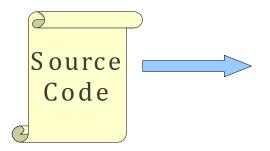
BBM 301 – Programming Languages

Lecture 3

Where We Are



Lexical Analysis

Syntax Analysis

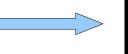
Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

IR Optimization

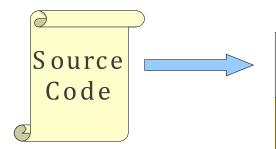
Code Generation

Optimization



Machine Code

Where We Are



Lexical Analysis

Syntax Analysis

Semantic Analysis

IR Generation

IR Optimization

Code Generation

Optimization



Machine Code

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.
- Goal: Report *errors* if those tokens do not properly encode a structure.

Lexical vs. Syntactic Analysis

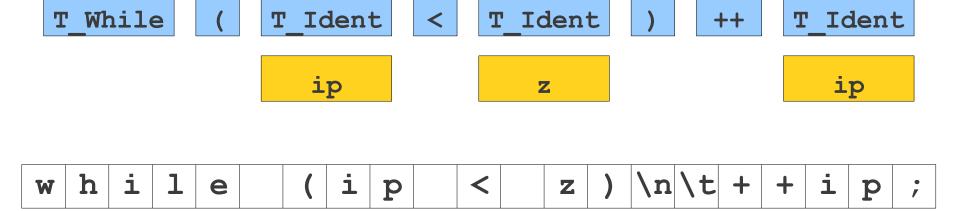
Phase	Input	Output
Lexer	Sequence of characters	Sequence of tokens
Parser	Sequence of tokens	Parse tree

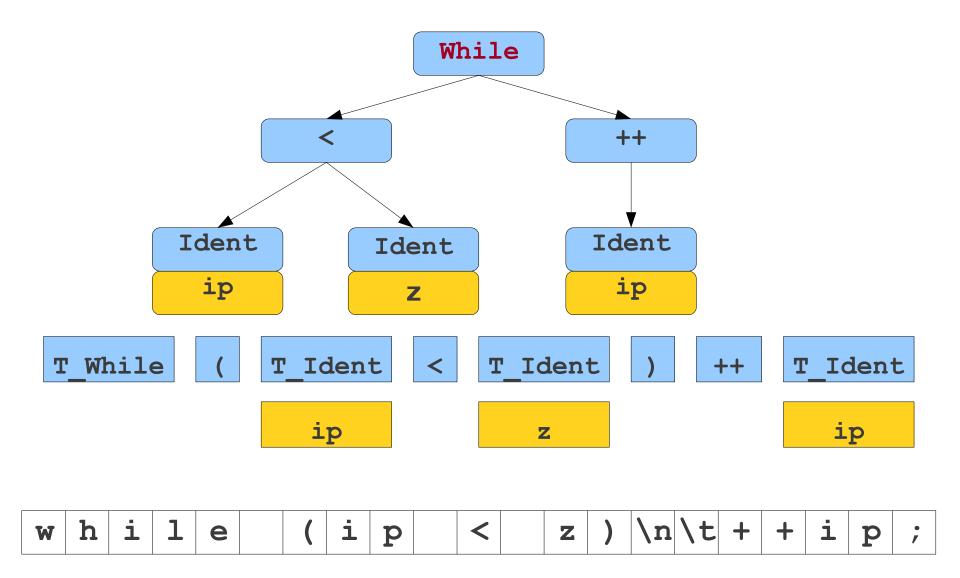
- Lex is a tool for writing lexical analyzers.
- Yacc is a tool for constructing parsers.

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

w h i l e (i p < z) \n\t + i p ;

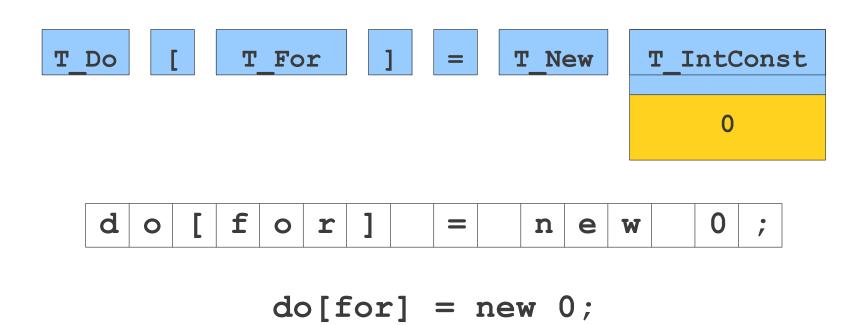
while (ip < z)
 ++ip;</pre>

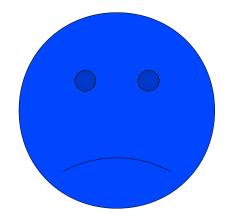




```
do[for] = new 0;
```

do[for] = new 0;





$$do[for] = new 0;$$

Describing Syntax

- Higher level constructs are given by syntax rules.
- Syntax rules specify which strings from Σ* are in the language
- Examples: organization of the program, loop structures, assignment, expressions, subprogram definitions, and calls.

Formal Languages

- An alphabet is a set Σ of symbols that act as letters.
- A language over Σ is a set of strings made from symbols in Σ .
- When scanning, our alphabet was ASCII or Unicode characters. We produced tokens.
- When parsing, our alphabet is the set of tokens produced by the scanner.

The Limits of Regular Languages

- When scanning, we used regular expressions to define each token.
- Unfortunately, regular expressions are (usually) too weak to define programming languages.
 - 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 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.

 L = {one or more zeros followed by one or more ones}

0+1+ : Regular expression

- S -> AB
- A-> 0A | 0
- B-> 1B | 1

Is the following language regular?

L = {number of 0s followed by equal number of 1s}

$$L = \{0^n1^n, n \ge 0\}$$

Context Free Grammars

$$L = \{a^nb^n, n>=0 \}$$

$$L = \{a^nb^n, n>=1\}$$

- The syntax for regular expressions does not carry over to CFGs.
- Cannot use *, |, or parentheses.

$$S \rightarrow a*b$$

- The syntax for regular expressions does not carry over to CFGs.
- Cannot use *, |, or parentheses.

 $S \rightarrow Ab$

- The syntax for regular expressions does not carry over to CFGs.
- Cannot use *, |, or parentheses.

$$S \rightarrow Ab$$
 $A \rightarrow Aa \mid \epsilon$

- The syntax for regular expressions does not carry over to CFGs.
- Cannot use *, |, or parentheses.

$$S \rightarrow a(b|c*)$$

- The syntax for regular expressions does not carry over to CFGs.
- Cannot use *, |, or parentheses.

$$S \rightarrow aX$$

 $X \rightarrow (b \mid c*)$

- The syntax for regular expressions does not carry over to CFGs.
- Cannot use *, |, or parentheses.

$$S \rightarrow aX$$

 $X \rightarrow b \mid c*$

- The syntax for regular expressions does not carry over to CFGs.
- Cannot use *, |, or parentheses.

$$S \rightarrow aX$$

 $X \rightarrow b \mid C$

- The syntax for regular expressions does not carry over to CFGs.
- Cannot use *, |, or parentheses.

$$\begin{array}{ccc|c} S & \rightarrow aX \\ X & \rightarrow b & C \\ C & \rightarrow Cc & \epsilon \end{array}$$

Context-Free Grammars

Context-Free Grammars

- Developed by Noam Chomsky in the mid-1950s
- Language generators, meant to describe the syntax of natural languages
- Define the class of context-free languages
- Programming languages are contained in the class of CFL's.

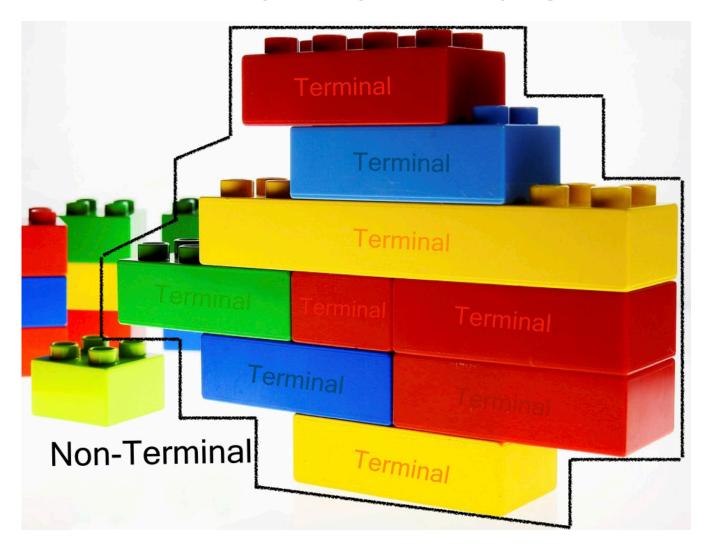
Elements of Syntax

- An alphabet of symbols
- Symbols are terminal and non-terminal
 - Terminals cannot be broken down
 - Non-terminals can be broken down further
- Grammar rules that express how symbols are combined to make legal sentences
- Rules are of the general form

non-terminal -> list of zero or more terminals or non-terminals

One uses rules to recognize (parse) or generate legal sentences

Additional Notes on Terminals and NonTerminals



Backus-Naur Form (BNF)

- A notation to describe the syntax of programming languages.
- Named after
 - John Backus Algol 58
 - Peter Naur Algol 60
- A metalanguage is a language used to describe another language.
- BNF is a metalanguage used to describe PLs.

BNF uses abstractions for syntactic structures.

```
<LHS> → <RHS>
```

- LHS: abstraction being defined
- RHS: definition
- "→" means "can have the form"
- Sometimes ::= is used for →

- Example, Java assignment statement can be represented by the abstraction <assign>
- <assign> → <var> = <expression>
- This is a rule or production
- Here, <var> and <expression> must also be defined.
- example instances of this abstraction can be total = sub1 + sub2
 myVar = 4

- These abstractions are called Variables or Nonterminals of a Grammar.
- Lexemes and tokens are the Terminals of a grammar.
- Nonterminals are often enclosed in angle brackets
- Examples of BNF rules:

```
<ident_list> → identifier | identifier, <ident_list>
<if_stmt> → if <logic_expr> then <stmt>
```

A formal definition of rule:

A *rule* has a left-hand side (LHS), which is a nonterminal, and a right-hand side (RHS), which is a string of terminals and/or nonterminals

• Grammar: a finite non-empty set of rules

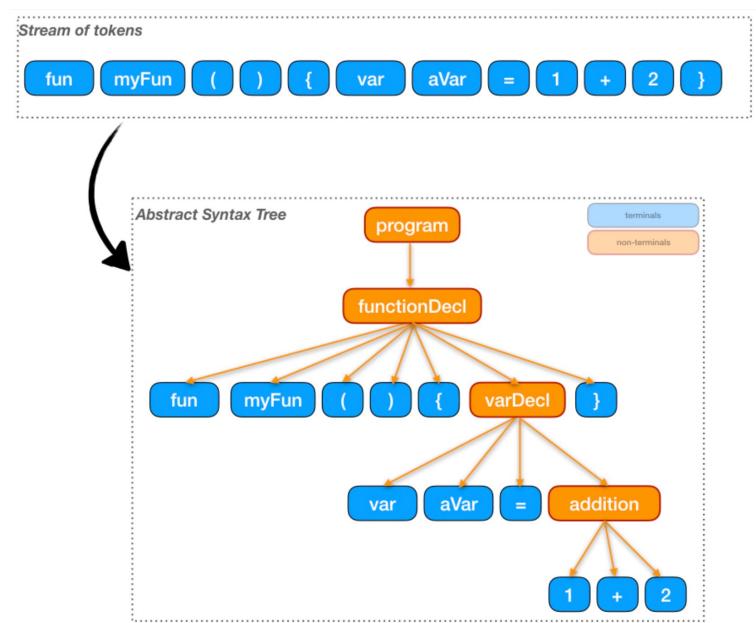
Terminals

- Let's see some typical terminals:
 - identifiers: these are the names used for variables, classes, functions, methods and so on.
 - keywords: almost every language uses
 keywords. They are exact strings that are used to
 indicate the start of a definition (think about class
 in Java or def in Python), a modifier (public,
 private, static, final, etc.) or control flow structures
 (while, for, until, etc.)

Terminals

- literals: these permit to define values in our languages. We can have string literals, numeric literal, char literals, boolean literals (but we could consider them keywords as well), array literals, map literals, and more, depending on the language
- separators and delimiters: like colons, semicolons, commas, parenthesis, brackets, braces
- whitespaces: spaces, tabs, newlines.
- comments

Terminals and Non-terminals



Non-terminals

- Examples of non-terminals are:
 - program/document: represent the entire file
 - module/classes: group several declarations togethers
 - functions/methods: group statements together
 - statements: these are the single instructions.
 Some of them can contain other statements.
 Example: loops
 - expressions: are typically used within statements and can be composed in various ways

Examples

An initial example

Consider the sentence "Mary greets John"

A simple grammar
 <sentence> ::= <subject>ct>ct

<verb> ::= greets

<object> ::= John

Alternations

Multiple definitions can be separated by | (OR).

```
<object> ::= John | Alfred
```

This adds "Mary greets Alfred" to legal sentences

```
<subject> ::= Mary | John | Alfred 
<object> ::= Mary | John | Alfred
```

Alternation to the previous grammar

```
<sentence> ::= <subject><predicate>
<subject> ::= <noun>
<predicate> ::= <verb><object>
<verb> ::= greets
<object> ::= <noun>
<noun> ::= Mary | John | Alfred
```

Infinite Number of Sentences

```
<object> ::= John |
           John again |
           John again and again |
Instead use recursive definition
<object> ::= John |
           John <repeat factor>
<repeat factor> ::= again
                  again and <repeat factor>
A rule is recursive if its LHS appears in its RHS
```

Identifiers

PASCAL/Ada If Statement

```
\label{eq:continuity} $$ < if_stmt> \to if < logic_expr> then < stmt> \\ < if_stmt> \to if < logic_expr> then < stmt> else < stmt> \\
```

Or

```
 \begin{array}{l} <\!\!\! \text{if\_stmt}\!\!> \to if <\!\!\!\! \text{logic\_expr}\!\!> then <\!\!\!\! \text{stmt}\!\!> \\ | if <\!\!\!\!\! \text{logic\_expr}\!\!> then <\!\!\!\!\! \text{stmt}\!\!> else <\!\!\!\!\! \text{stmt}\!\!> \\ \end{array}
```

Another example

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

E \rightarrow E \ Op \ E \Rightarrow E \ Op \ E

E \rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow E \ Op \ int

E \rightarrow E \ Op \ E

E \rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow E \ Op \ int

E \rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow E \ Op \ int

E \rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow E \ Op \ int

E \rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow E \ Op \ int

E \rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow int \ Op \ int

E \rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow E \ Op \ int

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E \rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow int \ Op \ int

E \rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow int \ Op \ int

E \rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow int \ Op \ int

E \rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow int \ Op \ int
```

Arithmetic Expressions

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

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.

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

A Notational Shorthand

```
E → int
E \rightarrow E Op E
\mathsf{E} \to (\mathsf{E})
Op → +
Op → -
Op \rightarrow *
Op → /
```

A Notational Shorthand

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

Derivations

```
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)
```

⇒ int * (int + int)

- This sequence of steps is called a derivation.
- A string $\alpha A \omega$ yields string $\alpha \gamma \omega$ iff $A \rightarrow \gamma$ is a production.
- . If α yields β , we write $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$.
- We say that *a* derives *B* iff there is a sequence of strings where

$$\boldsymbol{a} \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{a}_1 \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{a}_2 \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

• If α derives β , we write $\alpha \Rightarrow^* \beta$.

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

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

Grammars and Derivations

- A grammar is a generative device for defining languages
- The sentences of the language are generated through a sequence of applications of the rules, starting from the special nonterminal called start symbol.
- Such a generation is called a derivation.
- Start symbol represents a complete program. So it is usually named as program>.

An Example Grammar

```
→ begin <stmt list> end
<stmt list> → <stmt> |
            <stmt> ; <stmt list>
<stmt> → <var> := <expression>
\langle var \rangle \rightarrow A | B | C
<expression>→ <var> |
               <var> <arith op> <var>
<arith op> → + | - | * | /
```

Derivation

- In order to check if a given string represents a valid program in the language, we try to derive it in the grammar.
- At each step we replace a nonterminal with its definition (RHS of the rule).

Derivations

- Every string of symbols in a derivation is a sentential form
- A sentence is a sentential form that has only terminal symbols
- A leftmost derivation is one in which the leftmost nonterminal in each sentential form is the one that is expanded
- A derivation may be neither leftmost nor rightmost

Leftmost 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.

An Example Derivation

program> ⇒ begin <stmt list> end

Leftmost derivation

- ⇒ begin <stmt> ; <stmt_list> end
- ⇒ begin <var> := <expression>; <stmt_list> end

Rightmost derivation

- ⇒ begin <stmt> ; <stmt_list> end
- ⇒ begin <stmt>; <stmt> end

```
Derive string:
                          <stmt list> → <stmt> | <stmt> ; <stmt list>
begin A := B; C := A * B end
                          <stmt> → <var> := <expression>
                          <expression>→ <var> | <var> <arith op> <var>
                         <arith_op> → + | - | * | /
              ⇒ begin <u><stmt_list></u>end
program>
              ⇒ begin <stmt>; <stmt_list> end
              ⇒ begin <var> := <expression>; <stmt_list> end
              ⇒ begin A := <expression>; <stmt_list> end
              ⇒ begin A := B; <stmt_list> end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; <stmt> end
              ⇒ begin A := B; <var> := <expression> end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := <expression> end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := \langle var \rangle \langle arith_op \rangle \langle var \rangle end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A <arith_op> <var> end
              \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * <var> end
```

If always the leftmost nonterminal is replaced, then it is called leftmost derivation.

 \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * B end

```
Derive string:
                           <stmt list> → <stmt> | <stmt> ; <stmt list>
begin A := B; C := A * B end
                           <stmt> → <var> := <expression>
                           <expression>→ <var> | <var> <arith op> <var>
                           <arith_op> → + | - | * | /
              ⇒ begin <u><stmt_list></u> end
program>
              ⇒ begin <stmt> ; <stmt_list> end
               ⇒ begin <stmt> ; <stmt> end
               ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <expression> end
               ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <var><arith_op><var> end
               ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <var> <arith_op> B end
               ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <var> * B end
               \Rightarrow begin <stmt>; <var> := A * B end
              \Rightarrow begin <stmt>; C := A * B end
               ⇒ begin <var> := <expression>; C := A * B end
               \Rightarrow begin <var> := <var>; C := A * B end
               \Rightarrow begin \langle var \rangle := B ; C := A * B end
```

If always the rightmost nonterminal is replaced, then it is called rightmost derivation.

 \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * B end

```
Derive string:
                                            <stmt list> → <stmt> | <stmt> ; <stmt list>
begin A := B; C := A * B end
                                            <stmt>
                                                            → <var> := <expression>
                                            <var>
                                                            \rightarrow A | B | C
                                            <expression>→ <var> | <var> <arith op> <var>
                                                                      + | - | * | /
                                           <arith op> →
                         \Rightarrow begin <stmt list> end
  cprogram>
                         ⇒ begin <stmt>; <stmt list> end
                         ⇒ begin <var> := <expression>; <stmt_list> end
                         ⇒ begin A := <expression>; <stmt_list> end
                                                                                         Leftmost derivation
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; <stmt_list> end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; <stmt> end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; <var> := <expression> end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := <expression> end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := \langle var \rangle \langle arith_op \rangle \langle var \rangle end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A <arith_op> <var> end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * <var> end
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * B end
                         ⇒ begin <u><stmt list></u> end
  cprogram>
                         ⇒ begin <stmt> ; <stmt_list> end
                         ⇒ begin <stmt>; <stmt> end
                         ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <expression> end
                                                                                         Rightmost derivation
                         ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <var> <arith_op> <var> end
                         ⇒ begin <stmt>; <var> := <var> <arith_op> B end
                         \Rightarrow begin <stmt>; <var> := <var> * B end
                         \Rightarrow begin <stmt>; <var> := A * B end
                         \Rightarrow begin \langlestmt\rangle; C := A * B end
                         \Rightarrow begin <var> := <expression>; C := A * B end
                         \Rightarrow begin \langle var \rangle := \langle var \rangle; C := A * B end
                         \Rightarrow begin \langle var \rangle := B ; C := A * B end
                                                                                                          65
                         \Rightarrow begin A := B; C := A * B end
```

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

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

Derivations Revisited

- A derivation encodes two pieces of information:
 - What productions were applied produce the resulting string from the start symbol?
 - In what order were they applied?
- Multiple derivations might use the same productions, but apply them in a different order.

A hierarchical Parse Tree

representation of a derivation

cprogram> begin A := B; C := A * B end <stmt list> begin end <stmt> <stmt list> := <expression> <stmt> <var> := <expression> <var> <var> <var><arith_op> <var> 68 В

Arithmetic expressions revisited

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

E

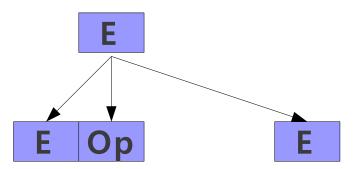


Ε

Ε

E⇒ **E O p E**

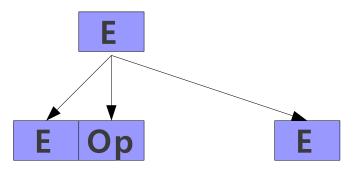




```
E

⇒ E Op E

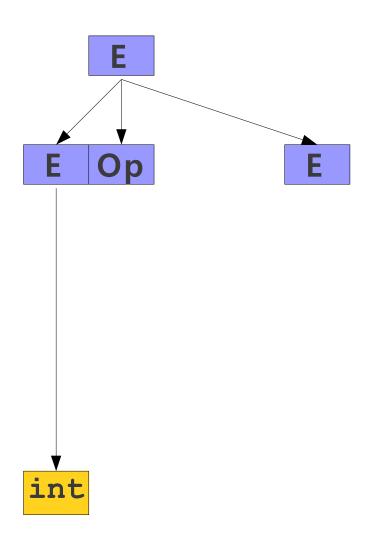
⇒ int Op E
```



```
E

⇒ E Op E

⇒ int Op E
```

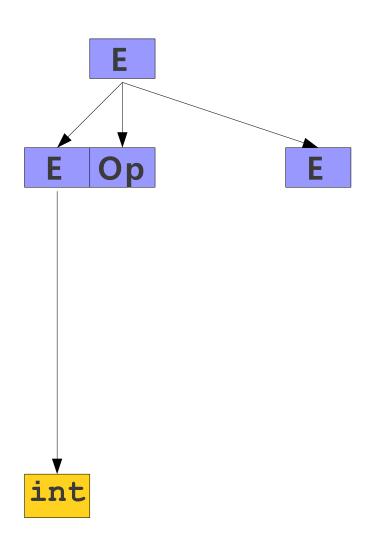


```
E

⇒ E Op E

⇒ int Op E

⇒ int * E
```

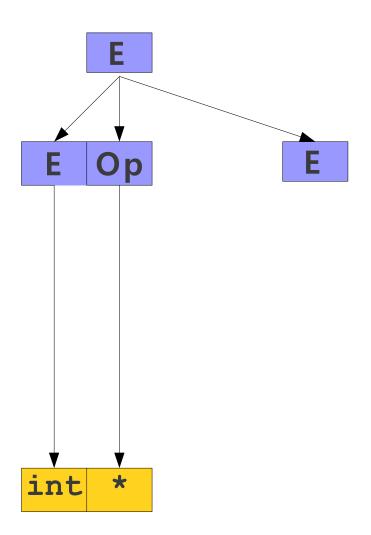


```
E

⇒ E Op E

⇒ int Op E

⇒ int * E
```



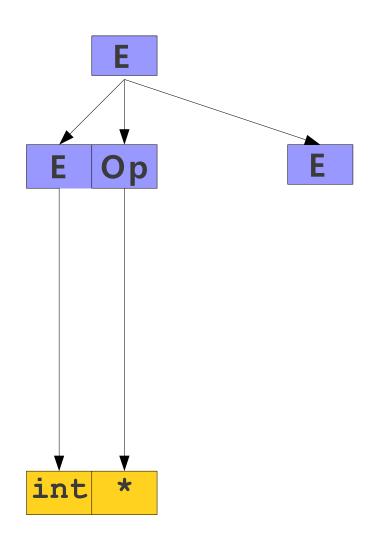
```
E

⇒ E Op E

⇒ int Op E

⇒ int * E

⇒ int * (E)
```



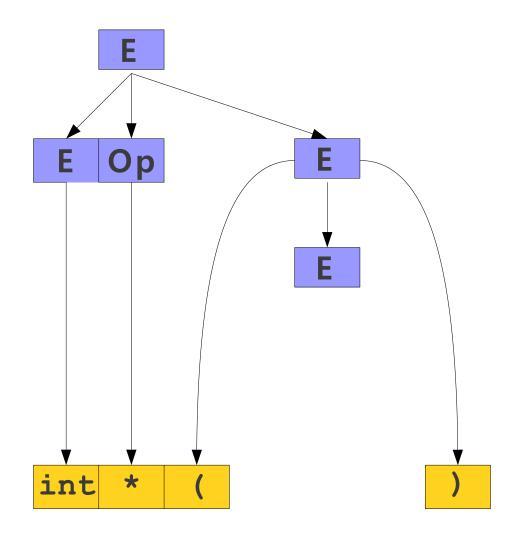
```
E

⇒ E Op E

⇒ int Op E

⇒ int * E

⇒ int * (E)
```



```
E

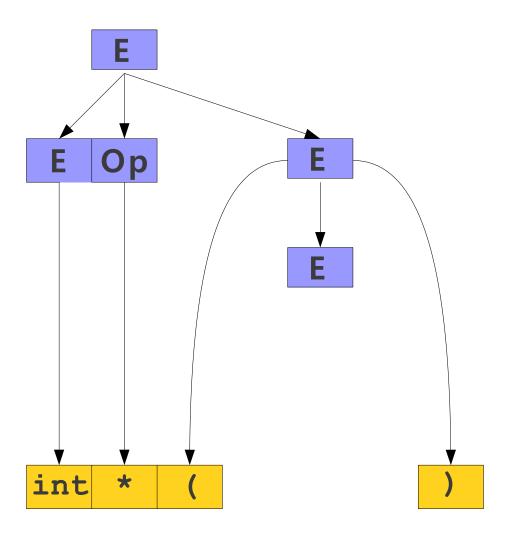
⇒ E Op E

⇒ int Op E

⇒ int * E

⇒ int * (E)

⇒ int * (E Op E)
```



```
E

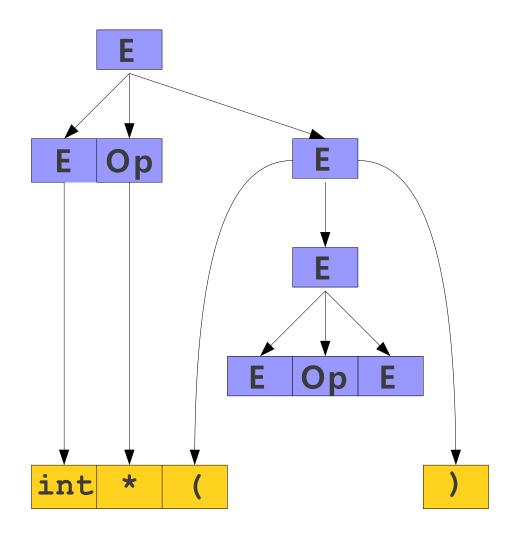
⇒ E Op E

⇒ int Op E

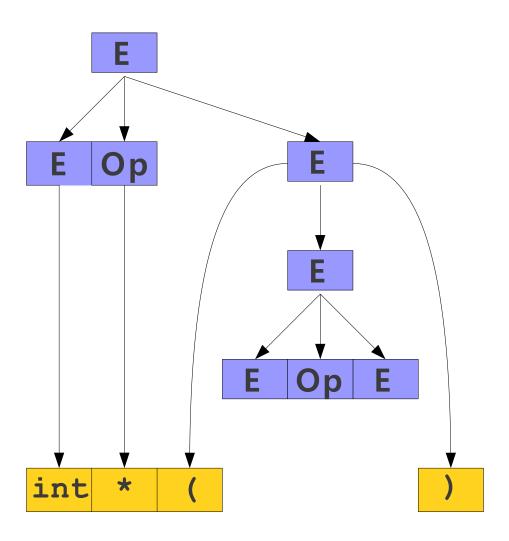
⇒ int * E

⇒ int * (E)

⇒ int * (E Op E)
```



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



```
E

⇒ E Op E

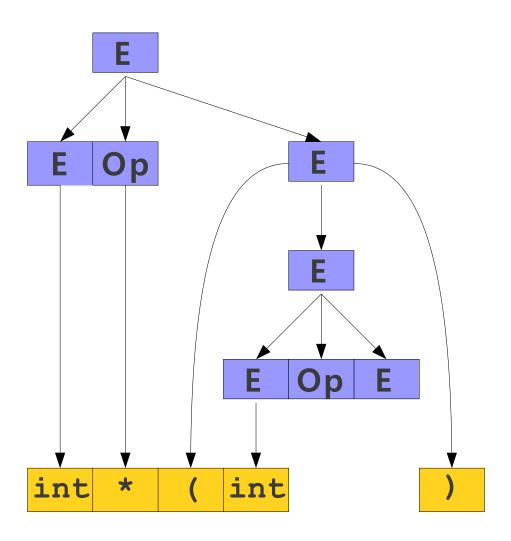
⇒ int Op E

⇒ int * E

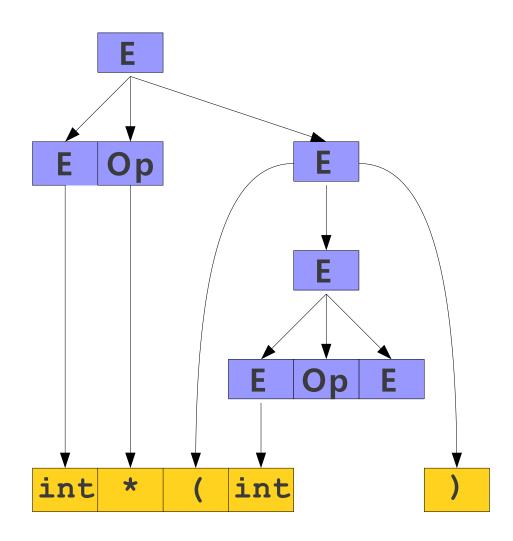
⇒ int * (E)

⇒ int * (E Op E)

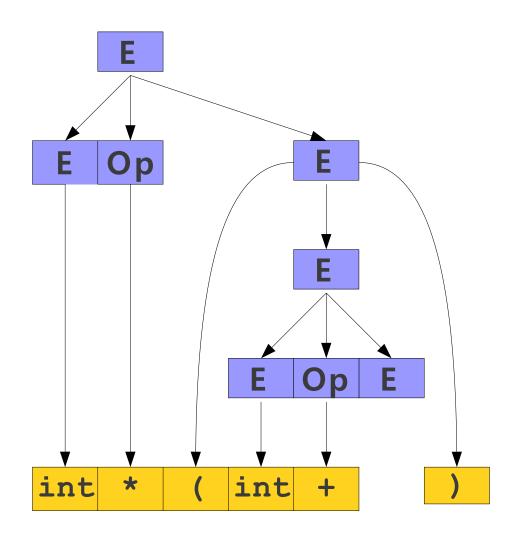
⇒ int * (int Op E)
```



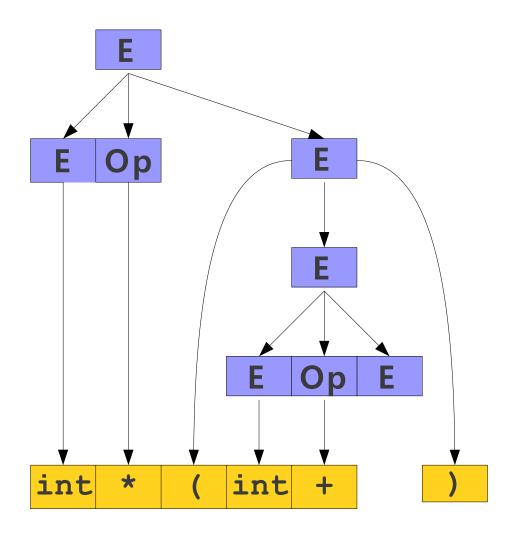
```
E
⇒ E Op E
\Rightarrow int Op E
⇒ int * E
\Rightarrow int * (E)
\Rightarrow int * (E Op E)
⇒int * (int Op E)
\Rightarrow int * (int + E)
```



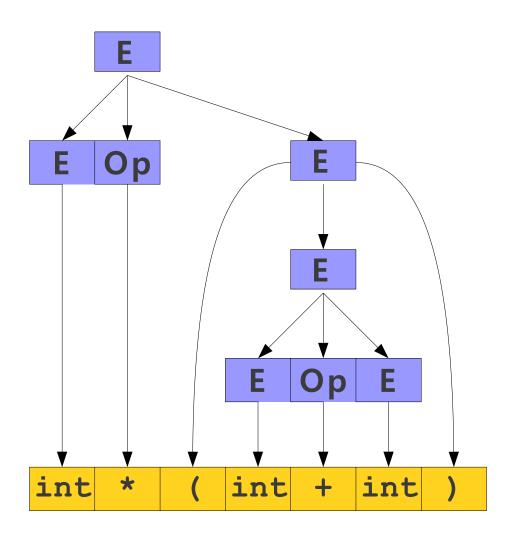
```
E
⇒ E Op E
\Rightarrow int Op E
⇒ int * E
\Rightarrow int * (E)
⇒ int * (E Op E)
⇒int * (int Op E)
\Rightarrow int * (int + E)
```



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



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



Е

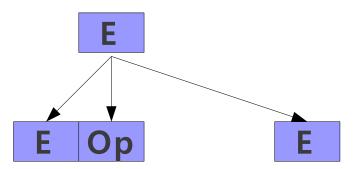


Ε

Ε

E⇒ **E O p E**

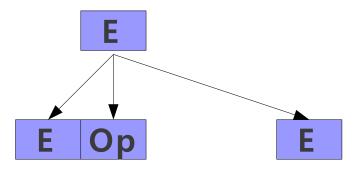




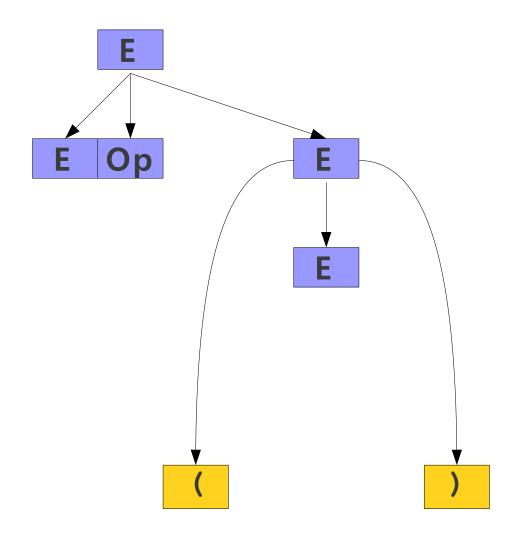
```
E

⇒ E Op E

⇒ E Op (E)
```



```
E ⇒ E Op E ⇒ E Op (E)
```

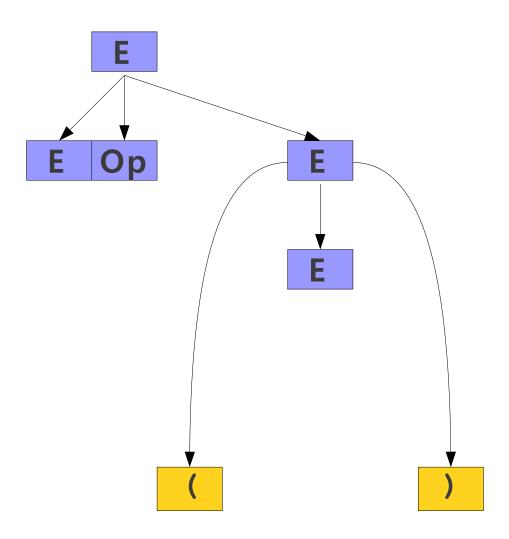


```
E

⇒ E Op E

⇒ E Op (E)

⇒ E Op (E Op E)
```

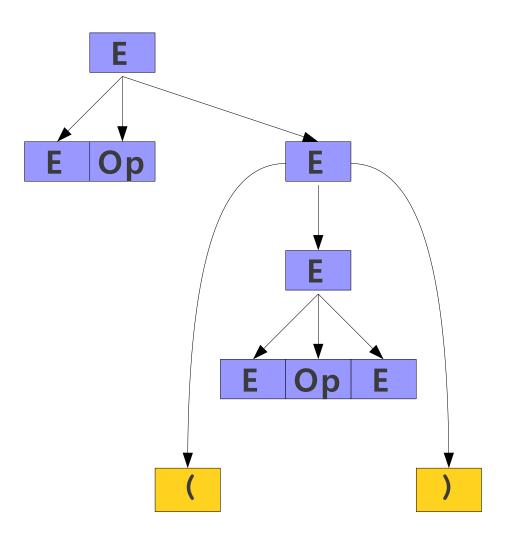


```
E

⇒ E Op E

⇒ E Op (E)

⇒ E Op (E Op E)
```



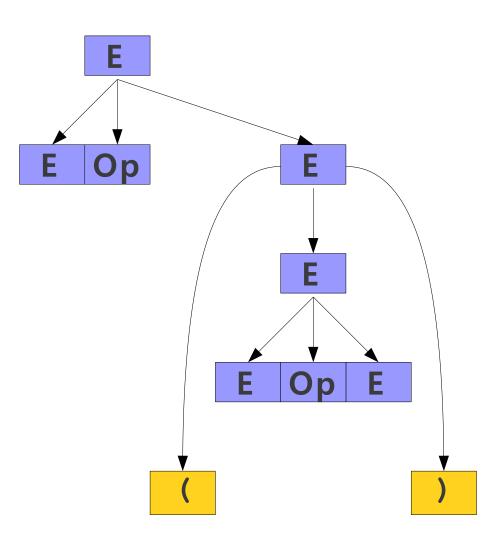
```
E

⇒ E Op E

⇒ E Op (E)

⇒ E Op (E Op E)

⇒ E Op (E Op int)
```



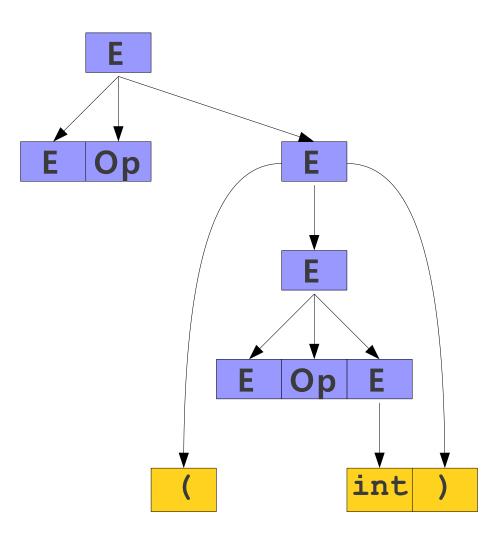
```
E

⇒ E Op E

⇒ E Op (E)

⇒ E Op (E Op E)

⇒ E Op (E Op int)
```



```
E

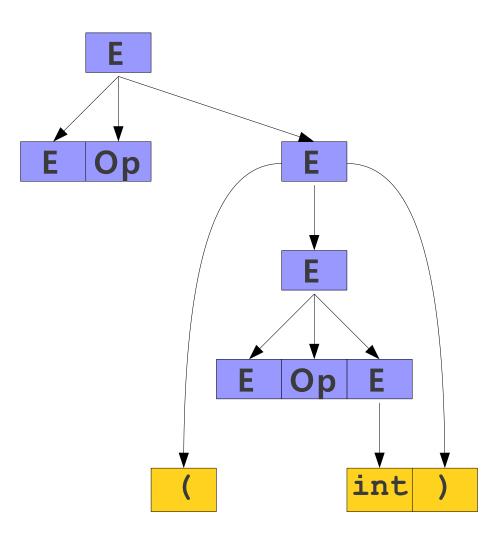
⇒ E Op E

⇒ E Op (E)

⇒ E Op (E Op E)

⇒ E Op (E Op int)

⇒ E Op (E + int)
```



```
E

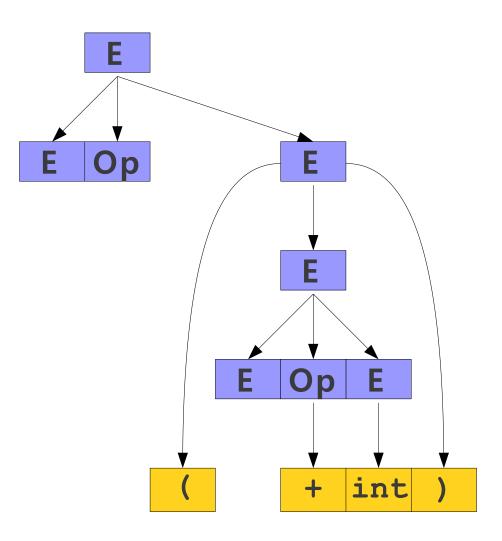
⇒ E Op E

⇒ E Op (E)

⇒ E Op (E Op E)

⇒ E Op (E Op int)

⇒ E Op (E + int)
```



```
E

⇒ E Op E

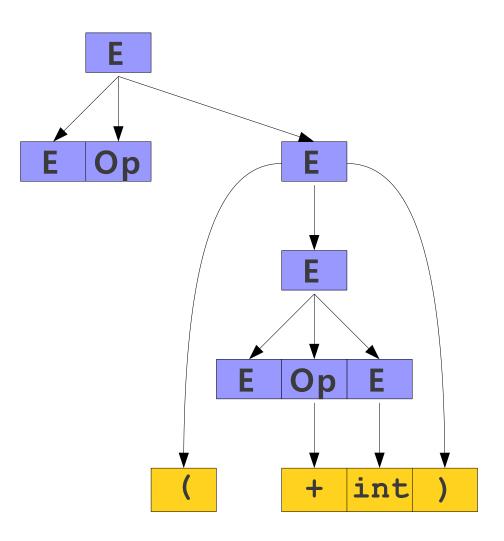
⇒ E Op (E)

⇒ E Op (E Op E)

⇒ E Op (E Op int)

⇒ E Op (E + int)

⇒ E Op (int + int)
```



```
E

⇒ E Op E

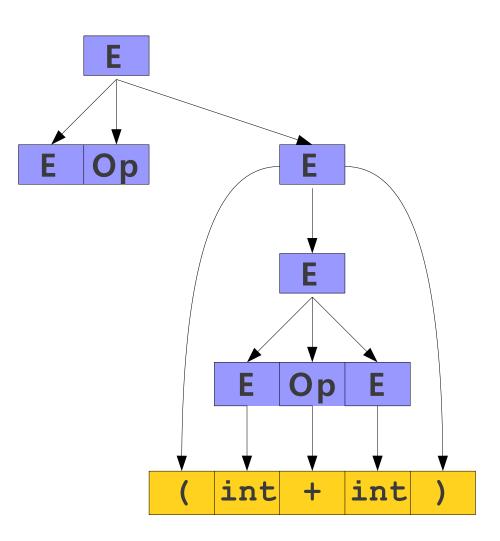
⇒ E Op (E)

⇒ E Op (E Op E)

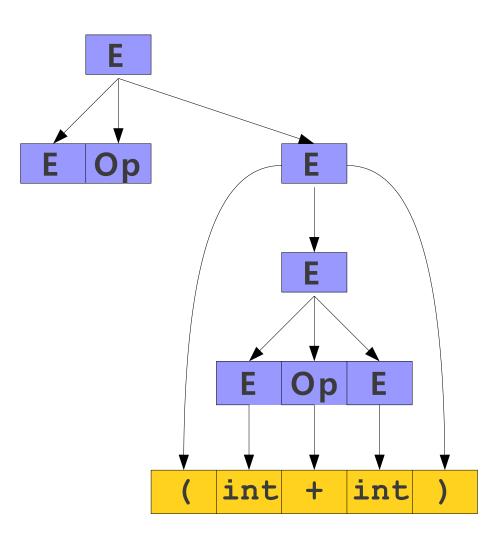
⇒ E Op (E Op int)

⇒ E Op (E + int)

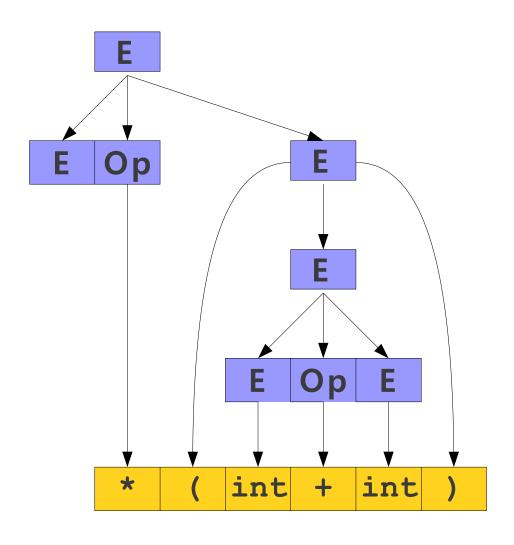
⇒ E Op (int + int)
```



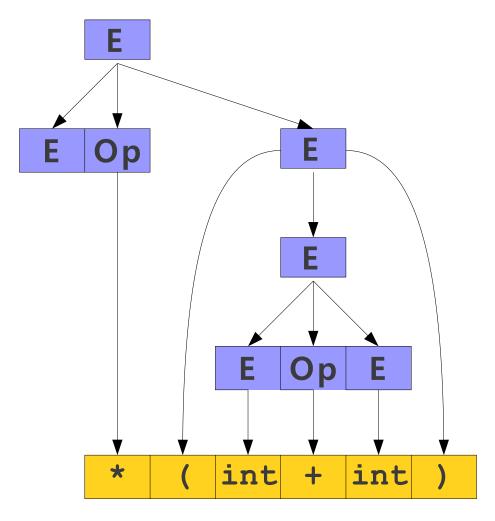
```
⇒ E Op E
\Rightarrow E Op (E)
\Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)
⇒ E Op (E Op int)
\Rightarrow E Op (E + int)
\Rightarrow E Op (int +int)
\Rightarrow E * (int + int)
```



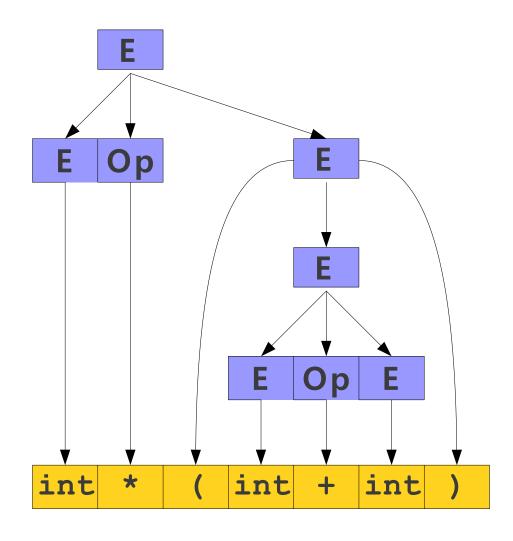
```
⇒ E Op E
\Rightarrow E Op (E)
\Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)
⇒ E Op (E Op int)
\Rightarrow E Op (E + int)
\Rightarrow E Op (int +int)
\Rightarrow E * (int + int)
```



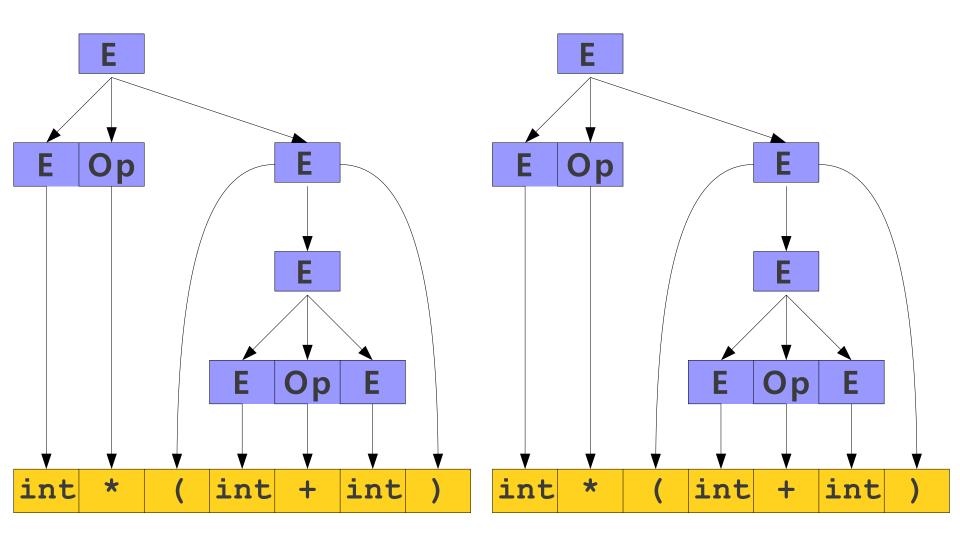
```
⇒ E Op E
\Rightarrow E Op (E)
\Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)
⇒ E Op (E Op int)
\Rightarrow E Op (E + int)
\Rightarrow E Op (int +int)
\Rightarrow E * (int + int)
\Rightarrow int * (int + int)
```



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



For Comparison



- A parse tree is a tree encoding the steps in a derivation.
- Internal nodes represent nonterminal symbols used in the production.
- Inorder walk of the leaves contains the generated string.
- Encodes what productions are used, not the order in which those productions are applied.

The Goal of Parsing

- Goal of syntax analysis: Recover the structure described by a series of tokens.
- If language is described as a CFG, goal is to recover a parse tree for the the input string.
 - Usually we do some simplifications on the tree; more on that later.
- We'll discuss how to do this next week.

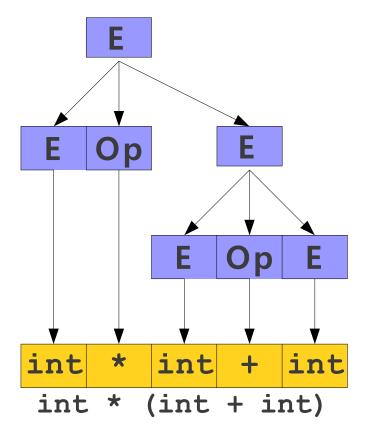
Exercise Simple example for PLs

```
<expr> ::= <expr> <operator> <expr> | <var>
< operator > ::= + | - | * | /
<var> ::= a | b | c | ...
<var> ::= <signed number>
<signed number> ::= + <number> | - <number>
<number> ::= <number> <digit> | <digit>
```

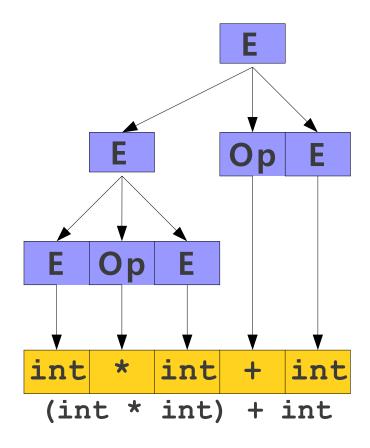
Ambiguity (Belirsizlik) in Grammars

 A grammar is ambiguous if and only if it generates a sentential form that has two or more distinct parse trees

A Serious Problem

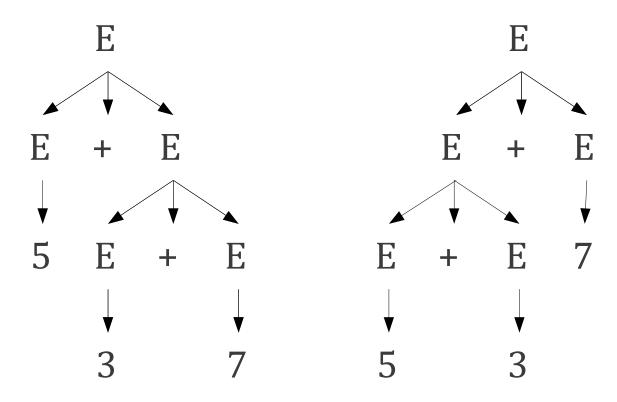


$$E \rightarrow int \mid E \mid Op \mid E \mid (E)$$
 $Op \rightarrow + \mid - \mid * \mid /$



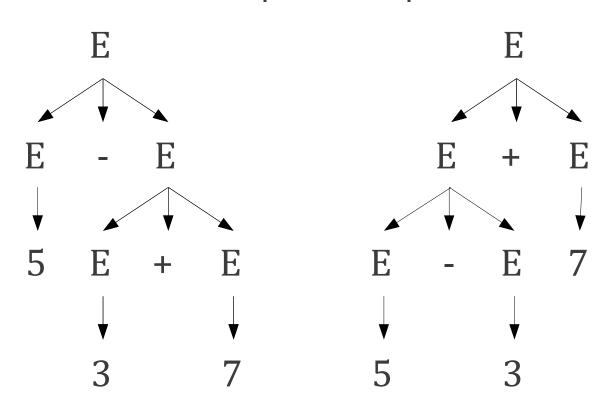
$$E \rightarrow int \mid E + E$$

$$E \rightarrow int \mid E + E$$



$$E \rightarrow int \mid E + E \mid E - E$$

$$E \rightarrow int \mid E + E \mid E - E$$

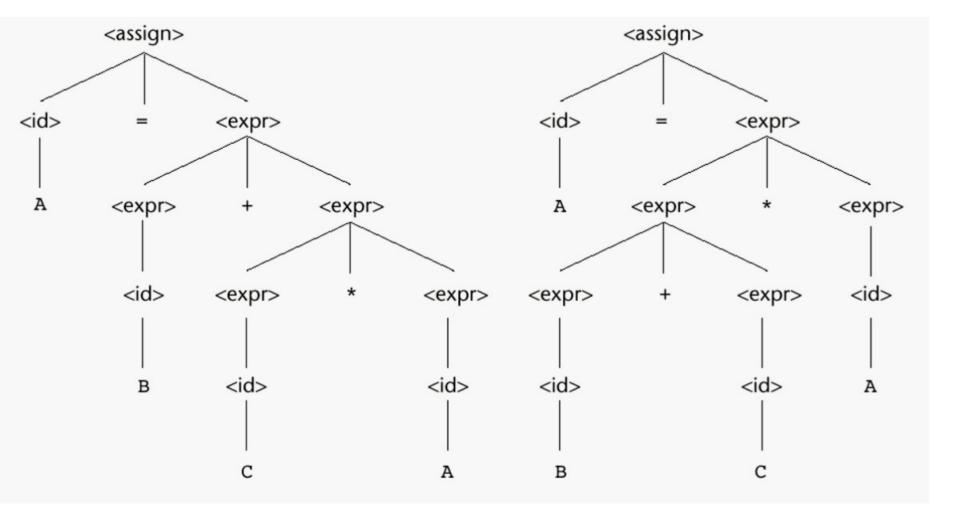


Example

Given the following grammar

Parse Tree(s) for A = B + C * A

Two Parse Trees for A = B + C * A

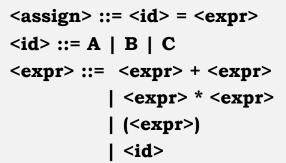


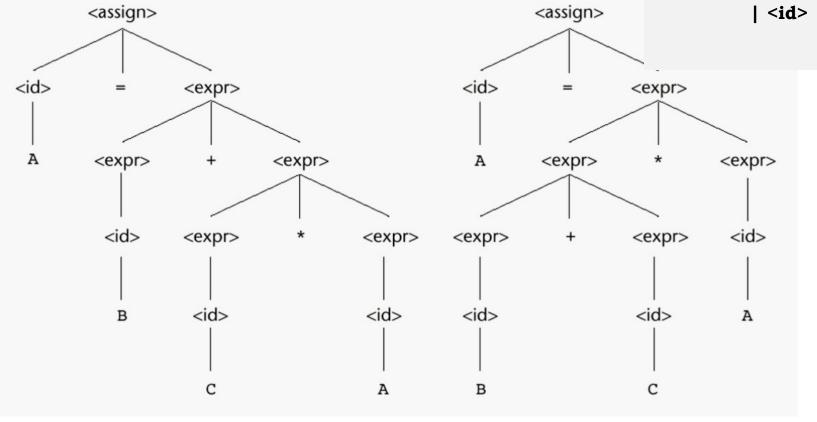
Two Leftmost derivations for A = B + C * A

```
=> A = <expr>
           => A = <<u>expr></u> + <<u>expr></u>
           => A = <id> + <expr>
           => A = B + < expr>
           => A = B + <expr>* <expr>
           => A = B + <id>* <expr>
           => A = B + C * < expr>
           => A = B + C * < id>
           => A = B + C * A
<assign> => <<u>id></u> = <expr>
           => A = <expr>
           => A = <expr> * <expr>
           => A = <<u>expr></u> + <expr> * <expr>
           => A = <<u>id></u> + <expr> * <expr>
           => A = B + <<u>expr></u>* <<u>expr></u>
           => A = B + <id>* <expr>
           => A = B + C * < expr>
           => A = B + C * < id>
           => A = B + C * A
```

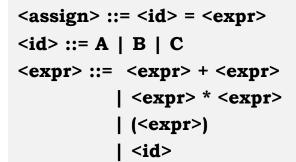
<assign> => <id> = <expr>

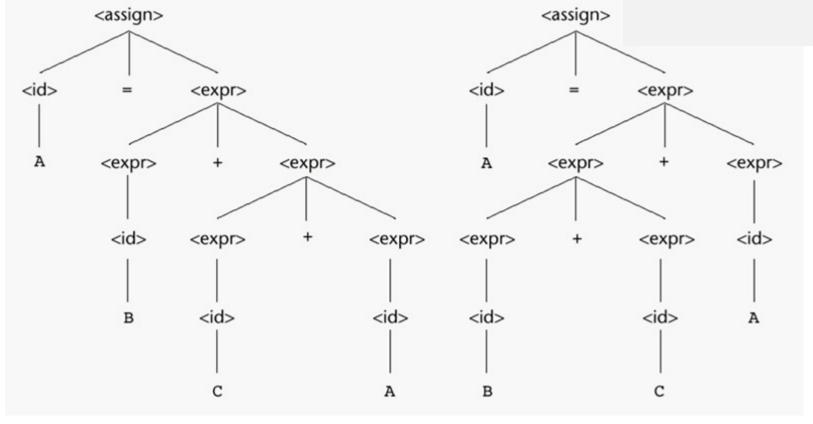
Two Rightmost derivations for A = B + C * A





$$[3+4]*5$$





$$3 + [4 + 5]$$

$$[3+4]+5$$

Single leftmost derivation for A = B + C

There is also a single rightmost derivation

And a single parse tree for A = B + C

Finding at least one string with more than a single parse tree (or more than a single leftmost derivation Or more than a single rightmost derivation) is sufficient to prove ambiguity of a grammar

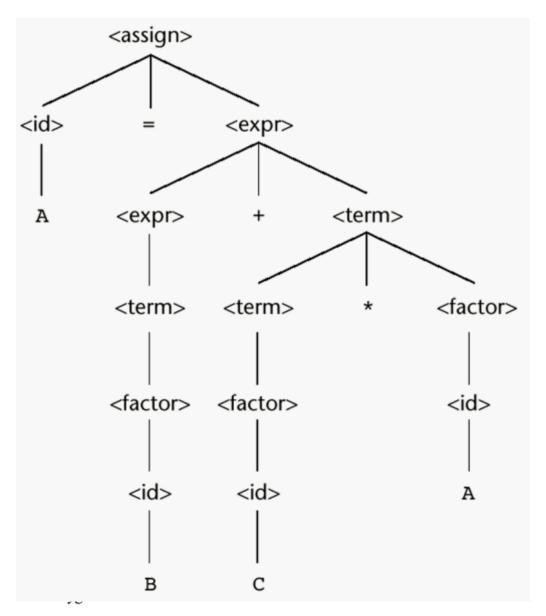
Handling Ambiguity

- The grammar of a PL must not be ambiguous
- There are solutions for correcting the ambiguity
 - Operator precedence
 - Associativity rules

Operator Precedence

- In mathematics * operation has a higher precedence than +
- This can be implemented with extra nonterminals

Unique Parse Tree for A = B + C * A



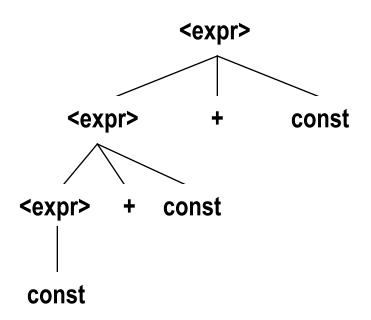
Associativity of Operators

- What about equal precedence operators?
- In math addition and multiplication are associative
 A+B+C = (A+B)+C = A+(B+C)
- However computer arithmetic may not be associative
- Ex: for floating point addition where floating points values store 7 digits of accuracy, adding eleven numbers together where one of the numbers is 10⁷ and the others are 1 result would be 1.000001 * 10⁷ only if the ten 1s are added first
- Subtraction and division are not associative
 A/B/C/D = ? ((A/B)/C)/D ≠A/(B/(C/D))

Associativity of Operators

Operator associativity can also be indicated by a grammar

```
<expr> -> <expr> + <expr> | const (ambiguous)
<expr> -> <expr> + const | const (unambiguous)
```



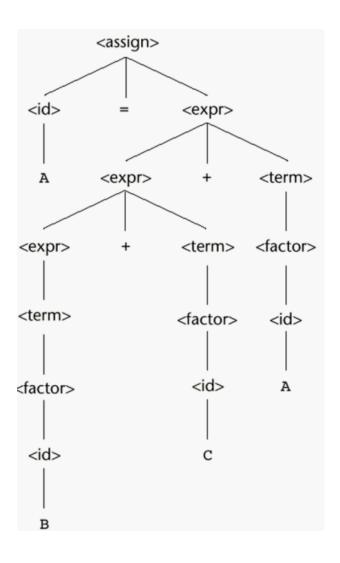
Associativity

- In a BNF rule, if the LHS appears at the beginning of the RHS, the rule is said to be left recursive
- Left recursion specifies left associativity

```
<expr> ::= <expr> + <term> | <term>
```

- Similar for the right recursion
- In most of the languages exponential is defined as a right associative operation

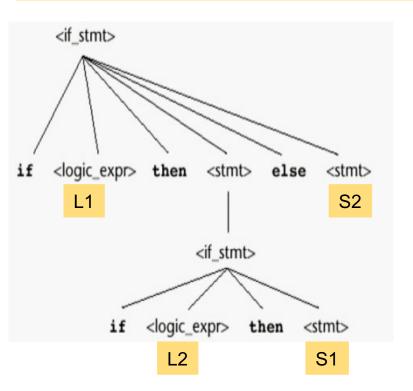
A parse tree for A = B + C + A illustrating the associativity of addition

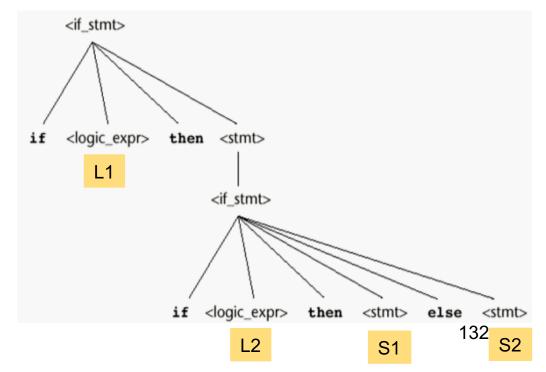


Left associativity
Left addition is lower than the right addition

Is this ambiguous?

Derive for: If L1 then if L2 then S1 else S2





An Unambiguous grammar for "if then else"

- Dangling else problem: there are more if then else
- To design an unambiguous if-then-else statement we have to decide which if a dangling else belongs to
- Most PL adopt the following rule:
 - "an else is matched with the closest previous unmatched if statement"
 - (unmatched if = else-less if)

Has a unique parse tree

Draw the parse tree

If L1 then if L2 then S1 else S2

