# dOvs Eksamens Noter

## Hugh Benjamin Zachariae

## January 2020

# Contents

1	Compiler intro	2
2	Lexical	4
3	Parsing	5
	3.1 LR parsing	6
	3.2 Scoping rules	7

### 1 Compiler intro

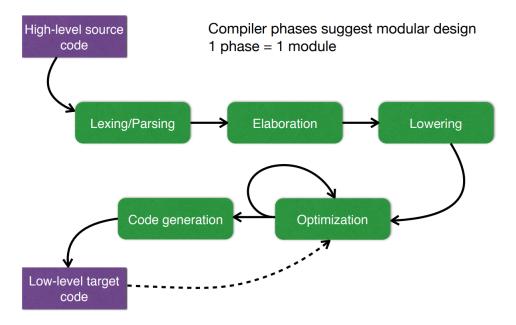
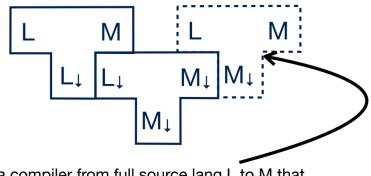


Figure 1: Compiler modular phases.



a compiler from full source lang L to M that produces efficient programs, but is inefficient itself

Figure 2: Bootstrap compiling

- Lexing/Parsing: String  $\to_{lexing}$  Tokens  $\to_{parsing}$  Abstract Syntax Tree (AST)
- Elaboration: Resolving scope and Type checking. Most errors found here.
- Lowering: High-level features to target-language like constructs (e.g. assembly-like). *Intermediate representation*, LLVM.
- **Optimization**: Detect and rewrite expensive operations. Lifting invariants out of loops, parallelization.
- Code generation: fx LLVM to X86 (registers, instruction etc.)

•	Bootstrapping	${\bf compilers:}$	${\bf Compile}$	your l	language	in your o	own lang	uage.

### 2 Lexical

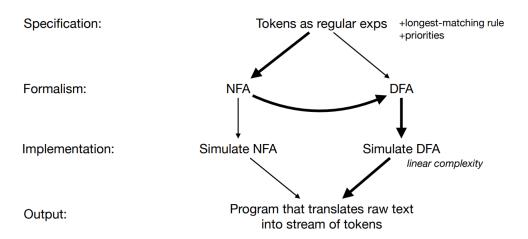


Figure 3: REG to NFA to DFA

- $\bullet$  Tokens: E.g. ID("a"), INT, IF etc. Some tokens include metadata like names in ID.
- $\bullet\,$  Non-tokens: comments, white space etc.
- $\bullet~{\rm REG} \rightarrow {\rm NFA} \rightarrow ({\rm closures})~{\rm DFA} \rightarrow {\rm Minimized}~{\rm DFA}~({\rm more~effective})$
- REG: Handle priorities and longest matching string token wins.
- Ocamllex: Lexer generator

### 3 Parsing

A context-free grammar (CFG) is a 4-tuple  $G = (V, \Sigma, S, P)$ 

- · V is a finite set of *nonterminal* symbols
- $\Sigma$  is an alphabet of *terminal* symbols and  $V \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$
- $S \in V$  is a start symbol
- P is a finite set of *productions* of the form  $A \rightarrow a$ , where
  - $A \in V$ , i.e., A is a nonterminal, and
  - $\alpha \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$ , i.e.,  $\alpha$  is possibly empty string of nonterminals or terminals

Figure 4: CFG Definition

 $S \rightarrow \text{ if } E \text{ then } S \text{ else } S$   $S \rightarrow \text{ begin } S \text{ L}$   $S \rightarrow \text{ print } E$   $L \rightarrow \text{ end}$   $L \rightarrow ; S \text{ L}$   $E \rightarrow \text{ num} = \text{ num}$ 

- FIRST (a) : set of terminals that begin strings derived from  $\alpha$
- FOLLOW(X): set of terminals a that can appear immediately to the right of X in some derivable string, e.g., S ⇒\* αXαβ
- · Let nullable(X) be true when X can derive empty string ε

Nonterminal	Nullable?	First set	Follow set
S		if, begin, print	else, end, ;, \$
L		end, ;	else, end, ;, \$
E		num	then, else, end, ; \$

Figure 5: Top-down parsing table. You do not want more than one possibility in a cell.

- Abstract Syntax Tree (AST):
- Context-Free Grammars (CFG):
  - Terminals  $\rightarrow$  production rules
  - Terminals are leafs in the tree (e.g. x, y).
  - Non-Terminals are links in the tree (e.g. BinExp)
  - Definition see figure 4.
  - Ambiguity: You don't want ambiguity, you want determinism. Associativity (right/left) and precedence (e.g. times before plus).
- Top-down/Bottom-up parsing:
  - Top-down is predictive parsing:

- \* leftmost derivation
- \* "see whats coming"
- \* Breaks down at for example:  $S \to S + x \mid S x \mid x$ . Here you don't know what to do when you see an  $x \dots$
- \* See figure 5 for parsing table.
- Bottom-up: **LR parsing** is rightmost reduction.
  - \* Rightmost reduction
  - \* Includes EOF "\$" symbol.

#### 3.1 LR parsing

#### Bottom-up:

- Rightmost reduction
- $\bullet$  Includes EOF "\$" symbol.

#### Terms:

- An **Item** is a hypothesis about sub-derivations: N is hypothesis,  $\alpha$  is confirmed to be parsed,  $\beta$  is to be confirmed,  $N \to \alpha.\beta$ . Notice that it looks like a production rule, but with a dot somewhere in it.
- Item is reducible if  $\beta$  is empty. The right side of the dot is empty.
- $\epsilon$ -closure of an item set: add new hypothesis to set if expecting a non-terminal. Accessible steps while doing lambda steps.
- Stack based: stack of alternating items sets and derivation trees.
- Conflicts: shift/reduce, reduce/reduce. You don't know what to do from one state, when seeing an input symbol.

Operations: Look up stack state, and input symbol to get action

- Reduce k: Pop stack as many times as the number of symbols on the right-hand side of rule k. Choose a grammar rule  $X \to A$  B C; pop C, B, A from the top of the stack, and push X onto the stack. If dot is found on the right side of all symbols.
- Shift: Advance input one token; push token to stack. Go from one state to another after seeing a terminal input. Move dot one spot.
- Goto: Add hypethesis to stack which sub-derivations we can go to. Goto state (move across edge). Go from one state to another after seeing a non-terminal. Move dot one spot.

Goto and shift must preserve the structure of the stack (item set > derivation).

### Examples: All LR parsing examples

You can create a DFA by calculating first, the starting state and its closure. Then calculate the closures (dot in front of non-terminal) developed by shifting each terminal and non-terminal from that state (moving the dot after the shifted input symbol). Afterwards, you can develop a parsing table, *state* by terminal/non-terminal. See figure 6 for parsing table, DFA for shift reduce grammar.

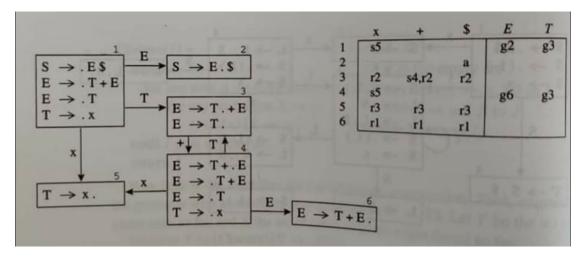


Figure 6: LR(0) shift/reduce conflict, parsing table and state DFA, sn: shift to state n

Reduction based on k lookahead. The higher k, the less conflicts. However, more than 1 is not used for compilation, as the parsing table would be huge.

Since LR(0) needs no lookahead, we require one action for each state. With shift and reduce, we get a shift/reduce conflict.

LR(1) items consists of a grammar production, a right-hand-side position and a lookahead symbol. Choose whether or not to reduce based on stack and one lookahead on input.

Lookaheads are calculated by: Any state that contains an item of the form  $A \to x.By$   $\{t\}$ , where x and y are arbitrary strings of terminals and nonterminals and B is a nonterminal, you add an item of the form  $B \to .w$   $\{s\}$  for every production  $B \to w$  and for every terminal in the set s = FIRST(yt).

#### 3.2 Scoping rules

Rules of programming language to regulate how names and ID's are resolved.

#### Problems:

- Nesting: Same name for variable in nested scopes. What value should we return?
- Forward reference: Using something before it is declared. E.g. mutual recursion.

#### Scoping terms:

- Scope of declaration: Part of the program where the declaration can be referred to.
- Static nested scopes (SML style): Identifier scope is the smallest block (begin/end, function, or procedure body) containing the identifier's declaration. This means that an identifier declared in some block is only accessible within that block and from procedures declared within it.
  - Nearest visible: Return value of nearest declaration in the code.
  - Stack-like behavior

- JS function-level lexical scoping: Inner functions contain the scope of parent functions even if the parent function has returned.
- Static scoping: Inner functions can access identifiers in outer scope. Can be deduced in compile time (C).
- Dynamic scoping: A function p which prints x. Two functions, d1 and d2,that declare x as 1 and 2 and then calls p. d1 will print 1 and d2 will print 2. I.e. the scope depends on the call stack and chain of function calls.

Namespace: Different declaration identifiers can reside in different syntactic namespaces. E.g. in Tiger: var/function are in the same namespace, but type is in another. Tiger scoping and namespaces:

• Global: base types (int, string) and built-in functions (e.g. print).