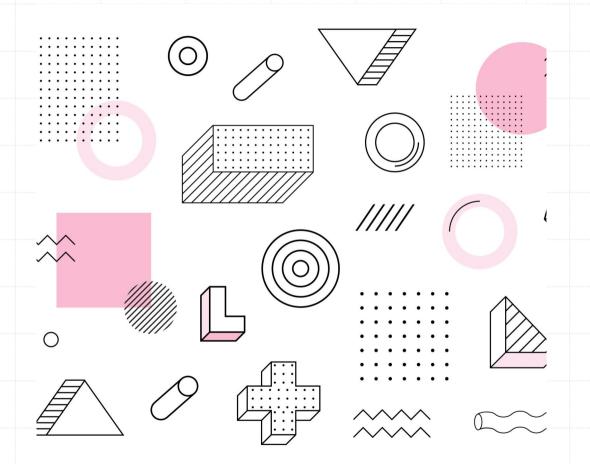
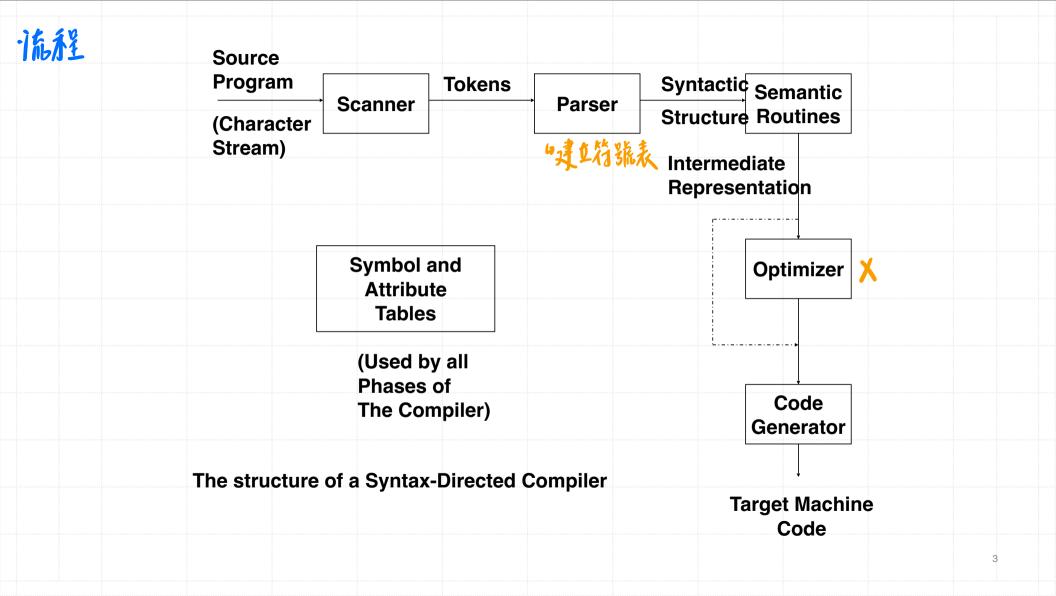
# Chapter 2: A Simple Compiler

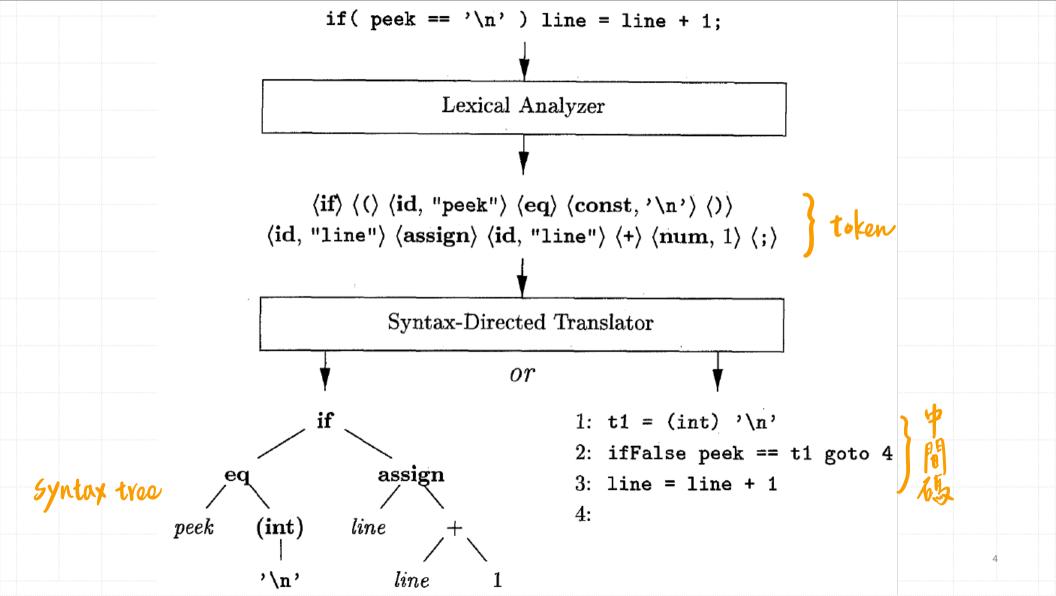
陳奇業 成功大學資訊工程系



### **Outlines**

- 2.1 An Informal Definition of the ac Language
- 2.2 Formal Definition of ac
- 2.3 Phases of a Simple Compiler
- 2.4 Scanning
- 2.5 Parsing
- 2.6 Abstract Syntax Trees
- 2.7 Semantic Analysis
- 2.8 Code Generation





## An Informal Definition of the ac Language

- Types: There are only two data types: integer and float. An integer type is a sequence of decimal numerals, as found in most programming languages. A float type allows five fractional digits after the decimal point.
- Keywords: There are three reserved keywords, each limited for simplicity to a single letter: f (declares a float variable), i (declares an integer variable), and p (prints the value of a variable).
- Variables: The ac language offers only 23 possible variable names, drawn from the lowercase Roman alphabet and excluding the three reserved keywords f, i, and p. Variables must be declared prior to using them.

## An Informal Definition of the ac Language

■ In some cases, such type conversion is handled automatically by the compiler, while other cases require explicit syntax (such as casts) to allow the type conversion.

■ In ac, conversion from integer type to float type is accomplished automatically. Conversion in the other direction is not allowed under any circumstances.

# An Informal Definition of the ac Language

■ For the target of translation, we use the widely available program dc (for desk calculator), which is a stack-based calculator that uses reverse Polish notation (RPN逆波 蘭表示法).

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■ When an ac program is translated into a dc program, the resulting instructions must be acceptable to the dc program and must faithfully represent the operations specified in an ac program.

### Formal Definition of ac

- Before translating ac to dc we must first understand the syntax and semantics of the ac language.
- We use a context-free grammar (CFG) to specify our language's syntax and regular expressions to specify the basic symbols of the language.

### The Syntax of ac

- Ac's syntax is defined by a context-free grammar (CFG)
- CFG is also called BNF (Backus-Naur Form 巴科斯範式) grammar

LHS

CFG consists of a set of production rules,

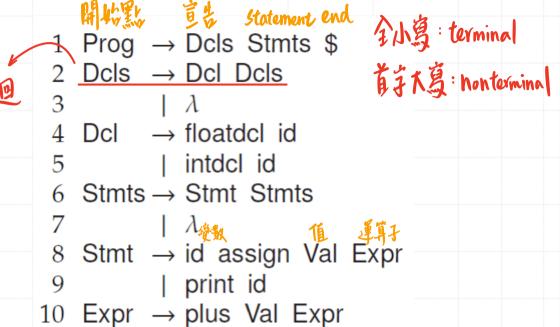


**RHS** 

LHS must be a single nonterminal

RHS consists 0 or more terminals or nonterminals

### Syntax Specification



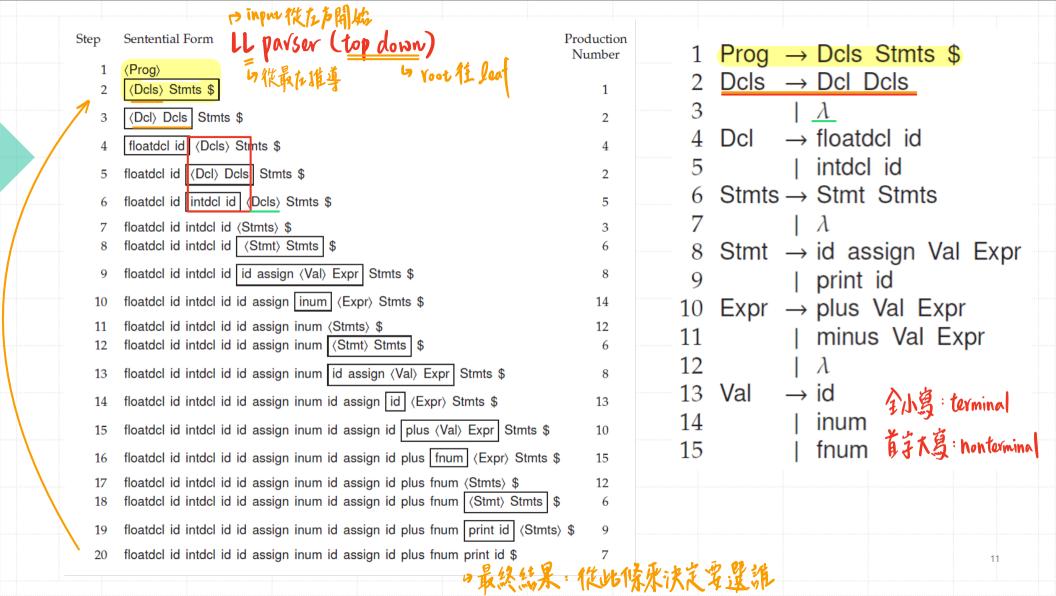
| minus Val Expr

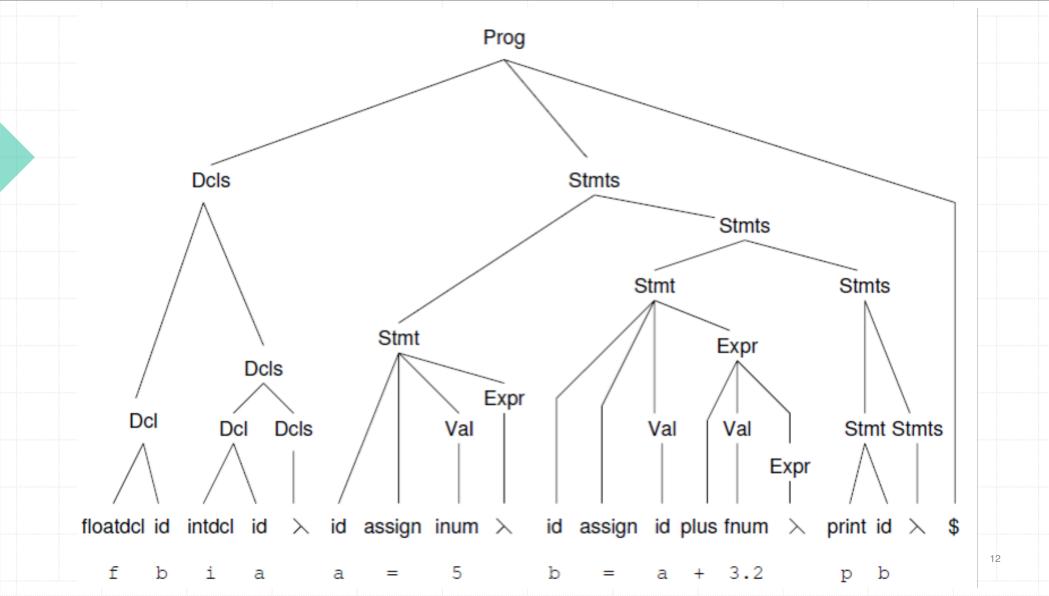
| inum

fnum

13 Val  $\rightarrow$  id

15





### Token Specification

```
floatdcl
intdcl
          "p"
print
          [a-e] | [g-h] | [j-o] | [q-z]
id
                        5个含f,i,P的所有字母
assign
plus
           "+"
           ..._ ...
minus
          [0-9]^{+}
inum
          [0-9]+.[0-9]+ 1個以上
fnum
blank
```

Regular Expression

Terminal

### An ac Scanner

- The ac Scanner will be a function of no arguments that returns token values
- There are 10 tokens.

Extern token scanner(void);

### An ac Scanner (Cont'd)

The scanner returns the longest string that constitutes a token, e.g., in abcdef

abcdef

by the longest string that constitutes a token, e.g., in string 1 to the longest string that constitutes a token, e.g., in abcdef are all valid tokens.

The scanner will return the longest one (i.e., abcdef).

### Phases of a Simple Compiler

- 1. The scanner reads a source ac program as a text file and produces a stream of tokens.
- 2. The parser processes tokens produced by the scanner, determines the syntactic validity of the token stream, and creates an abstract syntax tree (AST) suitable for the compiler's subsequent activities.
- The AST created by the parsing task is next traversed to create a symbol table. This table associates type and other contextual information with variables used in an ac program.
- 4. The AST is next traversed to perform semantic analysis.
- 5. Finally, the AST is traversed to generate a translation of the original program.

### Scanning

- The scanner's job is to translate a stream of characters into a stream of tokens, where each token represents an instance of some terminal symbol. b 71.
- Each token found by the scanner has the following two components:
  - 1. A token's type explains the token's membership in the terminal alphabet. All instances of a given terminal have the same token type.
  - 2. A token's semantic value provides additional information about the token.

For terminals such as plus, no semantic information is required, because only one token (+) can correspond to that terminal. Other terminals, such as id and num, require semantic information so that the compiler can record which identifier or number has been scanned.

### Scanning

■ For most programming languages, the scanner's job is not so easy. Some tokens (+) can be prefixes of other tokens (++); other tokens such as comments and string constants have special symbols involved in their recognition.

```
Scanner for the ac language.
```

```
function Scanner() returns Token
    while s.peek() = blank do call s.advance()
   if s.EOF()
    then ans.type \leftarrow $
    else
        if s. PEEK() \in {0, 1, ..., 9}
        then ans \leftarrow SCANDIGITS()
        else
            ch \leftarrow s.advance()
            switch (ch)
                case \{a, b, ..., z\} - \{i, f, p\}
                    ans.type ← id
                    ans.val \leftarrow ch
                case f
                    ans.type \leftarrow floatdcl
                case i
                    ans.type \leftarrow intdcl
                case p
                    ans.type \leftarrow print
                case =
                    ans.type \leftarrow assign
                case +
                    ans.type \leftarrow plus
                case -
                    ans.type \leftarrow minus
                case default
                    call LexicalError()
   return (ans)
```

end

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# Finding inum or fnum tokens for the ac language

```
function ScanDigits() returns token
    tok.val \leftarrow ""
    while s.PEEK() \in \{0, 1, ..., 9\} do
        tok.val \leftarrow tok.val + s.ADVANCE()
    if s. PEEK() \neq "."
    then tok.type \leftarrow inum (inv)
    else
        tok.type \leftarrow fnum (floor)
        tok.val \leftarrow tok.val + s. ADVANCE()
        while s.PEEK() \in \{0, 1, ..., 9\} do
            tok.val \leftarrow tok.val + s.ADVANCE()
    return (tok)
end
```

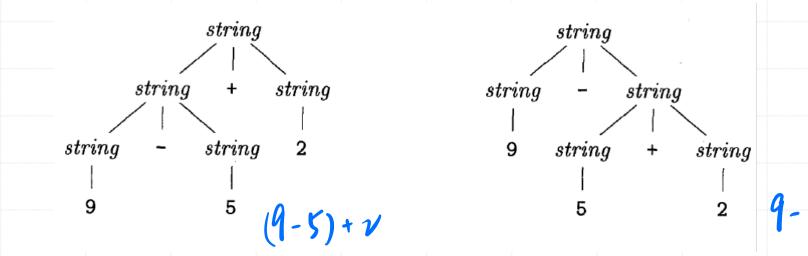
### Parsing

- The parser is responsible for determining if the stream of tokens provided by the scanner conforms to the language's grammar specification.
- We build a parser for ac using a well-known parsing technique called recursive descent.



### Ambiguity (模稜兩可)。有水種syntex tree > 電磁系

Suppose we used a single nonterminal string and did not distinguish between digits and lists. We could have written the grammar string → string + string | string | o | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9



### Associativity of Operators

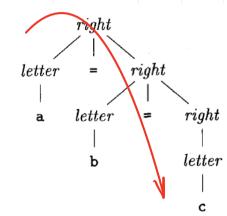
- By convention, 9+5+2 is equivalent to (9+5)+2 and 9-5-2 is equivalent to (9-5)-2. When an operand like 5 has operators to its left and right, conventions are needed for deciding which operator applies to that operand. We say that the operator + associates to the left, because an operand with plus signs on both sides of it belongs to the operator to its left.
- Some common operators such as exponentiation are right-associative. As another example, the assignment operator = in C and its descendants is right associative; that is, the expression a=b=c is treated in the same way as the expression a= (b=c).

### Associativity of Operators

- Left recursion => left-associative
- Right recursion => right-associative
- Strings like a=b=c with a right-associative operator are generated by the following grammar: right → letter = right | letter

letter  $\rightarrow$  a | b | ... | z

list



### Precedence of Operators 慢机

- Consider the expression 9+5\*2. There are two possible interpretations of this expression: (9+5) \*2 or 9+ (5\*2).
- Ex. : A grammar for arithmetic expressions can be constructed from a table showing the associativity and precedence of operators. ex: 9+ (5\*v) > d+d\*v

expr → expr + term | expr - term | term

term → term \* factor | term / factor | factor

$$\longrightarrow \text{term} + \text{term}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} expY \longrightarrow expY + tevm & \longrightarrow d+t*f & \uparrow \\ \longrightarrow tevm + tevm & \longrightarrow d+f*f & \uparrow \\ \longrightarrow factor + tevm & \longrightarrow d+d*f & \uparrow \\ \longrightarrow digit + tevm & \longrightarrow d+d*d & \downarrow \end{array}$$

### Parse Tree Construction

- Most parsing methods fall into one of two classes, called the top-down and bottom-up methods.
- In top-down parsers, construction starts at the root and proceeds towards the leaves, while in bottom-up parsers, construction starts at the leaves and proceeds towards the root.

LL payser LP payser

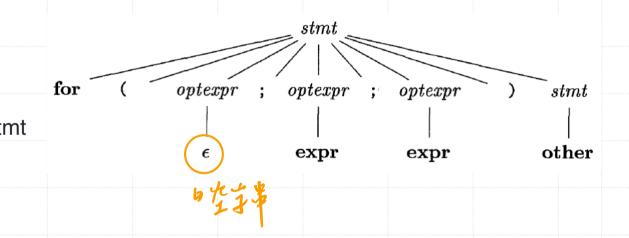
# Top-Down Parsing

- stmt → expr;

  I if (expr) stmt

  I for (optexpr; optexpr; optexpr) stmt

  I other
- $\blacksquare$  optexpr  $\rightarrow_{\mathcal{E}}$  I expr



### Predicting a Parsing Procedure

■ Each procedure first examines the next input token to predict which production should be applied. For example, Stmt offers two productions:

```
Stmt-idassign Val Expr
```

Stmt→print id

```
procedure Stmt()
   if ts.peek() = id
   then
       call MATCH(ts, id)
       call MATCH(ts, assign)
       call VAL()
       call Expr()
   else
       if ts.peek() = print
       then
          call MATCH(ts, print)
          call MATCH(ts, id)
       else
          call error()
end
```

### Recursivedescent Parsing

- Recursive-descent parsing is a top-down method of syntax analysis in which a set of recursive procedures is used to process the input.
- FIRST(stmt) = {expr, if, for, other}

```
switch ( lookahead ) {
      case expr:
             match(expr); match(';'); break;
      case if:
             match(\mathbf{if}); match('('); match(\mathbf{expr}); match(')'); stmt();
             break:
      case for:
             match(\mathbf{for}); match('(');
             optexpr(); match(';'); optexpr(); match(';'); optexpr();
             match(')'); stmt(); break;
      case other:
             match(other); break;
      default:
             report("syntax error");
void optexpr() {
      if (lookahead == expr) match(expr);
void match(terminal t) {
```

if ( lookahead == t ) lookahead = nextTerminal;

else report("syntax error");

void stmt() {

### Left Recursion

- It is possible for a recursive-descent parser to loop forever. A problem arises with "left-recursive" productions like expr → expr + term
- A left-recursive production can be eliminated by rewriting the offending production.

  Consider a nonterminal A with two productions

$$A \rightarrow A\alpha | \beta \Rightarrow \beta \alpha \alpha \alpha \cdots \alpha$$

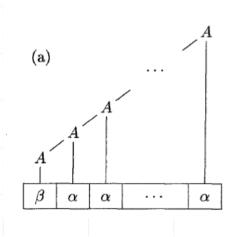
■ For example,  $A = \exp r$ ,  $\alpha = + \operatorname{term}$ ,  $\beta = \operatorname{term}$ 

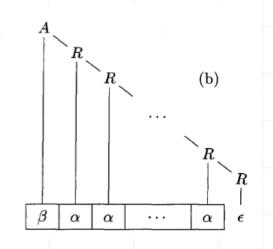
### Left Recursion

■ We can convert left recursion to right recursion in the following manner, using a new nonterminal R:

 $A \rightarrow \beta R$ 

 $R \rightarrow \alpha R I \epsilon$ 



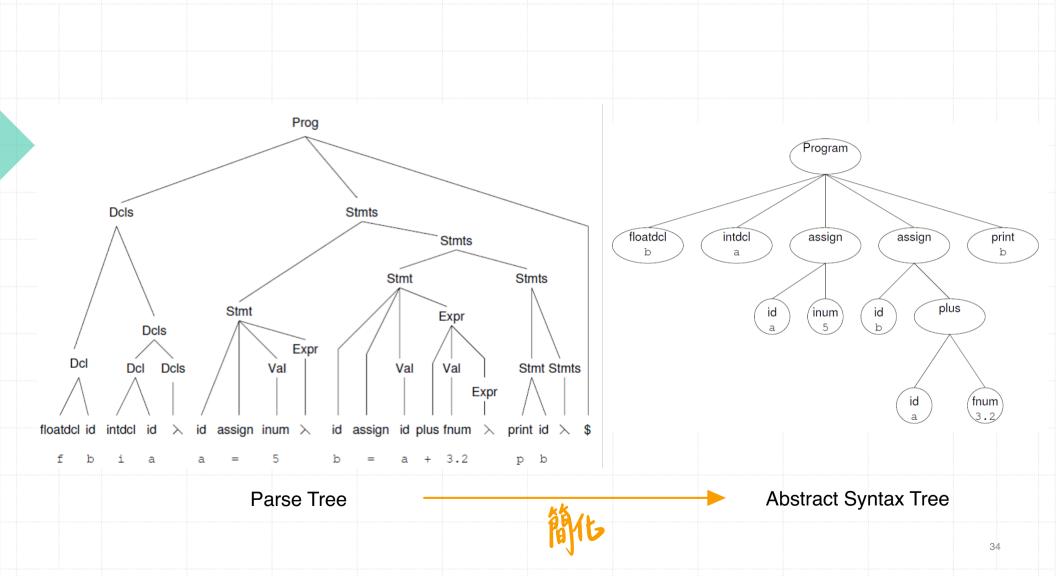


### **Abstract Syntax Trees**

- While the process of compilation begins with scanning and parsing, following are some aspects of compilation that can be difficult or even impossible to perform during syntax analysis:
  - Most programming language specifications include prose that describes aspects of the language that cannot be specified in a CFG. Ex: x.y.z in Java, operator overloading.
  - For relatively simple languages, syntax-directed translation can perform almost all aspects of program translation during syntax analysis. However, from a software engineering perspective, the separation of activities and concerns into phases (such as syntax analysis, semantic analysis, optimization, and code generation) makes the resulting compiler much easier to write and maintain.
- In response to the above concerns, we might consider using the parse tree as the structure that survives syntax analysis and is used for the remaining phases.

### **Abstract Syntax Trees**

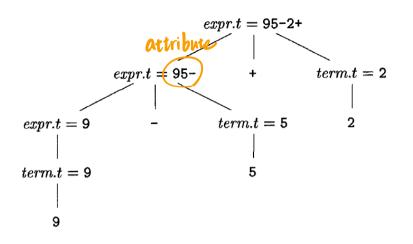
- However, such trees can be rather large and unnecessarily detailed, even for very simple grammars and inputs.
- It is therefore common practice to create an artifact of syntax analysis known as the abstract syntax tree (AST). This structure contains the essential information from a parse tree, but inessential punctuation and delimiters (braces, semicolons, parentheses, etc.) are not included.



### Syntax-Directed Translation

- Two concepts related to syntax-directed translation:
  - Attributes. An attribute is any quantity associated with a programming construct. Examples of attributes are data types of expressions, the number of instructions in the generated code, or the location of the first instruction in the generated code for a construct ...
  - Translation schemes. A translation scheme is a notation for attaching program fragments to the productions of a grammar. The program fragments are executed when the production is used during syntax analysis. The combined result of all these fragment executions, in the order induced by the syntax analysis, produces the translation of the program to which this analysis/ synthesis process is applied.

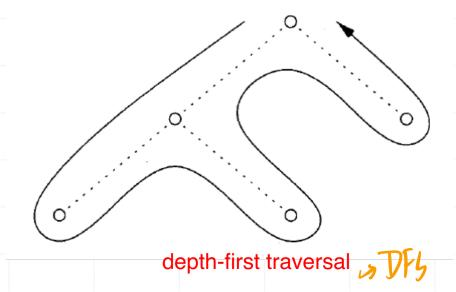
# Synthesized Attributes



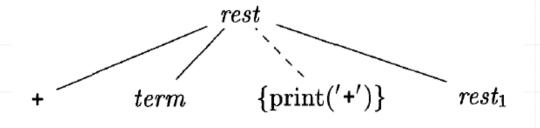
PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES
$expr  o expr_1 + term$	$expr.t = expr_1.t \mid\mid term.t \mid\mid '+'$
$expr  o expr_1$ - $term$	$expr.t = expr_1.t \mid   term.t \mid   '-'$
expr  ightarrow term	expr.t = term.t
term  ightarrow 0	term.t = '0'
$term  ightarrow  exttt{1}$	term.t = '1'
•••	•••
$term \rightarrow 9$	term.t = '9'

### Tree Traversals

■ Tree traversals will be used for describing attribute evaluation and for specifying the execution of code fragments in a translation scheme.



- A syntax-directed translation scheme is a notation for specifying a translation by attaching program fragments to productions in a grammar.
- The position at which an action is to be executed is shown by enclosing it between curly braces and writing it within the production body, as in rest → + term {print('+')} rest₁



```
expr \rightarrow expr<sub>1</sub> + term {print('+')}

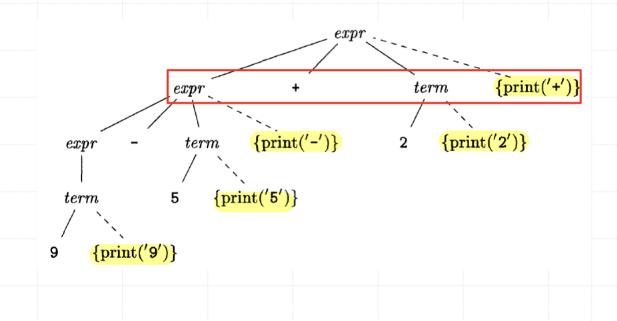
expr \rightarrow expr<sub>1</sub> - term {print('-')}

expr \rightarrow term

term \rightarrow 0 {print ('0')}

term \rightarrow 1 {print ('1')}
```

term  $\rightarrow$  9 {print ('9')}



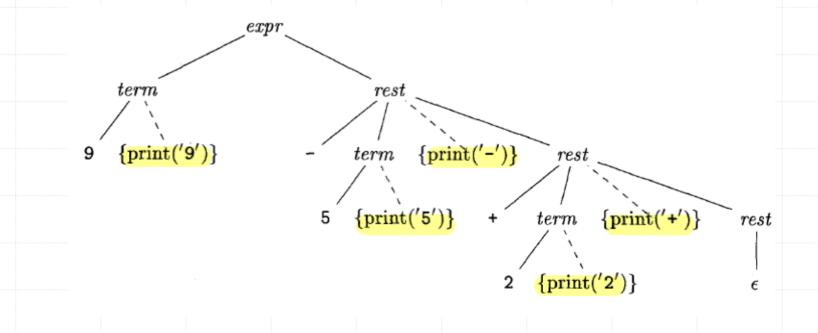
```
■ Let
                          expr
          \alpha = + term \{ print('+') \}
                  = -term \{ print('-') \}
                           term
       expr \rightarrow expr_1 + term \{print('+')\}
                                          A \rightarrow Ad |AB| Y
       \mathsf{expr} \to \mathsf{expr}_1 - \mathsf{term} \, \{\mathsf{print('-')}\}
       expr → term
       term \rightarrow 0 {print ('0')}
       term \rightarrow 1 {print (' 1')}
```

term  $\rightarrow$  9 {print ('9')}

```
transformation produces the translation scheme expr \rightarrow term \ rest
rest \rightarrow term \ \{ \ print('+') \ \} \ rest
| -term \ \{ \ print('-') \ \} \ rest
```

9 { print('9') }

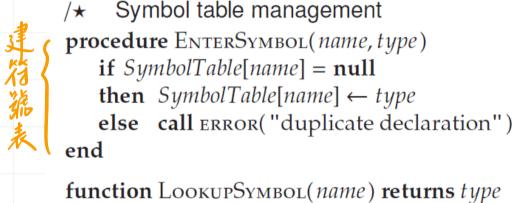
■ Then the left-recursion-eliminating



### Semantic Analysis

■ For the ac language, we focus on two aspects of semantic analysis: symbol table construction and type checking.

```
procedure visit(SymDeclaring n)
  if n.getType() = floatdcl
  then call EnterSymbol(n.getId(), float)
  else call EnterSymbol(n.getId(), integer)
end
```



**return** (*SymbolTable*[*name*])

end

Visitor methods

### Type Checking

```
/★ Visitor methods

procedure VISIT(Computing n)

n.type ← Consistent(n.child1, n.child2)

end

procedure VISIT(Assigning n)

n.type ← Convert(n.child2, n.child1.type)

end

procedure VISIT(SymReferencing n)

n.type ← LookupSymbol(n.id)

end

procedure VISIT(IntConsting n)

n.type ← integer

end

procedure VISIT(FloatConsting n)

n.type ← float
```

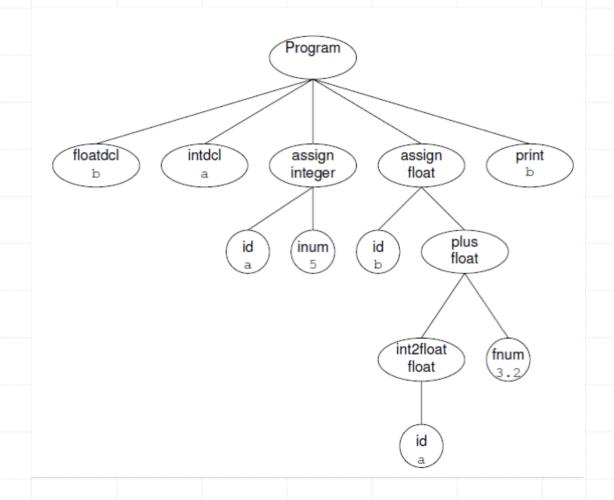
end

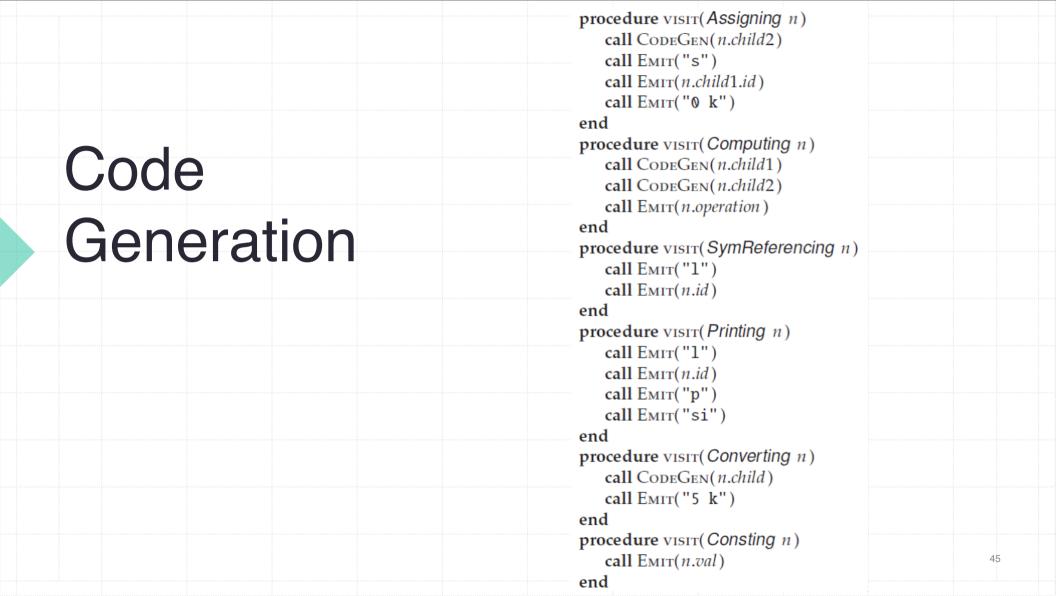
```
Type-checking utilities
                                                                      */
function Consistent(c1, c2) returns type
   m \leftarrow \text{Generalize}(c1.type, c2.type)
   call Convert(c1, m)
   call Convert(c2, m)
   return (m)
end
function Generalize(t1, t2) returns type
   if t1 = \text{float or } t2 = \text{float}
   then ans \leftarrow float
   else ans ← integer
   return (ans)
end
procedure Convert(n,t)
   if n.type = \text{float and } t = \text{integer}
    then call ERROR("Illegal type conversion")
   else
       if n.type = integer and t = float
       then
                replace node n by convert-to-float of node n
       else /★ nothing needed ★/
```

end

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# AST after semantic analysis





### **Code Generation**

Code	Source	Comments
5	a = 5	Push 5 on stack
 sa		Pop the stack, storing (s) the popped value in
		register <u>a</u>
 0 k		Reset precision to integer
la	b = a + 3.2	Load $(\underline{1})$ register $\underline{a}$ , pushing its value on stack
 5 k		Set precision to float
3.2		Push 3.2 on stack
+		Add: 5 and 3.2 are popped from the stack and
		their sum is pushed
sb		Pop the stack, storing the result in register b
 0 k		Reset precision to integer
1b	p b	Push the value of the b register
 p		Print the top-of-stack value
si		Pop the stack by storing into the i register