${\bf Compiler}$

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1 Chap1 introduction

source code -> scanner -> [tokens] -> parser -> [syntax tree] -> semantic analyzer -> [annotated tree] -> source code optimizer -> [intermediate code] -> code generator -> [target code] -> target code optimizer -> [target code]

2 chap2 scanning

source code (character stream) -> token stream. Use regular expression. a R|S RS R* R+= R(R*) R?=(R|) [abce]=(a|b|c|e) [a-z] [az]=anything but one of the listed chars

comment "*"([*/]/[*]""|""[^/])"*/"

finite automata

Thompson's construction

Minimizing the number of states in a DFA

- 1. it begins with the most optimistic assumptions possible: it create two sets
 - one consisting of all the accepting states
 - the other consisting of all the nonaccepting states
- 2. given this partition of the states of the original DFA, consider the transitions on **each character** a of the alphabet
 - if all accepting states have transitions on a to accepting states, defines an a-transition from the new accepting state to itself
 - if all accepting states have transitions on a to nonaccepting states
- 3. given this partition of the states of the original DFA, consider the transitions on each character a of the alphabet
 - if there are two accepting states s and t that have transitions on a that land in different sets, no a-transition can be defined for this grouping of the states. a distinguish the states s and t
 - if there are two accepting states s and t s.t. s has an a-transition to another accepting state, while t has no a-transition at all. a distinguish s and t

3 Chap3 context-free grammars and parsing

3.1 context-free grammars

A context-free grammar involves recursion rules. 4-tuple $(V, \Sigma, S, \rightarrow)$. V nonterminal. terminal. S start symbol. $\rightarrow \subset V \times (V \cup \Sigma)*$

Left recursive: the nonterminal A appears as the first symbol on the right-hand side of the rule defining A

Right recusive:

-production: empty-> A grammar that generates a language containing the empty string must have at least one **-production**

3.2 Parse tree and abstract syntax trees

3.2.1 parse tree

A parse tree corresponding to a derivation is a labeled tree

- the interior nodes are labeled by nonterminals
- the leaf is **terminals**

left-most derivation

3.2.2 abstract symtax tree



3.3 Ambiguity

3.3.1 ambiguity grammars

ambiguous grammar: a grammar that generates a string with two distinct parse trees

Two basic methods:

- 1. A rule: that specifies in each ambiguous case which of the parse trees is the correct one. **disambbiguating rule**
 - associativity
- 2. change the grammar

3.3.2 precedence and associativity

A left recursive rule makes its operators associate on the left

3.3.3 the dangling else problem

3.3.4 inessential ambiguity

sometimes a grammar may be ambiguous and yet always produce unique abstract syntax tree.

inessential ambiguity: the associated semantics don't depend on what disambiguating rule is used

3.3.5 extended notations: EBNF and syntax diagrams

$$A \to A \alpha \mid \beta \Longrightarrow A \to \beta \{\alpha\}. A \to \alpha A \mid \beta \Longrightarrow A \to \{\alpha\} \beta$$

3.4 Formal properties of context-free language

A context-free grammar consists of the following

- 1. T terminals
- 2. N nonterminals
- 3. P grammar rules
- 4. S start symbol

sentential form a string a in $(T \cup N)$ *

A grammar G is **ambiguous** if there exists a string $w \in L(G)$ s.t. w has two distinct parse trees

4 Chap4 top-down parsing

4.1 Top-down parsing by recursive-descent

not easy and use EBNF

$$\begin{array}{l} \textit{ (if-stmt)} ::= \text{ `if' '(' } \langle exp \rangle \text{ ')' } \langle statement \rangle \\ | \text{ `if' '(' } \langle exp \rangle \text{ ')' } \langle statement \rangle \text{ `else' } \langle statement \rangle \\ \end{array}$$

to if-stmt -> if (exp) statement [else statement]

4.2 LL(1) parsing

use an explicit stack rather than recursive calls.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \langle S \rangle ::= \langle E \rangle \ \text{`+'} \ \langle S \rangle \\ | \ \langle E \rangle \end{array}$$

.

partly-derived string	lookahead	parsed part	unparsed part
S	((1+2+(3+4))+5
E+S	((1+2+(3+4))+5
(S)+S	1	(1+2+(3+4))+5
(E+S)+S	1	(1+2+(3+4))+5
(1+S)+S	2	(1+	2+(3+4))+5
(1+E+S)+S	2	(1+	2+(3+4))+5
(1+2+S)+S	((1+2+((3+4))+5

For
$$S \to (S) S \mid \epsilon$$

step	parsing	input	action
1	\$S	()\$	S->(S)S
2	\$S)S(()\$	match
3	\$S)S)\$	S->e
4	\$S))\$	match
5	S	\$	S->e
6	\$	\$	match

Two actions:

- 1. generate
- 2. match: match a token on top of the stack with the next input token

This corresponds to the leftmost derivation. characteristic of top-down parsing

4.2.1 LL(1) parsing table

parsing table

$$\frac{M[N,T]}{S}$$
 () \$ S->e S->e

M is the set of non-terminals. T is the set of terminals or tokens including \$

Table-constructing rule:

- 1. if $A \to \alpha$ is a production choice and there is a derivation $\alpha \Rightarrow *a\beta$ where a is a token then add $A \to \alpha$ to M[A,a]
- 2. if $A \to \alpha$ and $\alpha \Rightarrow *\epsilon, S\$ \Rightarrow^* \beta Aa\gamma$, where S is the start symbol and a is a token(or \$), then add $A \to \alpha$ to M[A,a]

A grammar is LL(1) if LL(1) parsing table has at most one production in each entry

4.2.2 left recursion removal and left factoring

left recursion removal

- immediate left recursion: $exp \rightarrow exp + term|exp term|term$
- indirect left recursion: $A \to Bb$ and $B \to Aa$
- 1. Simple immediate left recursion. $A \to A\alpha | \beta$ to $A \to \beta$ A' and $A' \to \alpha$ $A' | \epsilon$
- 2. general immediate left recursion. $A \to A\alpha_1 | \dots | A\alpha_n | \beta_1 | \dots | \beta_m$ to $A \to \beta_1 A' | \dots | \beta_m A'$ and $A' \to \alpha_1 A' | \dots | \alpha_n A' | \epsilon$
- 3. general left recursion. grammars with no \$\epsilon\$-productions and no cycles

doesn't change language, but changes the grammar and parse tree **left factoring**. $A \to \alpha \beta | \alpha \gamma$ to $A \to \alpha A'$ and $A' \to \beta | \gamma$

4.2.3 Syntax tree construction in LL(1) parsing

4.3 First and follow sets

X a grammar symbol (a terminal or non-terminal) or ϵ . Then First(X) is

- 1. if X is a terminal or ϵ , then First(X)={X}
- 2. if X is a non-terminal, for each $X \to X_1 X_2 \dots X_n$, First(X) contains First(X1) {e}

A non-terminal A is **nullable** iff there exists $A \Rightarrow^* \epsilon$ iff First(A) contains ϵ Follow(A) is

- 1. if A is start symbol, \$ is in Follow(A)
- 2. if $B \to \alpha A \gamma$, then $\operatorname{First}(\gamma) \{\epsilon\} \subseteq \operatorname{Follow}(A)$
- 3. if $B \to \alpha A \gamma, \epsilon \in \text{First}(\gamma)$, then Follow(A) contains Follow(B)

4.4 Error recovery in top-down parsers

5 Chap5 Bottom-up parsing

5.1 Overview of bottom-up parsing

- A bottom-up parser uses an **explicit stack** to perform a parse
- The parsing stack will contain both tokens and nonterminals

• **right-most** derivation – backward start with the tokens; end with the start symbol

$$(1+2+(3+4))+5$$

 $(E+2+(3+4))+5$
 $(S+2+(3+4))+5$
 $(S+E+(3+4))+5$
 $(S+(S+4))+5$
 $(S+(S+4))+5$
 $(S+(S+E))+5$
 $(S+(S))+5$
 $(S+E)+5$
 $(S+5)+5$
 $(S+5$

• parsing actions: a sequence of shift and reduce operations parser state: a stack of terminals and non-terminals current derivation step = always stack + input

derivation	step stack	unconsumed input
(1+2+(3+4))+5		(1+2+(3+4))+5
	(1+2+(3+4))+5
(E+2+(3+4))+5	(E	+2+(3+4))+5
(S+2+(3+4))+5	(S	+2+(3+4))+5
	(S+	2+(3+4))+5
	(S+2)	+(3+4))+5
(S+E+(3+4))+5	(S+E)	+(3+4))+5

- 1. **shift**: shift a terminal from the front of the input to the top of the stack
 - 1. **reduce**: reduce a string at the top of the stack to a nonterminal A, given the BNF choice A

A bottom-up parser: shift-reduce parser

• One further feature of bottom-up parsers grammars are always augmented with a **new start symbol**. if S is the start symbol, a new start symbol S' is added to the grammar: S' S

• example

$$S \rightarrow (S)S|e$$

$$S' = >S = >(S)S = >(S) = >()$$

	Parsing stack	Input	Action
1	\$	()\$	Shift
2	\$ () \$	Reduce $S \rightarrow$
3	\$ (S) \$	Shift
4	\$ (S)	\$	Reduce $S \rightarrow$
5	\$ (S) S	\$	Reduce $S \rightarrow (S) S$
6	S	\$	Reduce S'-> S
7	\$S'	\$	Accept

• example

$$E'->E$$

$$E->E+n|n$$

$$E'=>E=>E+n=>n+n$$

	Parsing stack	Input	Action
1	\$	n+n\$	Shift
2	n	+n\$	Reduce $E->n$
3	E	+n\$	Shift
4	E+	n\$	Shift
5	E+n	\$	Reduce $E->E+n$
6	E	\$	Reduce $E'->E$
7	\$E'	\$	Accept

Right sentential form

- A sentential form is any string derivable from the start symbol.
 Note that this includes the forms with non-terminals at intermediate steps as well.
- A right-sentential form is a sentential form that occurs in a step of rightmost derivation (RMD). Each of the intermediate strings of terminals and nonterminals in such a derivation is called a right sentential form Each such sentential form is split between the parsing stack and the input during a shift-reduce parse
- A **sentence** is a sentential form consisting only of terminals

E,E+,E+n are **viable prefixes** of the right sentential form E+n. The sequence of symbols on the parsing stack is called **viable prefix** of the right sentential form

• handle This string, together with the **position** in the right sentential form where it occurs, and the production used to reduced it, is called the **handle** of the right sentential form

 $\frac{\mathrm{determining\ the\ next\ handle\ in\ a\ parse\ is\ the\ main\ task\ of\ a\ shift-reduce}}{\mathrm{parser}}$

5.2 Finite automata of LR(0) items and LR(0) parsing

- An LR(0) item of a context-free grammar: a production choice with a distinguished position in its right-hand side
- If $A \rightarrow$, = , then $A \rightarrow$ ů is an LR(0) item
- Example

$$S' -> S$$

$$S \rightarrow (S)S \setminus e$$

$$S' \rightarrow uS$$

$$S' -> S\mathring{u}$$

$$S \rightarrow \mathring{u}(S)S$$

$$S \rightarrow (\mathring{u}S)S$$

$$S \rightarrow (S\mathring{u})S$$

$$S \rightarrow (S)$$
ůS

$$S \rightarrow (S)Sů$$

$$S \rightarrow \mathring{u}$$

5.2.1 Finite automata of items

- The LR(0) items: as the state of a finite automata
- construct the DFA of sets of LR(0) using the subset construction from NFA
- If X is a token or a nonterminal

$$A \to \alpha \cdot X\eta \longrightarrow X \to \alpha X \cdot \eta$$

- If X is a token, then this transition corresponds to a shift of X from the input to the top of the stack during a parse
- if X is a nonterminal, X will never appear as an input symbol

$$A \to \alpha \cdot X\eta \xrightarrow{\epsilon} X \to \beta$$

- The **start state** of the NFA the **initial state** of the parser: the stack is empty
- the solution is to augment the grammar by a single production S' -> S
- S'->ůS the start state of the NFA

5.2.2 The LR(0) parsing algorithm

- the parsing stack to store: symbols and state numbers
- pushing the new state number onto the parsing stack after each push of a symbol
- Let s be the current state. Then actions are
 - 1. if state s contains any item of the form $A \rightarrow \mathring{u}X$ (X is a terminal). Then the action is to shift the current input token onto the stack
 - If state s contains any complete item (an item of the form A->ů), then the action is to reduce by the rule A->ů
 - A reduction by the rule S'->S where S' is the start state
 - acceptance if the input is empty
 - Error if the input is not empty
- A grammar is LR(0) grammar if the above rules are unambiguous
- A grammar is LR(0) iff
 - Each state is a shift state
 - A reduce state containing a single complete item
- table

state	action	rule	input	input	input	goto
			(a)	A
0	shift		3	2		1
1	reduce	A'->A				
2	reduce	$A \rightarrow (A)$				
3	shift		3	2		4
4	shift				5	
5	reduce	A-> a				

5.3 SLR(1) Parsing (simple LR(1))

• definition

- 1. if state s contains any item of form $A \to \alpha \cdot X\beta$, then the action is to shift the current input token onto the stack, and the new state to be pushed on the stack is the state containing the item $A \to \alpha \cdot X\beta$
- 2. if state s contains the complete item $A \to \gamma$, and the next token in the input string is in Follow(A), then the action is to reduce by the rule $A \to \gamma$
 - A reduction by the rule S'->S where S' is the start state,
 this will happen only if the next input token is \$
 - remove the string and all of its corresponding states from the parsing stack
 - back up in the DFA to the state from which the construction of begin
 - this state must contain an item of the form $B \to \alpha \cdot A\beta$. Push A to the stack, and push the state containing the item $B \to \alpha \cdot A\beta$
- 3. if the next input token is s.t. neither of the above two cases applies, an error is declared

• A grammar is **SLR(1)** iff for any state s

- 1. for any item $A \to \alpha \cdot X\beta$ in s with X a terminal, there is no complete item $B \to \gamma$ in s with X Follow(B)
- 2. For any two complete item $A \to \alpha \cdot$ and $B \to \beta \cdot$ in s, Follow $(A) \cap$ Follow $(B) = \emptyset$
- right recursion can cause stack overflow

5.3.1 disambiguating rules for parsing conflicts

- two kinds of parsing conflicts in SLR(1) parsing shift-reduce conflicts
 reduce-reduce conflicts
- in the case of shift-reduce conflicts, there is a natural **disambiguaiting rule**: always prefer shift over the reduce

•

5.3.2 limits of SLR(1) parsing power

5.4 General LR(1) and LALR(1) parsing

- the difficulty with the SLR(1) method: applies lookaheads after the construction of the DFA of LR(0) items
- An LR(1) item is a pair consisting of an LR(0) item and a lookahead token
- LR(1) item as $[A->\mathring{u}, a]$ $A->\mathring{u}$ is LR(0) item, a is a token
- definition of LR(1) transitions main difference of LR(0) and LR(1) [A->ůX, a], X is any symbol, there is a transition on X to [A->Xů,a] [A->ůB,a], B nonterminal, there are -transitions to items [B->ů,b] for every B-> and for every token b in First(a)

5.4.1 Finite automata of LR(1) items

- start state S'->S
- start item

[S'->uS, \$]

5.4.2 The LR(1) parsing algorithm

- the general LR(1) parsing algorithm Let s be the current state.
 - 1. s:[A->ůX,a], X terminal, X is the next token in the input string shift
 - 2. s: [A->ů,a], the next token in the input string is a **reduce**
 - 3. otherwise error

- A grammar is LR(1) iff for any state s
 - 1. for any item $[A->\mathring{\mathbf{u}},\mathbf{a}]$ in s with X a terminal, there is no item in s of the form $[B->\mathring{\mathbf{u}},\mathbf{X}]$ (otherwise there is a shift-reduce conflict
 - 2. there are no two item in s of the form $[A->\mathring{\mathbf{u}},\mathbf{a}]$ and $[B->\mathring{\mathbf{u}},\mathbf{a}]$

$5.5 \quad LALR(1)$ parsing

- the size of the DFA of sets of LR(1) items is too large
- first principle of LAIR(1) parsing the core of a state of DFA of LR(1) is a state of the DFA of LR(0) items
- second principle of LAIR(1) parsing s,s of DFA of LR(1) that have the same core, suppose there is a transition on the symbol X from s to a state t, then there is also a transition on X from state s to a state t, and the states t and t have the same core
- if a grammar is LR(1) then the LALR(1) parsing table cannot have any shift-reduce conflicts, there may be reduce-reduce conflicts
- if a grammar is SLR(1), then it's LALR(1)
- compute the DFA of LALR(1) items directly from the DFA of LR(0) items through a process of **propagating lookaheads**

5.6 Error recovery in Bottom-up parsers

A bottom-up parser will detect an error when a blank entry is detected

6 chap6 semantics analysis

6.1 Attributes and attribute grammars

attribute: any property of a programming language constructs. May be fixed prior to the compilation process or be only determinable during program execution

binding of the attribute: the process of computing an attribute and associating its computed value with the language construct in question

binding time: the time during the compilation/execution process when the binding of an attribute occurs

static attributes/dynamic attributes: based on the difference of the binding time

type checker: an analyzer. computes the data type attribute of all language entities for which data types are defined. And verifies that these types conform to the type rules of the language

type checking: set of rules that ensure the type consistency of different constructs in the program. e.g. operands types and so on

6.1.1 attribute grammars

- X.a: the value of a associated to X
 X is a grammar symbol and a is an attribute associated to X
- syntax-directed semantics: attributes are associated directly with the grammar symbols of the language
- given attributes $a_1, a_2, ..., a_k$ for each grammar rule $X_0 \to X_1 ... X_n$, the values of the attributes $X_i.a_j$ of each grammar symbol X_i are related to the values of the attributes of the other symbols in the rule
- an attribute grammar

$$X_i.a_j = f_{ij}(X_0.a_1, \dots, X_0.a_k, \dots, X_n.a_1, \dots, X_n.a_k)$$

• example

For

$$\langle number \rangle ::= \langle number \rangle \langle digit \rangle$$

 $| \langle digit \rangle ::= '[0123456789]'$

grammar rule	semantic rules
$number1 \rightarrow number2 \ digit$	$number 1.val = number 2.val \times 10 + digit.val$
number o digit	number.val = digit.val
$digit \rightarrow 0$	digit.val = 0

6.1.2 simplifications and extensions to attribute grammars

- **metalanguage** for the attribute grammar: the collection of expressions allowable in an attribute equation
- **functions** can be added to the metalanguage whose definitions may be given elsewhere
- simplifications
 - 1. using ambiguous grammar
 - 2. using abstract syntax tree instead of parse tree

6.2 Algorithms for attribute computation

purpose

- each grammar rule choice has an associated dependency graph
- an edge from X.a to X.a expressing the dependency of X.a on X.a

6.2.1 dependency graphs and evaluation order

• directed acyclic graphs DAG topological sort

6.2.2 synthesized and inherited attributes

- · synthesized attributes
 - an attribute is synthesized if all its dependencies point from child to parent in the parse tree
 - S-attributed grammar an attribute grammar where all the attributes are synthesized
- **inherited attributes** inheritance from parent to siblings, from siblings to siblings

6.2.3 The use of external data structures to store attributes values

- Applicability
 - Not suitable to the method of **parameters** and **returned values**

- particularly when the attribute values have significant structure and may be needed at arbitrary points during translation
- Not reasonable to be stored in the syntax tree nodes

• Ways:

- external data structures: table, graphs and other data structures.
 One of the prime examples is the symbol table
- replace attribute equations by calls to procedures representing operations on the appropriate data structure used to maintain the attribute values

6.2.4 The computation of attributes during parsing

• L-attributed

- An attribute grammar of a_1, \ldots, a_k is **L-attributed** if for each inherited attribute a_j and each grammar rule $X_0 \to X_1 \ldots X_n$ the associated equations for a_j are $X_i.a_j = f_{ij}(X_0.a_1, \ldots, X_0.a_k, X_1.a_1, \ldots, X_1.a_k, \ldots, X_{i-1}.a_1, \ldots)$
- S-attributed grammar is L-attributed

6.2.5 The dependence of attributes computation on the syntax

6.3 The Symbol Table

semantic checks

- 1. Linear list
- 2. Various search tree structures AVL, B tree
- 3. hash tables best choice

6.3.1 Declarations

- constant declarations
- type declarations
- variable declarations
- procedure/function declarations

- 6.3.2 Scope rules and block structure
- 6.4 Data types and type checking