CS 460 - Compilers

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1 Languages

Syntax is the rules for what a syntactically correct program looks like. Semantics is the meaning of a program.

When does it matter the order of evaluation (right to left vs left to right)? When the code has side effects, an example of this is postfix vs prefix increment (a++vs++a).

Compilers for a language L, move from front end \rightarrow intermediate representation \rightarrow back end.

- Front end: Lexical Analysis, Syntax Analysis, and Semantic Analysis
- Intermediate: Intermediate Code
- Back end: Optimizer and Code Generation

1.1 Lexical Analysis & Scanning

Lexical analysis, a scanner, is the process of converting a stream of characters into a stream of tokens.

- 1. Find all terminals in the grammar.
- 2. Write the Scanner.
 - (a) Do we use a DFA, NFA, or PDA?
 - (b) Look at token types. All tokens can be expressed by a regular expression.
 - i. Symbols: Semicolon, commas, etc.
 - ii. Keywords: for, while, etc.
 - iii. Variables: x, y, etc.
 - iv. Numbers: 1, 3.14, 0x64, etc.

Chomsky Language Hierarchy

- Type 0: Unrestricted (Turing Machines)
- Type 1: Context Sensitive
- Type 2: Context Free (PDA)
- Type 3: Regular Expressions (NFA, DFA)

Both RE and CFG have 1 non-terminal on the left of any combination of terminals and non-terminals on the right.

Example 1:

 $S \to X$ $X \to aXb|d$ not regular: $a^n db^n$

Example 2:

 $S \to X$ $X \to aX|b$ regular: a^*b

Example 3:

 $S \to X$ $X \to aY | \epsilon$ $Y \to bX$ regular: $(ab)^*$

An NFA for recognizing tokens, construct NFA for each construct of RE.

\mathcal{E} :



 $a\epsilon\Sigma$:



Any RE can be turned into an NFA using these rules. If all the tokens of a language are represented by RE's, r_1, \ldots, r_n . Create an NFA for each RE.

2 Parsing

2.1 Types of Parsers

- LL(k) leftmost derivation
 - (Hard Explain) Always develop the leftmost non terminal in a sentential form.
 - Above means: Start at the start symbol and work towards the input.
- LR(k) rightmost derivation
 - Reverse rightmost derivation.
 - Above means: Start at input and work backwards to the start symbol.

Types of LL(k) parsers:

- LL(0) No look ahead and no left recursion.
- LL(1) One look ahead and no left recursion.
- LL(k) k look ahead and no left recursion.

Example 1: a^*b^* $\delta(a^*b^*) = \epsilon, a, b, aa, ab, bb, ...$

$$S \to A$$

$$A \to aA|B$$

$$B \to bB|\epsilon$$

Try w = aabb:

$$S \rightarrow_{LM} A \rightarrow_{LM} aA \rightarrow_{LM} aaA \rightarrow_{LM} aaB \rightarrow_{LM} aabB \rightarrow_{LM} aabbB \rightarrow_{LM} aabb$$

What if B could generate strings starting with an a?

$$S \to A$$

$$A \rightarrow aA|B$$

$$B \to bB|a|\epsilon$$

Try w = aabb:

It cannot be parsed by an LL(1) parser.

A is not LL(1) when

- $\exists w_1 \in \lambda(\alpha_1) \text{ or } \exists w_2 \in \lambda(\alpha_2)$
- $w_1 = aw_1 \text{ or } w_2 = aw_2$

Example 2: A set representing tokens that a sentential form can start with: Call it $FIRST(\alpha)$

- 1. ϵ : FIRST $(\epsilon) = {\epsilon}$
- 2. $a \in \Sigma$: FIRST $(a) = \{a\}$
- 3. a mixed string: $Y = Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_n$
 - (a) FIRST $(Y_1 ... Y_n) \supseteq \text{FIRST } (Y_1) \{\epsilon\}$
 - (b) if $\epsilon \exists \text{ FIRST } (Y_1)$:

i.
$$Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n \to \epsilon$$

ii.
$$Y_1, Y_2, ..., Y_n \to Y_2, ..., Y_n$$

Example 3: $X \to X_1 | \dots | X_m$

FIRST (X) = FIRST (X_1) \cup FIRST (X_2) $\cup ... \cup$ FIRST (X_m)

Example 4: General Case

For
$$A \to \alpha_1 |\alpha_2| \dots |\alpha_n|$$

if $\exists i, j$ such that $i \neq j$ and FIRST $(\alpha_i) \cap$ FIRST $(\alpha_j) \neq \emptyset$ then A is not LL(1).

MUST BE DONE PAIRWISE, only needs to exist one pair to not be LL(1).

 $\forall i, j : i \neq j \hat{\ } (1 <= i, j <= n) : FIRST(\alpha_i) \cap FIRST(\alpha_j) = \emptyset$ then A is probably (necessary, but not sufficient) LL(1).

Example 5: General Case

For
$$A \to \alpha_1 |\alpha_2| \dots |\alpha_n|$$

-1 -1

$$A_m \to \alpha_{m1} |\alpha_{m2}| \dots |\alpha_{mn_m}|$$

Example 6:

$$A \to B|C$$

:

$$B \to \dots$$

 $C \to \dots$

FIRST
$$(B) = \{a, b\}$$
 FIRST $(C) = \{c, f\}$

 $w = a\beta$ where $a \in \Sigma$ and $\beta \in \Sigma^*$

* a is the lookahead token.

$$A \to_{LM} B \to_{LM} aX$$

* aX matches $a\beta$, so we can derive β from X.

2.2 Grammar Transformation

2.2.1 Left vs Right Recursion

 $A \rightarrow Aa|b$

$$\delta(A) = \{b, ba, baa, \ldots\} = ba^*$$

FIRST
$$(A) = \{b\}$$
 FIRST $(Aa) = \{b\}$

- * Both have $b \to \text{ and is not } LL(1)$.
- * Just make it right recursive.

$$A \rightarrow bA'$$

$$A' \to aA' | \epsilon$$

In General:

$$A \to A\alpha_1 |A\alpha_2| \dots |A\alpha_n|\beta_1|\beta_2| \dots |\beta_m|$$

$$\delta(A) = (B_1 | \dots | B_n)(\alpha_1 | \dots | \alpha_n)$$

$$A \to \beta_1 A' | \dots | \beta_m A'$$

$$A' \to \alpha_1 A' | \dots | \alpha_n A' | \epsilon$$

Example 4.6:

 $E \to E + b|b \text{ similar to } A \to A\alpha|\beta$

$$E \rightarrow bE'$$

$$E' \to +bE'|\epsilon$$

Example 4.7:

 $E \to E + b|E - c|b|C$ similar to $A \to A\alpha_1|A\alpha_2|\beta_1|\beta_2$

$$E \rightarrow bE'|CE'$$

$$E' \rightarrow +bE'|-cE'|\epsilon$$

2.2.2 Common Subexpressions

Example 4.8:

 $A \to abC|abD$

* is this LL (1)?

No, because FIRST $(abC) \cap \text{FIRST } (abD) \neq \emptyset$.

* if we change it to $A \to abA'$ and $A' \to c|D$, then it is LL (1).

* is this LL (1)?

Only if FIRST $(c) \cap \text{FIRST } (D) = \emptyset$.

For the following:

$$A \to A_1 | \dots | A_n$$

Let α be the longest common prefix of A_1, \ldots, A_n such that $A_i = \alpha A_i'$. Then $A \to \alpha A'$ and $A' \to A_1 | \ldots | A_n$.

2.2.3 Grammar Ambiguity

Definition: A grammar is ambiguous if there exists a string w such that there are two or more different parse trees for the same string.

 $A \to aA|bA|c$ with w = ababc.

 $A \rightarrow aA \rightarrow abA \rightarrow abaA \rightarrow ababA \rightarrow ababc$

Simple Example:

$$A \to aA|a|\epsilon$$

Example 4.9:

 $E \rightarrow E + E|E - E|id$ is this ambiguous?

Yes, because id+id-id can be parsed as (id+id)-id or id+(id-id).