

Lexical and Syntax Analysis

CHAPTER 4 TOPICS

- Introduction
- Lexical Analysis
- The Parsing Problem
- Recursive-Descent Parsing
- Bottom-Up Parsing



4.1 Introduction

- Language implementation systems must analyze source code, regardless of the specific implementation approach (Compilation, Pure interpretation and JIT)
- Nearly all syntax analysis is based on a formal description of the syntax of the source language (BNF)



SYNTAX ANALYSIS

- The syntax analysis portion of a language processor nearly always consists of two parts:
 - A low-level part called a *lexical analyzer* (mathematically, a finite automaton based on a regular grammar)
 - A high-level part called a *syntax analyzer*, or parser (mathematically, a push-down automaton based on a context-free grammar, or BNF)



Using BNF to Describe Syntax

- Provides a clear and concise syntax description contex free, can be used by human and softwares
- The parser (syntax analyzer) can be based directly on the BNF
- Parsers based on BNF are easy to maintain modularity



REASONS TO SEPARATE LEXICAL AND SYNTAX ANALYSIS

- Simplicity less complex approaches can be used for lexical analysis; separating them simplifies the parser
- *Efficiency* separation allows optimization of the lexical analyzer
- *Portability* parts of the lexical analyzer may not be portable, but the parser always is portable



4.2 Lexical Analysis

- A lexical analyzer is a pattern matcher for character strings
- A lexical analyzer is a "front-end" for the parser
- Identifies substrings of the source program that belong together *lexemes*
 - Lexemes match a character pattern, which is associated with a lexical category called a *token*
 - sum is a lexeme; its token may be IDENT



Lexical Analysis (continued)

- The lexical analyzer
 - Extracts lexemes from given input string and produce corresponding tokens
 - Syntax analyzer will only see the output of lexical analyzer (one lexeme at a time)
 - Skips comments and blanks
 - Inserts lexemes for user-defined names into symbol table used by compiler
 - Detects syntactical errors in tokens

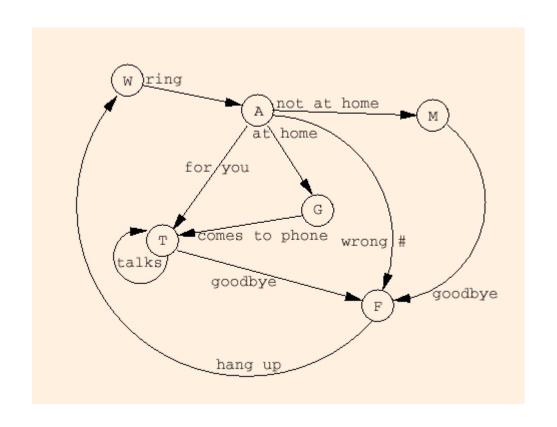


Lexical Analysis (continued)

- The lexical analyzer is usually a function that is called by the parser when it needs the next token
- Three approaches to building a lexical analyzer:
 - Write a formal description of the tokens and use a software tool that constructs table-driven lexical analyzers given such a description
 - Design a state diagram that describes the tokens and write a program that implements the state diagram
 - Design a state diagram that describes the tokens and hand-construct a table-driven implementation of the state diagram



EXAMPLE OF A STATE DIAGRAM





STATE DIAGRAM DESIGN

• A naïve state diagram would have a transition from every state on every character in the source language - such a diagram would be very large!



LEXICAL ANALYSIS (CONT.)

- In many cases, transitions can be combined to simplify the state diagram
 - When recognizing an identifier, all uppercase and lowercase letters are equivalent
 - Use a character class that includes all letters
 - When recognizing an integer literal, all digits are equivalent use a digit class



LEXICAL ANALYSIS (CONT.)

- Reserved words and identifiers can be recognized together (rather than having a part of the diagram for each reserved word)
 - Use a table lookup to determine whether a possible identifier is in fact a reserved word

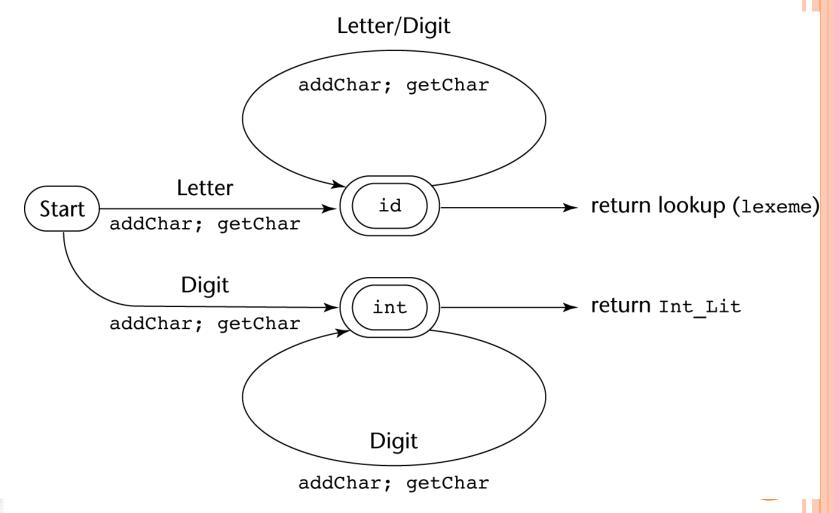


LEXICAL ANALYSIS (CONT.)

- Convenient utility subprograms:
 - getChar gets the next character of input, puts it in nextChar, determines its class and puts the class in charClass
 - addChar puts the character from nextChar into the place the lexeme is being accumulated, lexeme
 - lookup determines whether the string in **lexeme** is a reserved word (returns a code)



STATE DIAGRAM





```
<u>Implementation (assume initialization):</u>
int lex() {
 getChar();
  switch (charClass) {
    case LETTER:
      addChar();
      getChar();
      while (charClass == LETTER || charClass == DIGIT)
        addChar();
        getChar();
      return lookup(lexeme);
      break;
  case DIGIT:
      addChar();
      getChar();
      while (charClass == DIGIT) {
        addChar();
        getChar();
      return INT LIT;
      break;
  } /* End of switch */
 /* End of function lex */
```

PARSING

- o Goals of the parser, given an input program:
 - Find all syntax errors; for each, produce an appropriate diagnostic message, and recover quickly
 - Produce the parse tree, or at least a trace of the parse tree, for the program



Parsing (cont.)

- Notations used ...
 - Lowercase letters at the beginning of the alphabet (a, b, ...) for terminal symbols.
 - Uppercase letters at the beginning of the alphabet (A, B, ...) for nonterminals symbols.
 - Uppercase letters at the end of the alphabet (W, X, Y, Z) for terminals or nonterminals.
 - Lowercase letters at the end of the alphabet (w, x, y, z) for strings of terminal.
 - Lowercase Greek letters $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta)$ for mixed strings (terminals and/or nonterminals)



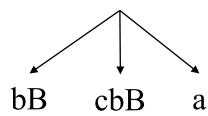
Parsing (cont.)

- Two categories of parsers
 - *Top down* produce the parse tree, beginning at the root
 - Order is that of a leftmost derivation
 - Traces or builds the parse tree in preorder
 - Bottom up produce the parse tree, beginning at the leaves
 - Order is that of the reverse of a rightmost derivation
- Parsers look only one token ahead in the input



Parsing (cont.)

- Top-down Parsers
 - Given a sentential form, $xA\alpha$, the parser must choose the correct A-rule to get the next sentential form in the leftmost derivation, using only the first token produced by A A



- The most common top-down parsing algorithms:
 - Recursive descent a coded implementation
 - LL parsers table driven implementation



THE PARSING PROBLEM (CONT.)

Bottom-up parsers

- Given a right sentential form, α , determine what substring of α is the right-hand side of the rule in the grammar that must be reduced to produce the previous sentential form in the right derivation
- The most common bottom-up parsing algorithms are in the LR family
- Eg.

$$S \rightarrow aAc$$

 $A \rightarrow aA \mid b$

$$S \Rightarrow aAc \Rightarrow aaAc \Rightarrow aabc$$



THE PARSING PROBLEM (CONT.)

- The Complexity of Parsing
 - Parsers that work for any unambiguous grammar are complex and inefficient ($O(n^3)$, where n is the length of the input)
 - Compilers use parsers that only work for a subset of all unambiguous grammars, but do it in linear time (O(n), where n is the length of the input)



RECURSIVE-DESCENT PARSING

- There is a subprogram for each nonterminal in the grammar, which can parse sentences that can be generated by that nonterminal
- EBNF is ideally suited for being the basis for a recursive-descent parser, because EBNF minimizes the number of nonterminals



• A grammar for simple expressions:

```
<expr> → <term> { (+ | -) <term>}
<term> → <factor> { (* | /) <factor>}
<factor> → id | ( <expr> )
```



- Assume we have a lexical analyzer named lex, which puts the next token code in nextToken
- The coding process when there is only one RHS:
 - For each terminal symbol in the RHS, compare it with the next input token; if they match, continue, else there is an error
 - For each nonterminal symbol in the RHS, call its associated parsing subprogram



```
void expr() {
   term();
  while (nextToken == PLUS CODE || nextToken == MINUS CODE) {
    lex();
    term();
                                  \langle expr \rangle \rightarrow \langle term \rangle \{ (+ | -) \langle term \rangle \}
                                  \langle \text{term} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{factor} \rangle \{ (* | /) \langle \text{factor} \rangle \}
                                  \langle factor \rangle \rightarrow id \mid (\langle expr \rangle)
void term(){
   factor();
          while (nextToken == AST CODE || nextToken ==
   SLACH CODE) {
          lex();
          factor();
void factor() {
  if (nextToken) == ID CODE)
      lèx();
  else if (nextToken == LEFT PAREN CODE) {
     lex();
       expr();
       if (nextToken == RIGHT PAREN CODE)
          lex();
       else
         error();
       /* End of else if (nextToken == ... */
  else error(); /* Neither RHS matches */
```



```
/* Function expr
   Parses strings in the language generated by the rule:
   \langle expr \rangle \rightarrow \langle term \rangle \{ (+ | -) \langle term \rangle \}
void expr() {
  /* Parse the first term */
  term();
  /* As long as the next token is + or -, call lex to get the
  next token, and parse the next term */
  while (nextToken == PLUS CODE || nextToken == MINUS CODE) {
    lex();
    term();
```

- This particular routine does not detect errors
- Convention: Every parsing routine leaves the next token in nextToken



```
/* Function term
Parses string in the language generated by the rule: <term>
  -> <factor> {(*|/)<factor>}*/
void term(){
  /*parse the first factor */
  factor();
  /*As long as the next token is * or /, call lex to get the
  next token, and parse the next facrtor*/
  while (nextToken == AST CODE || nextToken == SLACH CODE) {
       lex();
      factor();
```



- A nonterminal that has more than one RHS requires an initial process to determine which RHS it is to parse
 - The correct RHS is chosen on the basis of the next token of input (the lookahead)
 - The next token is compared with the first token that can be generated by each RHS until a match is found
 - If no match is found, it is a syntax error



```
/* Function factor
  Parses strings in the language generated by the rule:
  <factor> -> id | (<expr>) */
void factor() { /* Determine which RHS */
 if (nextToken) == ID CODE) /* For the RHS id, just call lex */
    lex();
/* If the RHS is (<expr>) - call lex to pass over the left
 parenthesis, call expr, and check for the right parenthesis */
 else if (nextToken == LEFT PAREN CODE) {
   lex();
    expr();
    if (nextToken == RIGHT PAREN CODE)
      lex();
    else
      error();
   } /* End of else if (nextToken == ... */
 else error(); /* Neither RHS matches */
```



- The LL Grammar Class
 - The Left Recursion Problem
 - If a grammar has left recursion, either direct or indirect, it cannot be the basis for a top-down parser
 - A grammar can be modified to remove left recursion

Direct

 $A \rightarrow A + B....$

Indirect

 $A \rightarrow B a A$

 $B \rightarrow A b$



- The LL Grammar Class
 - The Left Recursion Problem
 - If a grammar has left recursion, either direct or indirect, it cannot be the basis for a top-down parser
 - A grammar can be modified to remove left recursion

```
A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta \text{ left recursion rule} Sol: A \rightarrow \beta A' A' \rightarrow \alpha A' \mid \epsilon \qquad \epsilon \text{ is the null value}
```



- The LL Grammar Class
 - The Left Recursion Problem

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$

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

$$F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$$

$$A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta$$

$$A \rightarrow \beta A'$$

$$A' \rightarrow \alpha A' | \epsilon$$

$$E \rightarrow T E'$$

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

 $E' \rightarrow + T E' | \epsilon$ ϵ is the null value

$$T \rightarrow F T'$$

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

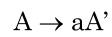
$$F \rightarrow (E)$$
 id

- The other characteristic of grammars that disallows top-down parsing is the lack of pairwise disjointness
 - The inability to determine the correct RHS on the basis of one token of lookahead
 - Def: FIRST(α) = {a | $\alpha = >* a\beta$ } (If $\alpha = >* \epsilon$, ϵ is in FIRST(α))



- Pairwise Disjointness Test:
 - For each nonterminal, A, in the grammar that has more than one RHS, for each pair of rules, $A \rightarrow \alpha_i$ and $A \rightarrow \alpha_i$, it must be true that $FIRST(\alpha_i) \cap FIRST(\alpha_i) = \phi$
- Examples:

```
A \rightarrow aA \mid bB - pass the test
  A \rightarrow aA \mid aB - fail the test
SOL:
  A \rightarrow aA'
  A' \rightarrow A \mid B
A \rightarrow aA \mid a - fail the test
SOL:
```



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

 $A' \rightarrow A \mid \epsilon$ ϵ is the null value



• Left factoring can resolve the problem Replace $\langle variable \rangle \rightarrow identifier \mid identifier$ [<expression>] with $\langle variable \rangle \rightarrow identifier \langle new \rangle$ <new $> \rightarrow \varepsilon$ | [<expression>] or <variable> → identifier [[<expression>]] (the outer brackets are metasymbols of EBNF)



RECURSIVE-DESCENT PARSING (CONT.)

• Left factoring can resolve the problem

 $s \rightarrow a \mid ab \mid abc \mid abcd$

Sol:

 $s \rightarrow as'$

 $s' \rightarrow \epsilon \mid bs''$

 $s" \rightarrow \epsilon \mid cs"$

 $s''' \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid d$

ε is the null value



BOTTOM-UP PARSING

- The parsing problem is finding the correct RHS in a right-sentential form (*handle*) to reduce to get the previous right-sentential form in the derivation
- Example grammar:

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$

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

$$F \rightarrow (E) \mid id \qquad (1)$$

E.g. derived sentence: id + id * id



•Intuition about handles:

- Def: β is the *handle* of the right sentential form $\gamma = \alpha \beta w$ if and only if $S =>^*_{rm} \alpha Aw =>_{rm} \alpha \beta w$
- Def: β is a *phrase* of the right sentential form γ if and only if $S = > * \gamma = \alpha_1 A \alpha_2 = > + \alpha_1 \beta \alpha_2$
- Def: β is a *simple phrase* of the right sentential form γ if and only if $S =>^* \gamma = \alpha_1 A \alpha_2 => \alpha_1 \beta \alpha_2$



- Intuition about handles:
 - The handle of a right sentential form is its leftmost simple phrase
 - Given a parse tree, it is now easy to find the handle
 - Parsing can be thought of as handle pruning



- Shift-Reduce Algorithms
 - Reduce is the action of replacing the handle on the top of the parse stack with its corresponding LHS
 - Shift is the action of moving the next token to the top of the parse stack



- Advantages of LR parsers:
 - They will work for nearly all grammars that describe programming languages.
 - They work on a larger class of grammars than other bottom-up algorithms, but are as efficient as any other bottom-up parser.
 - They can detect syntax errors as soon as it is possible.
 - The LR class of grammars is a superset of the class parsable by LL parsers.



- LR parsers must be constructed with a tool
- Knuth's insight: A bottom-up parser could use the entire history of the parse, up to the current point, to make parsing decisions
 - There were only a finite and relatively small number of different parse situations that could have occurred, so the history could be stored in a parser state, and stored in the parse stack



 An LR configuration stores the state of an LR parser

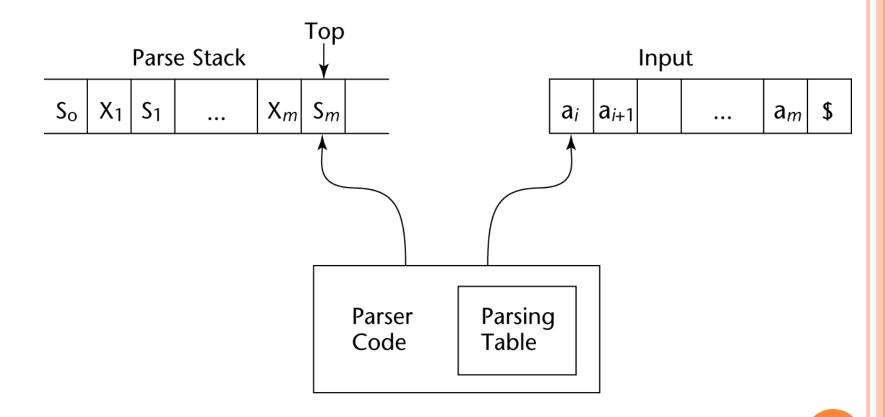
$$(S_0X_1S_1X_2S_2...X_mS_m, a_ia_i+1...a_n\$)$$



- LR parsers are table driven, where the table has two components, an ACTION table and a GOTO table
 - The ACTION table specifies the action of the parser, given the parser state and the next token
 - Rows are state names; columns are terminals
 - The GOTO table specifies which state to put on top of the parse stack after a reduction action is done
 - Rows are state names; columns are nonterminals



STRUCTURE OF AN LR PARSER





- Initial configuration: $(S_0, a_1...a_n)$
- Parser actions:
 - If ACTION[S_m , a_i] = Shift S, the next configuration is: $(S_0X_1S_1X_2S_2...X_mS_ma_iS, a_{i+1}...a_n\$)$
 - If ACTION[S_m , a_i] = Reduce $A \rightarrow \beta$ and $S = GOTO[<math>S_m$. $_r$, A], where r = the length of β , the next configuration is

$$(S_0X_1S_1X_2S_2...X_{m-r}S_{m-r}AS, a_ia_{i+1}...a_n\$)$$



- Parser actions (continued):
 - If $ACTION[S_m, a_i] = Accept$, the parse is complete and no errors were found.
 - If $ACTION[S_m, a_i] = Error$, the parser calls an error-handling routine.



LR PARSING TABLE

	Action						Goto		
State	id	+	*	()	\$	E	Т	F
0	\$5			S4			1	2	3
1		S6				accept			
2		R2	S7		R2	R2			
3		R4	R4		R4	R4			
4	\$5			S4			8	2	3
5		R6	R6		R6	R6			
6	\$5			S4				9	3
7	\$5			S4					10
8		S6			S11				
9		R1	S7		R1	R1			
10		R3	R3		R3	R3			
11		R5	R5		R5	R5			



• Grammar (1) rewritten and numbered for easy referencing in a parsing table.

1.
$$E \rightarrow E + T$$

- $E \to T$
- 3. $T \rightarrow T * F$
- $4. \quad T \rightarrow F$
- $5. \quad F \rightarrow (E)$
- 6. $F \rightarrow id$



Stack	Input	Action
0	id + id * id \$	Shift 5
0id5	+ id * id \$	Reduce 6 (use GOTO[0, F])
0F3	+ id * id \$	Reduce 4 (use GOTO[0, T])
0T2	+ id * id \$	Reduce 2 (use GOTO[0, E])
0E1	+ id * id \$	Shift 6
0E1+6	id * id \$	Shift 5
0E1+6id5	* id \$	Reduce 6 (use GOTO[6, F])
0E1+6F3	* id \$	Reduce 4 (use GOTO[6, T])
0E1+6T9	* id \$	Shift 7
0E1+6T9*7	id \$	Shift 5
0E1+6T9*7id5	\$	Reduce 6 (use GOTO[7, F])
0E1+6T9*7F10	\$	Reduce 3 (use GOTO[6, T])
0E1+6T9	\$	Reduce 1 (use GOTO[0, E])
0E1	\$	Accept



• A parser table can be generated from a given grammar with a tool, e.g., yacc



SUMMARY

- Syntax analysis is a common part of language implementation
- A lexical analyzer is a pattern matcher that isolates small-scale parts of a program
 - Detects syntax errors
 - Produces a parse tree
- A recursive-descent parser is an LL parser
 - EBNF
- Parsing problem for bottom-up parsers: find the substring of current sentential form
- The LR family of shift-reduce parsers is the most common bottom-up parsing approach

