemented only for sub-classes of context-free grammars.
  - LL for top-down parsing
  - LR for bottom-up parsing



## Context-Free Grammars

- Inherently recursive structures of a programming language are defined by a context-free grammar.
- In a context-free grammar, we have:
  - A finite set of terminals (in our case, this will be the set of tokens)
  - A finite set of non-terminals (syntactic-variables)
  - A finite set of production rules in the following form
    - $A \rightarrow \alpha$  where A is a non-terminal and  
 $\alpha$  is a string of terminals and non-terminals (including the empty string)
  - A start symbol (one of the non-terminal symbols)
- Example:
  - $E \rightarrow E + E \mid E - E \mid E * E \mid E / E \mid - E$
  - $E \rightarrow ( E )$
  - $E \rightarrow id$



## Derivations

$E \Rightarrow E+E$

- $E+E$  derives from  $E$ 
  - we can replace  $E$  by  $E+E$
  - to able to do this, we have to have a production rule  $E \rightarrow E+E$  in our grammar.

$E \Rightarrow E+E \Rightarrow id+id \Rightarrow id+id$

- A sequence of replacements of non-terminal symbols is called a **derivation** of  $id+id$  from  $E$ .

- In general a derivation step is

$\alpha A \beta \Rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$       if there is a production rule  $A \rightarrow \gamma$  in our grammar  
 where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are arbitrary strings of terminal and non-terminal symbols

$\alpha_1 \Rightarrow \alpha_2 \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \alpha_n$     ( $\alpha_n$  derives from  $\alpha_1$  or  $\alpha_1$  derives  $\alpha_n$ )

- |               |                                 |
|---------------|---------------------------------|
| $\Rightarrow$ | : derives in one step           |
| $\Rightarrow$ | : derives in zero or more steps |
| $\Rightarrow$ | : derives in one or more steps  |



## CFG - Terminology

- $L(G)$  is *the language of G* (the language generated by G) which is a set of sentences.
- A *sentence of  $L(G)$*  is a string of terminal symbols of G.
- If S is the start symbol of G then  
 $\omega$  is a sentence of  $L(G)$  iff  $S \Rightarrow \omega$  where  $\omega$  is a string of terminals of G.
- If G is a context-free grammar,  $L(G)$  is a *context-free language*.
- Two grammars are *equivalent* if they produce the same language.
- $S \Rightarrow \alpha$  - If  $\alpha$  contains non-terminals, it is called as a *sentential form* of G.
  - If  $\alpha$  does not contain non-terminals, it is called as a *sentence* of G.



## Derivation Example

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

OR

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

- At each derivation step, we can choose any of the non-terminal in the sentential form of G for the replacement.
- If we always choose the left-most non-terminal in each derivation step, this derivation is called as **left-most derivation**.
- If we always choose the right-most non-terminal in each derivation step, this derivation is called as **right-most derivation**.



## Left-Most and Right-Most Derivations

Left-Most Derivation

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

Right-Most Derivation

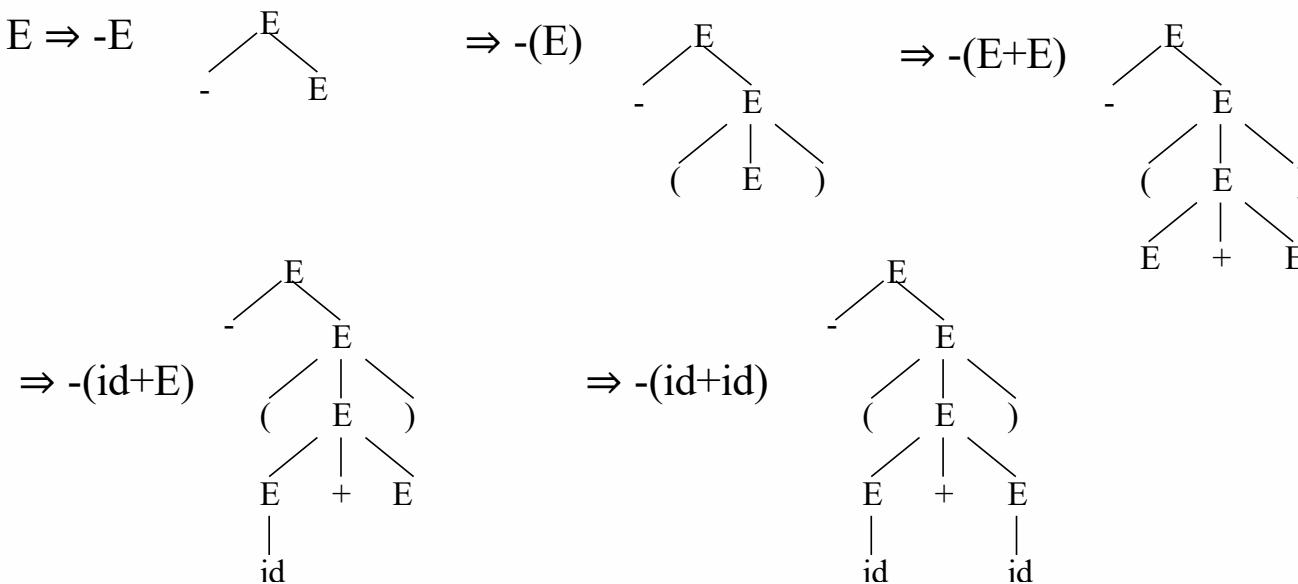
$$E \Rightarrow -E \Rightarrow -(E) \Rightarrow -(E+E) \Rightarrow -(E+id) \Rightarrow -(id+id)$$

- We will see that the top-down parsers try to find the left-most derivation of the given source program.
- We will see that the bottom-up parsers try to find the right-most derivation of the given source program in the reverse order.



## Parse Tree

- Inner nodes of a parse tree are non-terminal symbols.
- The leaves of a parse tree are terminal symbols.
- A parse tree can be seen as a graphical representation of a derivation.

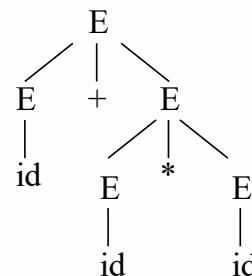




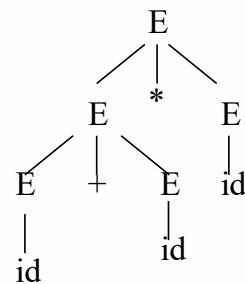
## Ambiguity

- A grammar produces more than one parse tree for a sentence is called as an *ambiguous* grammar.

$E \Rightarrow E+E \Rightarrow id+E \Rightarrow id+E^*E$   
 $\Rightarrow id+id^*E \Rightarrow id+id^*id$



$E \Rightarrow E^*E \Rightarrow E+E^*E \Rightarrow id+E^*E$   
 $\Rightarrow id+id^*E \Rightarrow id+id^*id$





## Ambiguity (cont.)

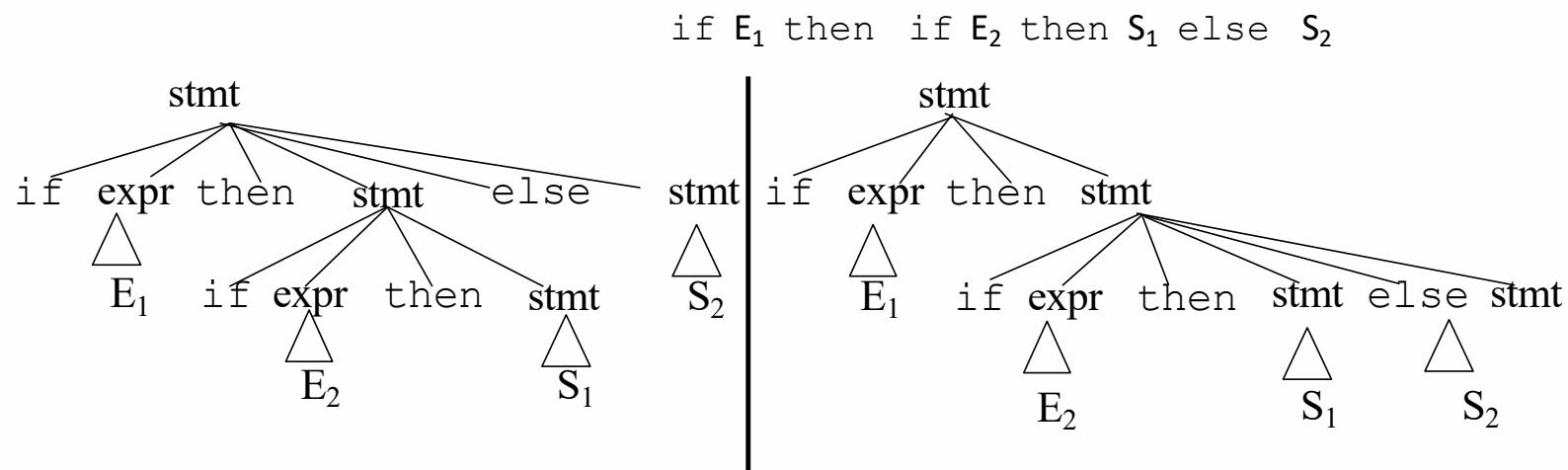
- For the most parsers, the grammar must be unambiguous.
- unambiguous grammar
  - unique selection of the parse tree for a sentence
- We should eliminate the ambiguity in the grammar during the design phase of the compiler.
- An unambiguous grammar should be written to eliminate the ambiguity.
- We have to prefer one of the parse trees of a sentence (generated by an ambiguous grammar) to disambiguate that grammar to restrict to this choice.





## Ambiguity (cont.)

$\text{stmt} \rightarrow \text{if expr then stmt} \mid \text{if expr then stmt else stmt} \mid \text{otherstmts}$





## Ambiguity (cont.)

- We prefer the second parse tree (else matches with closest if).
- So, we have to disambiguate our grammar to reflect this choice.
- The unambiguous grammar will be:

$\text{stmt} \rightarrow \text{matchedstmt} \mid \text{unmatchedstmt}$

$\text{matchedstmt} \rightarrow \text{if expr then matchedstmt else matchedstmt} \mid \text{otherstmts}$

$\text{unmatchedstmt} \rightarrow \text{if expr then stmt} \mid$   
 $\quad \quad \quad \text{if expr then matchedstmt else unmatchedstmt}$



## Ambiguity – Operator Precedence

- Ambiguous grammars (because of ambiguous operators) can be disambiguated according to the precedence and associativity rules.

$E \rightarrow E+E \mid E^*E \mid E^{\wedge}E \mid id \mid (E)$

disambiguate the grammar

precedence:

$\wedge$	(right to left)
$*$	(left to right)
$+$	(left to right)

$E \rightarrow E+T \mid T$

$T \rightarrow T^*F \mid F$

$F \rightarrow G^{\wedge}F \mid G$

$G \rightarrow id \mid (E)$





## Left Recursion

- A grammar is ***left recursive*** if it has a non-terminal A such that there is a derivation.

$A \Rightarrow A\alpha$  for some string  $\alpha$

- Top-down parsing techniques **cannot** handle left-recursive grammars.
- So, we have to convert our left-recursive grammar into an equivalent grammar which is not left-recursive.
- The left-recursion may appear in a single step of the derivation (*immediate left-recursion*), or may appear in more than one step of the derivation.





## Immediate Left-Recursion

$A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta$  where  $\beta$  does not start with  $A$

**U** eliminate immediate left recursion

$A \rightarrow \beta A'$

$A' \rightarrow \alpha A' \mid \epsilon$  an equivalent grammar

In general,

$A \rightarrow A\alpha_1 \mid \dots \mid A\alpha_m \mid \beta_1 \mid \dots \mid \beta_n$  where  $\beta_1 \dots \beta_n$  do not start with  $A$

**U** eliminate immediate left recursion

$A \rightarrow \beta_1 A' \mid \dots \mid \beta_n A'$

$A' \rightarrow \alpha_1 A' \mid \dots \mid \alpha_m A' \mid \epsilon$

an equivalent grammar





## Immediate Left-Recursion -- Example

$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$

$T \rightarrow T^* F \mid F$

$F \rightarrow id \mid (E)$

U      eliminate immediate left recursion

$E \rightarrow T E'$

$E' \rightarrow +T E' \mid \epsilon$

$T \rightarrow F T'$

$T' \rightarrow *F T' \mid \epsilon$

$F \rightarrow id \mid (E)$





## Left-Recursion -- Problem

- A grammar cannot be immediately left-recursive, but it still can be left-recursive.
- By just eliminating the immediate left-recursion, we may not get a grammar which is not left-recursive.

$S \rightarrow Aa \mid b$   
 $A \rightarrow Sc \mid d$

This grammar is not immediately  
left-recursive,  
but it is still left-recursive.

$S \Rightarrow Aa \Rightarrow Sca$       or  
 $A \Rightarrow Sc \Rightarrow Aac$       causes to a left-recursion

So, we have to eliminate all left-recursions from our grammar





## Eliminate Left-Recursion -- Algorithm

- Arrange non-terminals in some order:  $A_1 \dots A_n$
- **for**  $i$  **from** 1 **to**  $n$  **do** {
  - **for**  $j$  **from** 1 **to**  $i-1$  **do** {
    - replace each production  
 $A_i \rightarrow A_j \gamma$   
by  
 $A_i \rightarrow \alpha_1 \gamma \mid \dots \mid \alpha_k \gamma$   
where  $A_j \rightarrow \alpha_1 \mid \dots \mid \alpha_k$
  - }
  - eliminate immediate left-recursions among  $A_i$  productions
- }





## Eliminate Left-Recursion -- Example

$S \rightarrow Aa \mid b$   
 $A \rightarrow Ac \mid Sd \mid f$

- Order of non-terminals: S, A

for S:

- we do not enter the inner loop.
- there is no immediate left recursion in S.

for A:

- Replace  $A \rightarrow Sd$  with  $A \rightarrow Aad \mid bd$   
 So, we will have  $A \rightarrow Ac \mid Aad \mid bd \mid f$
- Eliminate the immediate left-recursion in A  
 $A \rightarrow bdA' \mid fA'$   
 $A' \rightarrow cA' \mid adA' \mid \epsilon$

So, the resulting equivalent grammar which is not left-recursive is:

$S \rightarrow Aa \mid b$   
 $A \rightarrow bdA' \mid fA'$   
 $A' \rightarrow cA' \mid adA' \mid \epsilon$





## Eliminate Left-Recursion – Example2

$S \rightarrow Aa \mid b$   
 $A \rightarrow Ac \mid Sd \mid f$   
 - Order of non-terminals: A, S

for A:

- we do not enter the inner loop.
- Eliminate the immediate left-recursion in A
 
$$A \rightarrow SdA' \mid fA'$$

$$A' \rightarrow cA' \mid \epsilon$$

for S:

- Replace  $S \rightarrow Aa$  with  $S \rightarrow SdA'a \mid fA'a$   
 So, we will have  $S \rightarrow SdA'a \mid fA'a \mid b$
- Eliminate the immediate left-recursion in S
 
$$S \rightarrow fA'aS' \mid bS'$$

$$S' \rightarrow dA'aS' \mid \epsilon$$

So, the resulting equivalent grammar which is not left-recursive is:

$S \rightarrow fA'aS' \mid bS'$   
 $S' \rightarrow dA'aS' \mid \epsilon$   
 $A \rightarrow SdA' \mid fA'$   
 $A' \rightarrow cA' \mid \epsilon$





## Left-Factoring

- A predictive parser (a top-down parser without backtracking) insists that the grammar must be *left-factored*.

grammar ↩ a new equivalent grammar suitable for predictive parsing

```
stmt → if expr then stmt else stmt |  
          if expr then stmt
```

- when we see `if`, we cannot now which production rule to choose to re-write *stmt* in the derivation.





## Left-Factoring (cont.)

- In general,

$A \rightarrow \alpha\beta_1 \mid \alpha\beta_2$  where  $\alpha$  is non-empty and the first symbols of  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  (if they have one) are different.

- when processing  $\alpha$  we cannot know whether expand

A to  $\alpha\beta_1$  or  
A to  $\alpha\beta_2$

- But, if we re-write the grammar as follows

$A \rightarrow \alpha A'$   
 $A' \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid \beta_2$  so, we can immediately expand A to  $\alpha A'$





## Left-Factoring -- Algorithm

- For each non-terminal A with two or more alternatives (production rules) with a common non-empty prefix, let say

$$A \rightarrow \alpha\beta_1 \mid \dots \mid \alpha\beta_n \mid \gamma_1 \mid \dots \mid \gamma_m$$

convert it into

$$A \rightarrow \alpha A' \mid \gamma_1 \mid \dots \mid \gamma_m$$

$$A' \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid \dots \mid \beta_n$$





## Left-Factoring – Example1

$A \rightarrow \underline{ab}B \mid \underline{a}B \mid cdg \mid cdeB \mid cdfB$

U

$A \rightarrow aA' \mid \underline{cdg} \mid \underline{cde}B \mid \underline{cdf}B$

$A' \rightarrow bB \mid B$

U

$A \rightarrow aA' \mid cdA''$

$A' \rightarrow bB \mid B$

$A'' \rightarrow g \mid eB \mid fB$





## Left-Factoring – Example2

$A \rightarrow ad \mid a \mid ab \mid abc \mid b$

U

$A \rightarrow aA' \mid b$

$A' \rightarrow d \mid \epsilon \mid b \mid bc$

U

$A \rightarrow aA' \mid b$

$A' \rightarrow d \mid \epsilon \mid bA''$

$A'' \rightarrow \epsilon \mid c$





## Non-Context Free Language Constructs

- There are some language constructions in the programming languages which are not context-free. This means that, we cannot write a context-free grammar for these constructions.

- $L_1 = \{ \omega c \omega \mid \omega \text{ is in } (a|b)^* \}$  is not context-free

❑ declaring an identifier and checking whether it is declared or not later. We cannot do this with a context-free language. We need semantic analyzer (which is not context-free).

- $L_2 = \{a^n b^m c^n d^m \mid n \geq 1 \text{ and } m \geq 1\}$  is not context-free

❑ declaring two functions (one with n parameters, the other one with m parameters), and then calling them with actual parameters.





## Top-Down Parsing

- The parse tree is created top to bottom.
- Top-down parser
  - Recursive-Descent Parsing
    - Backtracking is needed (If a choice of a production rule does not work, we backtrack to try other alternatives.)
    - It is a general parsing technique, but not widely used.
    - Not efficient
  - Predictive Parsing
    - no backtracking
    - efficient
    - needs a special form of grammars (LL(1) grammars).
    - Recursive Predictive Parsing is a special form of Recursive Descent parsing without backtracking.
    - Non-Recursive (Table Driven) Predictive Parser is also known as LL(1) parser.



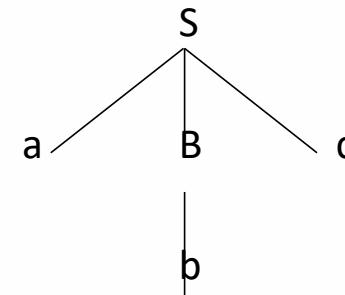
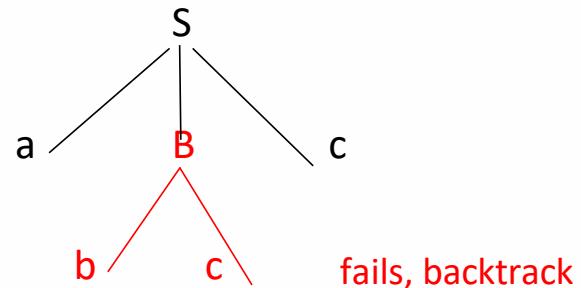
## Recursive-Descent Parsing (uses Backtracking)

- Backtracking is needed.
- It tries to find the left-most derivation.

$S \rightarrow aBc$

$B \rightarrow bc \mid b$

input: abc





## Predictive Parser

a grammar       $\xrightarrow{?}$       a grammar suitable for predictive  
eliminate                  left                        parsing (a LL(1) grammar)  
left recursion      factor                       no %100 guarantee.

- When re-writing a non-terminal in a derivation step, a predictive parser can uniquely choose a production rule by just looking the current symbol in the input string.

$$A \rightarrow \alpha_1 \mid \dots \mid \alpha_n$$

input: ... a .....

current token





## Predictive Parser (example)

stmt →      if ..... |  
                while ..... |  
                begin ..... |  
                for .....

- When we are trying to write the non-terminal *stmt*, if the current token is *if* we have to choose first production rule.
- When we are trying to write the non-terminal *stmt*, we can uniquely choose the production rule by just looking the current token.
- We eliminate the left recursion in the grammar, and left factor it. But it may not be suitable for predictive parsing (not LL(1) grammar).





## Recursive Predictive Parsing

- Each non-terminal corresponds to a procedure.

Ex:       $A \rightarrow aBb$  (This is only the production rule for A)

```
proc A {  
    - match the current token with a, and move to the next token;  
    - call 'B';  
    - match the current token with b, and move to the next token;  
}
```





## Recursive Predictive Parsing (cont.)

$A \rightarrow aBb \mid bAB$

```
proc A {  
    case of the current token {  
        'a': - match the current token with a, and move to the next token;  
              - call 'B';  
              - match the current token with b, and move to the next token;  
        'b': - match the current token with b, and move to the next token;  
              - call 'A';  
              - call 'B';  
    }  
}
```





## Recursive Predictive Parsing (cont.)

- When to apply  $\epsilon$ -productions.

$$A \rightarrow aA \mid bB \mid \epsilon$$

- If all other productions fail, we should apply an  $\epsilon$ -production. For example, if the current token is not a or b, we may apply the  $\epsilon$ -production.
- Most correct choice: We should apply an  $\epsilon$ -production for a non-terminal A when the current token is in the follow set of A (which terminals can follow A in the sentential forms).





## Recursive Predictive Parsing (Example)

- Content inside

$A \rightarrow aBe \mid cBd \mid C$

$B \rightarrow bB \mid \epsilon$

$C \rightarrow f$

```
proc A {
    case of the current token {
        a:      - match the current token with a,
                and move to the next token;
                - call B;
                - match the current token with e,
                and move to the next token;
        c:      - match the current token with c,
                and move to the next token;
                - call B;
                - match the current token with d,
                and move to the next token;
                - call C
        f:      }
    }
}
```

first set of C

```
proc C {      match the current token with f,
              and move to the next token; }
```

```
proc B {
    case of the current token {
        b:      - match the current token with b,
                and move to the next token;
                - call B
        e,d: do nothing
    }
}
```

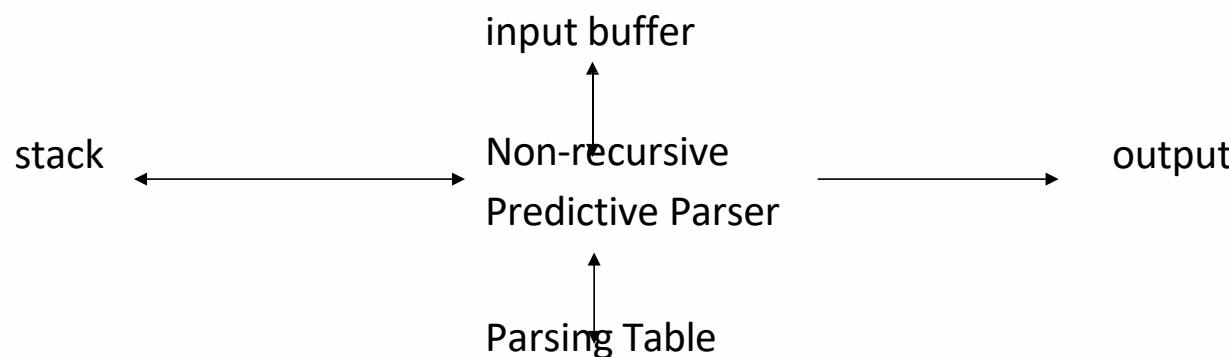
follow set of B





## Non-Recursive Predictive Parsing -- LL(1) Parser

- Non-Recursive predictive parsing is a table-driven parser.
- It is a top-down parser.
- It is also known as LL(1) Parser.



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