CS251: Introduction to Language Processing

Syntax Analysis

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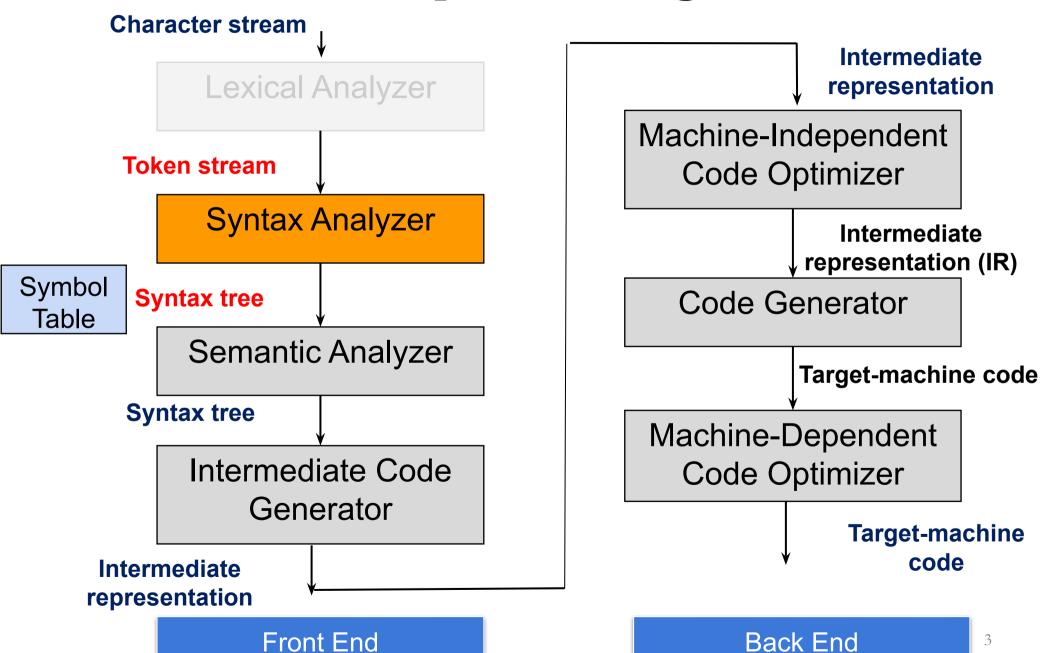
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Acknowledgement

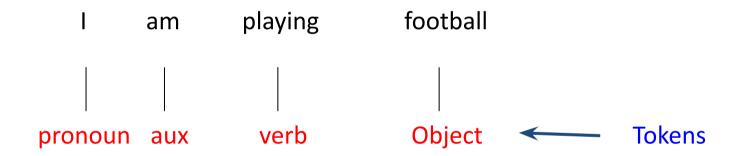
- References for today's slides
 - Stanford University:
 - https://web.stanford.edu/class/archive/cs/cs143/cs143.112
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 - Lecture notes of Prof. Amey Karkare (IIT Kanpur) and Late Prof. Sanjeev K Aggarwal (IIT Kanpur)

Compiler Design



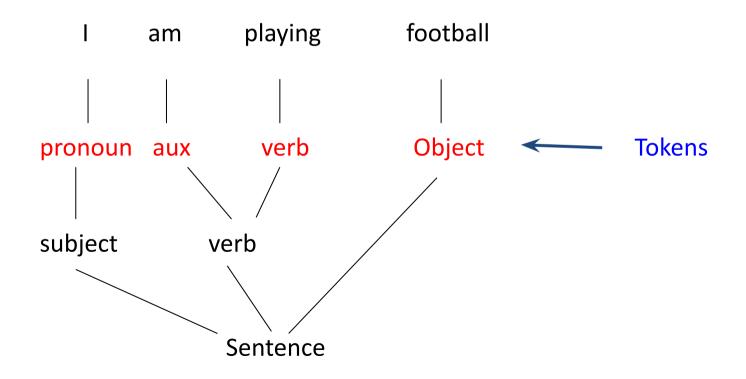
Example (English Lang)

- We understood the token (words), the next step is to understand the structure of the sentence
- The process is known as syntax checking or parsing



Example (English Lang)

```
Sentence -> Subject Verb Object
Subject -> pronoun
Verb -> aux Verb
```



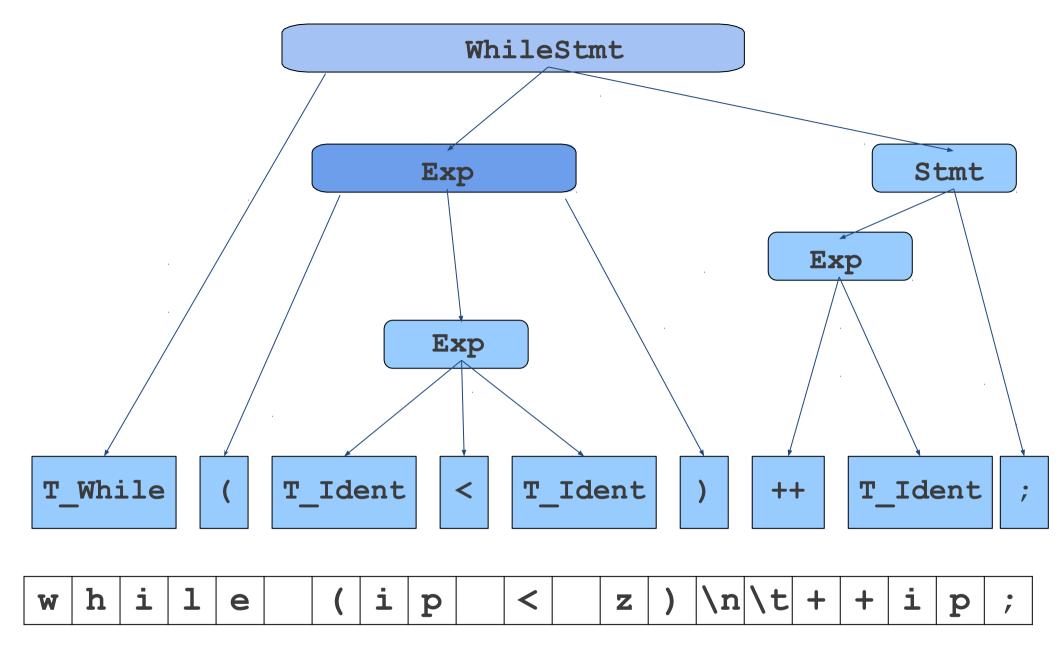
Example (Programming Lang)

```
while (ip < z)
++ip;</pre>
```

		W	h	i	1	е		(i	p		<		Z)	\n	\t	+	+	i	р	•
--	--	---	---	---	---	---	--	---	---	---	--	---	--	---	---	----	----	---	---	---	---	---

while (ip < z)
++ip;</pre>

```
WhileStmt -> T WHILE (Exp) Stmt
       Stmt -> Exp;
       Exp \rightarrow (Exp)
       Exp \rightarrow Exp < Exp
       Exp -> T Ident
             T Ident
                                             T Ident
T While
                      <
                          T Ident
                                        ++
    i
                                    |n| + +
                                               i
                  i
  h
       1
                          <
                                                  p
W
                     p
                                Z
          e
                   while (ip < z)
                        ++ip;
```



What is Syntax Analysis?

- After lexical analysis (scanning), we have a series of tokens.
- In syntax analysis (or parsing), we want to interpret what those tokens mean.
- Goal:
 - Recover the structure described by that series of tokens
 - Report errors if those tokens do not properly encode a structure.

Outline

- Today: Formalisms for syntax analysis.
 - . Context-Free Grammars Derivations
 - Ambiguity

- Next Week: Parsing algorithms.
 - . Top-Down Parsing
 - Bottom-Up Parsing

The Limits of Regular Languages

- In lexical analysis, we used regular expressions to define each token.
- Unfortunately, regular expressions are (usually) too weak to define programming languages.
 - A finite automata may repeat states, however, it cannot remember the number of times it has been to a particular state
 - Cannot define a regular expression matching all expressions with properly balanced parentheses.
 - Cannot define a regular expression matching all functions with properly nested block structure.
- We need a more powerful formalism.
 - Context Free Languages (CFL)

Context-Free Grammars

- A context-free grammar (or CFG) is a formalism for defining languages.
- Can define the context—free languages, a strict superset of the the regular languages.
- CFGs are best explained by example...

Context-Free Grammars

- Formally, a context-free grammar is a collection of four objects:
 - A set of nonterminal symbols (or variables),
 - A set of terminal symbols,
 - A set of production rules saying how each nonterminal can be converted by a string of terminals and nonterminals,
 - and
 - A **start symbol** that begins the derivation.

Arithmetic Expressions

- Suppose we want to describe all legal arithmetic expressions using addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.
- Here is one possible CFG:

```
E \rightarrow int
E \rightarrow E Op E
E \rightarrow (E)
Op \rightarrow +
Op \rightarrow -
Op \rightarrow *
Op \rightarrow /
```

```
int / int
   E

⇒ E Op E

⇒ E Op int

⇒ int Op int
⇒ int / int
```

Arithmetic Expressions

 Suppose we want to describe all legal arithmetic expressions using addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

```
Here is one possible CFG:
```

```
E \rightarrow int
E \rightarrow E Op E
E \rightarrow (E)
Op \rightarrow +
Op \rightarrow -
Op \rightarrow *
Op \rightarrow /
```

```
int * (int + int)
   Ε
\Rightarrow E Op E
\Rightarrow E Op (E)
\Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)
\Rightarrow E * (E Op E)
\Rightarrow int * (E Op E)
\Rightarrow int * (int Op E)
⇒ int * (int Op int)
\Rightarrow int * (int + int)
```

A Notational Shorthand

```
E \rightarrow int
E \rightarrow E Op E
E \rightarrow (E)
Op \rightarrow +
Op \rightarrow -
Op \rightarrow *
Op \rightarrow /
```

A Notational Shorthand

$$E \rightarrow int \mid E \cup Op \mid E \mid (E)$$
 $Op \rightarrow + \mid - \mid * \mid /$

Small Exercise

• Write a CFG for expression in C language.

CFGs for Programming Languages

```
EXPR → identifier

| constant
| EXPR + EXPR
| EXPR - EXPR
| EXPR * EXPR
```

Small Exercise

- Write a CFG for Statement in C language.
 - Statement can be Simple stmt, If-else stmt, While stmt, do-while

CFGs for Programming Languages

```
STMT \rightarrow EXPR;
           | if (EXPR) BLOCK
           | while (EXPR) BLOCK
           do BLOCK while (EXPR);
            BLOCK
EXPR
         \rightarrow identifier
            constant
            EXPR + EXPR
            EXPR - EXPR
             EXPR * EXPR
```

CFGs for Programming Languages

```
BLOCK \rightarrow STMT
              { STMTS }
STMTS \rightarrow \epsilon
              STMT STMTS
STMT \rightarrow EXPR;
            | if (EXPR) BLOCK
            | while (EXPR) BLOCK
            do BLOCK while (EXPR);
              BLOCK
EXPR
          \rightarrow identifier
              constant
             EXPR + EXPR
              EXPR - EXPR
              EXPR * EXPR
```

Some CFG Notation

- Capital letters at the beginning of the alphabet will represent nonterminals.
 - i.e. A, B, C, D
- Lowercase letters at the end of the alphabet will represent terminals.
 - i.e. **t**, **u**, **v**, **w**
- Lowercase Greek letters will represent arbitrary strings of terminals and nonterminals.
 - i.e. **α, γ, ω**

Examples

We might write an arbitrary production as

$$A \rightarrow \omega$$

 We might write a string of a nonterminal followed by a terminal as

At

We might write an arbitrary production containing a nonterminal followed by a terminal as

$$B \rightarrow aAt\omega$$

Derivations

```
Ε
                             • This sequence of steps is called a
\Rightarrow E Op E
                               derivation.
\Rightarrow E Op (E)
                             • A string aA\omega yields string
\Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)
                               a\gamma\omega iff A \rightarrow \gamma is a production.
\Rightarrow E * (E Op E)
                             • If a yields B, we write \mathbf{a} \Rightarrow \mathbf{B}.
\Rightarrow int * (E Op E)
\Rightarrow int * (int Op E) . We say that a derives B iff there
⇒ int * (int Op int) is a sequence of strings
                               where
\Rightarrow int * (int + int)
```

• If a derives B, we write
$$a \Rightarrow B$$
.

 $a \Rightarrow a_1 \Rightarrow a_2 \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow B$

Derivations

- A **leftmost derivation** is a derivation in which each step expands the **leftmost nonterminal**.
- A rightmost derivation is a derivation in which each step expands the rightmost nonterminal.

Leftmost Derivation

```
E
                                                       \Rightarrow E Op E
                                                       \Rightarrow int Op E
E \rightarrow int \mid E \cup D \mid E \mid (E)
                                                       \Rightarrow int * E
\mathsf{Op} \to + | - | * | /
                                                       \Rightarrow int * (E)
                                                       \Rightarrow int * (E Op E)
                                                       \Rightarrow int * (int Op E)
                                                       \Rightarrow int * (int + E)
\Rightarrow int * (int + int)
                                                       \Rightarrow int * (int + int)
```

Summary

- Syntax analysis (parsing) extracts the structure from the tokens produced by the scanner.
- Process of determination whether a string can be generated by a grammar
- Languages are usually specified by context-free grammars (CFGs).
- A parse tree shows how a string can be derived from a grammar.