

# Implementation of the Cmajor Compiler

Seppo Laakko

June 4, 2016

# Contents

<b>Contents</b>	<b>i</b>
<b>1 Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Cmajor Programming Language and Cmajor Compilers . . . . .	1
1.2 Phases of Compilation . . . . .	1
1.3 Front-end and Back-end of a Compiler . . . . .	4
1.4 Structure of This Document . . . . .	4
<b>2 Lexical Analysis</b>	<b>5</b>
2.1 A Bit of Language Theory . . . . .	5
2.1.1 Alphabets . . . . .	5
2.1.2 Strings . . . . .	5
2.1.2.1 Powers of an Alphabet . . . . .	5
2.1.3 Languages . . . . .	6
2.1.4 Regular Expressions . . . . .	6
2.2 Tools for Lexical Analysis . . . . .	8
2.3 Lexical Analysis in Cmajor . . . . .	9
2.3.1 Introduction to Cmajor Parser Generator . . . . .	9
2.3.2 Tokens in Cmajor . . . . .	10
2.3.2.1 Skipping Whitespace and Comments . . . . .	10
2.3.2.2 Identifiers and Keywords . . . . .	10
2.3.2.3 Literals . . . . .	11
<b>3 Syntax Analysis</b>	<b>14</b>
3.1 Example . . . . .	14
3.2 Definition of Context-Free Grammars . . . . .	15
3.2.1 Derivations Using a Grammar . . . . .	15
3.2.2 Parse Trees for a Grammar . . . . .	16
3.2.3 Compact Notation for Grammars . . . . .	16
3.3 Syntax-Directed Translation . . . . .	18
3.4 Parsing . . . . .	20
3.4.1 Recursive Descent Parsing . . . . .	20
3.4.2 Left Recursion . . . . .	21
3.5 Extending the Grammar Notation . . . . .	21
3.6 Parsing in Cmajor . . . . .	22
3.6.1 Internal Representation of cmpg Grammar Definitions . . . . .	24

3.6.2	<code>cmpg</code> Language Grammar . . . . .	32
3.6.3	Informal Description of Operation of a Parser Generated Using <code>cmpg</code> . . . . .	33
3.6.4	Parsing Algorithm . . . . .	33
3.6.5	Grammars for Cmajor Language Elements . . . . .	39
3.6.5.1	Basic Types . . . . .	39
3.6.5.2	Type Expressions . . . . .	40
3.6.5.3	Template Identifiers . . . . .	42
3.6.5.4	Expressions . . . . .	43
3.6.5.5	Statements . . . . .	47
3.6.6	Abstract Syntax Tree Class Hierarchy . . . . .	49
3.6.6.1	Node Classes for Basic Types . . . . .	49
3.6.6.2	Literal Node Classes . . . . .	49
3.6.6.3	Expression Node Classes . . . . .	50
3.6.6.4	Statement Node Classes . . . . .	51
3.6.6.5	Concept Node Classes . . . . .	52
3.6.6.6	Class and Function Node Classes . . . . .	53
3.6.6.7	Other Node Classes . . . . .	53
3.6.7	Example . . . . .	54
3.7	Iterating Through the Abstract Syntax Trees using Visitor Design Pattern . . . . .	55
3.7.1	Visitor Pattern Applied in Cmajor . . . . .	57
<b>4</b>	<b>Symbol Table</b> . . . . .	<b>59</b>
4.1	Symbol Table Structure . . . . .	59
4.1.1	Symbol Class Hierarchy . . . . .	59
4.1.2	Properties of Symbols . . . . .	60
4.1.2.1	Properties Common To All Symbols . . . . .	60
4.1.2.2	Properties of Container Symbols . . . . .	60
4.1.3	Symbol Name Lookup . . . . .	61
4.1.3.1	Unqualified Name Lookup . . . . .	61
4.1.3.2	Qualified Name Lookup . . . . .	61
4.1.4	Opening and Closing Container Symbols . . . . .	62
4.1.4.1	Opening a Namespace . . . . .	62
4.1.4.2	Creating a Namespace . . . . .	63
4.1.5	Adding Symbols to Containers . . . . .	63
4.1.5.1	Function Groups . . . . .	64
4.1.5.2	Concept Groups . . . . .	65
4.2	Construction of the Global Symbol Table . . . . .	66
4.2.1	Insertion of Basic Types and Their Operations . . . . .	66
4.2.1.1	Operations for <b>bool</b> . . . . .	67
4.2.1.2	Operations for Integer Types . . . . .	67
4.2.1.3	Operations for Floating Point Types . . . . .	67
4.2.1.4	Operations for Character Types . . . . .	67
4.2.1.5	Standard Conversions . . . . .	68
4.2.2	Importing Symbol Tables of Referenced Libraries . . . . .	72
4.2.3	Creating Symbols for the Project Being Compiled . . . . .	73
4.3	Example . . . . .	76

<b>5</b>	<b>Type Repository</b>	<b>79</b>
5.1	Computing the Type Identifier for a Type Symbol . . . . .	79
5.1.1	Type Identifiers for Basic Type Symbols . . . . .	79
5.1.2	Type Identifiers for Class and Interface Type Symbols . . . . .	80
5.1.3	Type Identifiers for Class Template Specialization Symbols . . . . .	80
5.1.4	Type Identifiers for Delegate, Class Delegate and Enumerated Type Symbols . . . . .	80
5.1.5	Type Identifiers for Derived Type Symbols . . . . .	80
5.2	Adding Type Symbols to the Type Repository . . . . .	81
5.3	Getting a Type Symbol from the Type Repository . . . . .	81
5.4	Making Type Symbols . . . . .	82
<b>6</b>	<b>Binder</b>	<b>84</b>
6.1	Static Evaluator . . . . .	84
6.1.1	Evaluation Stack and Value Classes . . . . .	84
6.1.2	Operand Types and Value Types . . . . .	84
6.1.3	Evaluating Unary Expressions . . . . .	85
6.1.3.1	Unary Operator Functions . . . . .	85
6.1.3.2	Unary Expression Evaluation Algorithm . . . . .	85
6.1.4	Evaluating Binary Expressions . . . . .	86
6.1.4.1	Common Type . . . . .	86
6.1.4.2	Binary Operator Functions . . . . .	93
6.1.4.3	Binary Expression Evaluation Algorithm . . . . .	93
6.1.5	Evaluation of a Constant Expression . . . . .	94
6.2	Type Resolver . . . . .	97
<b>7</b>	<b>Emitter</b>	<b>98</b>
	<b>Bibliography</b>	<b>99</b>

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

This document describes the implementation of the Cmajor compiler front-end. We also inspect some excerpts of language theory and parsing theory as we go on to make the description of implementation hopefully more understandable.

### 1.1 Cmajor Programming Language and Cmajor Compilers

Cmajor is a hybrid programming language that combines C<sup>#</sup> like syntax with C++ like semantics. The original Cmajor compiler is written in C++. Now there is also a Cmajor compiler written in Cmajor that was created by manually converting the C++ version to Cmajor. However it still lacks some features that are present in the C++ version, so the principal version as of this writing remains to be the C++ version.

### 1.2 Phases of Compilation

In classical compiler text books the compilation consists in principle of the following phases:

1. In the lexical analysis phase a stream of characters of source code of a program is broken into lexical units called *lexemes* and an integer or enumerated value called a *token* is assigned to each lexeme.
2. In the syntax analysis phase the grammatical structure of tokens are analyzed, and *abstract syntax trees* are generated.
3. In the semantic analysis phase the syntax trees are traversed and the program is type-checked and verified that it consists of semantically meaningful elements.
4. In the intermediate code generation phase intermediate code for program elements are generated.
5. In the machine-independent code optimization phase intermediate code is processed and optimized using various passes.
6. In the code generation phase machine code is generated.
7. In the machine-dependent code optimization phase the machine code is optimized further and target machine code is generated.

The compiler collects information<sup>1</sup> about identifiers encountered in the program into a *symbol table* and consults the symbol table when information about an identifier is needed.

**Example 1.2.1.** Consider the following source code fragment:

```
1 x = 10 * x + (cast<int>(c) - cast<int>('0'));
```

We are now going to have a taste of what the input and output of each phase of the compilation looks like.

1. Lexical analysis. The lexical analyzer might produce the following lexemes for the code fragment above:

`x, =, 10, *, x, +, (, cast, <, int, >, (, c, ), -, cast, <, int, >, (, '0' ), )` and `;`.

If we represent punctuation and other symbolic lexemes with token values equal to themselves and other lexemes with upper case identifiers, the lexical analyzer may assign the following tokens to the lexemes that do not represent themselves:

- `x` : **ID** (identifier)
- `10` : **INTLIT** (integer literal)
- `cast` : **CAST** (reserved word)
- `int` : **INT** (reserved word)
- `c` : **ID** (identifier)
- `'0'` : **CHARLIT** (character literal)

2. Syntactic analysis. The syntax analyzer or *parser* receives the following token stream from the lexical analyzer or *lexer*:

`ID, =, INTLIT, *, ID, +, (, CAST, <, INT, >, (, ID, ), -, CAST, <, INT, >, (, CHARLIT, ), )` and `;`.

The result of phase 2 is an abstract syntax tree or *AST* that reveals the syntactic structure of the source code. Thus the parser may produce the following abstract syntax tree for the code fragment:

```
AssignmentStatementNode
  IdentifierNode(x)
  AddNode
    MulNode
      SByteLiteralNode(10)
      IdentifierNode(x)
    SubNode
      CastNode
        IntNode
        IdentifierNode(c)
      CastNode
        IntNode
        CharLiteralNode('0')
```

---

<sup>1</sup>type for example

3. Semantic analysis. The abstract syntax trees generated in phase 2 are traversed and the program is type-checked. Assuming that identifier `x` has been declared earlier to be a variable of type `int` and identifier `c` to be a variable of type `char`, the type-checker finds this information in the symbol table, when it walks the syntax tree.

When encountering the `MulNode` the type-checker checks whether it is legal to multiply an `sbyte` literal 10 by a variable `x` of type `int`. This is the case so it records that the result of this multiplication produces a value of type `int`.

When encountering the first `CastNode` it checks if it is legal to convert a variable `c` of type `char` to type `int`. Similarly for the second `CastNode`, the conversion of the character literal '0' to type `int` is checked. They are both legal so the `SubNode` produces a value of type `int`.

When encountering the `AddNode` two `int` values are added and the result is of type `int`.

Finally when encountering the `AssignmentStatementNode` the type-checker checks whether it is legal to assign a value of `int` to a variable `x` of type `int`. This is the case so the type-checking succeeds.

4. Intermediate code generation. The following intermediate code<sup>2</sup> may be produced from the abstract syntax tree and from information stored in the symbol table:

```
%1 = sext i8 10 to i32
%2 = load i32, i32* %x
%3 = mul i32 %1, %2
%4 = load i8, i8* %c
%5 = zext i8 %4 to i32
%6 = zext i8 48 to i32
%7 = sub i32 %5, %6
%8 = add i32 %3, %7
store i32 %8, i32* %x
```

Quick introduction to intermediate instructions:

- `%1`, `%2`, etc. represent intermediate results of computation. They may be regarded as registers. There are infinite number of them.
- `i8`, `i16` and `i32` are 8-bit, 16-bit and 32-bit integer types.
- `sext` instruction *sign extends* its operand to a target type.
- `load` instruction loads a value of a variable.
- `mul` instruction multiplies two values.
- `zext` instruction *zero extends* its operand to a target type.
- `sub` instruction subtracts a value from another.
- `add` instruction adds two values.
- `store` instruction stores a value to a variable.

---

<sup>2</sup>this is LLVM intermediate code [4]

5. Code optimization. The following optimized intermediate code may be generated from the intermediate code produced in phase 4:

```
%1 = load i32, i32* %x
%2 = mul i32 %1, 10
%3 = load i8, i8* %c
%4 = zext i8 %3 to i32
%5 = add i32 %2, -48
%6 = add i32 %5, %4
store i32 %6, i32* %x
```

6. Machine code generation. The following fragment of assembly code may be generated:

```
movl 8(%rsp), %eax
leal (%rax,%rax,4), %eax
movzbl 7(%rsp), %ecx
leal -48(%rcx,%rax,2), %eax
movl %eax, 8(%rsp)
```

### 1.3 Front-end and Back-end of a Compiler

The lexical, syntactic and semantic analysis phases and intermediate code generation phase form a *front-end* of a compiler. The optimization and target machine code generation phases form a *back-end* of a compiler.

By combining  $N$  programming language specific front-ends with  $M$  target machine architecture specific back-ends it is possible to create  $N$  times  $M$  compilers by writing only  $N$  plus  $M$  programs.

Intermediate code is the glue between the front and back ends of a compiler.

### 1.4 Structure of This Document

We begin by exploring the theory behind lexical analysis and continue with the practise of it in Cmajor compiler. Next we go through some parsing theory to enlighten the syntax analysis phase and inspect the implementation of Cmajor Parser Generator that is the parsing tool used in Cmajor compiler. Finally we take some examples of implementation of the Cmajor language parser.

In the rest of this document we go through the semantic analysis and intermediate code generation that are intertwined in the Cmajor compiler, and also go through other components of the compiler and other phases of compilation that do not fit so nicely to the theory but are essential in any way.



## Chapter 2

# Lexical Analysis

The first phase of compilation is to break the character stream into tokens that are passed along to the parser. Here a token is defined to be a name and an attribute value. For example, **INTLIT** with a value 10.

Typically these tokens are described as *patterns* that define the form that the lexemes of a token may take. Here a lexeme is the actual sequence of characters in an input stream that match that pattern. One way to describe those patterns is to use *regular expressions*.

### 2.1 A Bit of Language Theory

To describe regular expressions we take a small break and define a few fundamental concepts.

#### 2.1.1 Alphabets

An *alphabet* is a finite, nonempty set of symbols. Conventionally, we use the symbol  $\Sigma$  for an alphabet ([2] pg. 28).

Typical alphabets are:

- $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ , a binary alphabet.
- $\Sigma = \{a, \dots, z\}$ , the alphabet of lowercase latin letters.
- The set of ASCII characters.
- The set of Unicode characters.

#### 2.1.2 Strings

A *string* is a finite sequence of symbols chosen from some alphabet ([2] pg. 29). An *empty string* is the string of zero occurrences of symbols. It is denoted  $\epsilon$ .

##### 2.1.2.1 Powers of an Alphabet

If  $\Sigma$  is an alphabet, we define  $\Sigma^k$  to be the set of strings of length  $k$ , each of whose symbols is in  $\Sigma$  ([2] pg. 29).

Thus if  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ , the binary alphabet:

- $\Sigma^2 = \{00, 01, 10, 11\}$
- $\Sigma^3 = \{000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111\}$

The set of all strings over an alphabet is denoted  $\Sigma^*$ .

### 2.1.3 Languages

A set of strings all of which are chosen from some  $\Sigma^*$ , where  $\Sigma$  is a particular alphabet, is called a *language* ([2] pg. 30). If  $\Sigma$  is an alphabet, and  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ , then  $L$  is a language over  $\Sigma$ .

Examples of languages:

- English: the collection of legal English words is a set of strings over the alphabet that consists of all the letters.
- The language of legal C programs: the alphabet is a subset of ASCII characters, and the language is a subset of all possible strings over that alphabet.
- The set of binary numbers whose value is prime:

$$\{10, 11, 101, 111, 1011, \dots\}$$

- $\emptyset$ , the empty language, is a language over any alphabet.
- $\Sigma^*$  is a language over any alphabet.
- The language of all possible UTF-8 encoded strings of Unicode characters, denoted  $L_{UTF8}$ .
- The language of syntactically valid Cmajor programs,  $L_{Cmajor} \subset L_{UTF8}$ .

### 2.1.4 Regular Expressions

Regular expressions define languages.

Before describing the notation of regular expressions, we need to define three operations on languages that the operators of regular expressions represent:

1. The *union* of two languages  $L$  and  $M$ , denoted  $L \cup M$ , is the set of strings that are in either  $L$  or  $M$ , or both ([2] pg. 84). For example, if  $L = \{01, 10\}$  and  $M = \{10, 100\}$ ,  $L \cup M = \{01, 10, 100\}$ .
2. The *concatenation* of languages  $L$  and  $M$  is the set of strings that can be formed by taking any string in  $L$  and concatenating it with any string in  $M$  ([2] pg. 84). We denote concatenation of  $L$  and  $M$   $LM$ . For example, if  $L = \{01, 10\}$  and  $M = \{10, 100\}$ ,  $LM = \{0110, 01100, 1010, 10100\}$ .
3. The *closure* of a language  $L$ , denoted  $L^*$ , is the infinite union  $\cup_{i \geq 0} L^i$ , where  $L^0 = \{\epsilon\}$ , the set containing the empty string,  $L^1 = L$ , and  $L^i$ , for  $i > 1$ , is  $LL \cdots L$ , the concatenation of  $i$  copies of  $L$  ([2] pg. 85). For example, if  $L = \{01, 10\}$ ,  $L^* = \{\epsilon, 01, 10, 0101, 0110, 1010, \dots\}$ . That is:  $L^0$  gives  $\{\epsilon\}$ , the empty string,  $L^1 = L$  gives  $\{01, 10\}$ ;  $L^2 = LL$  gives  $\{0101, 0110, 1001, 1010\}$  and so on.

Now regular expressions can be defined recursively as follows:

**BASIS:** There are three parts:

1. The constants  $\epsilon$  and  $\emptyset$  are regular expressions that denote languages  $\{\epsilon\}$  and  $\emptyset$  respectively. That is,  $L(\epsilon) = \{\epsilon\}$  and  $L(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ .
2. If  $a$  is any symbol, then **a** is a regular expression <sup>1</sup>. This regular expression denotes the language  $\{a\}$ . That is,  $L(\mathbf{a}) = \{a\}$ .
3. A variable  $L$  represents any language.

**INDUCTION:** There are four parts:

1. If  $E$  and  $F$  are regular expressions, then  $E|F$  is a regular expression that denotes a union of  $L(E)$  and  $L(F)$ . That is,  $L(E|F) = L(E) \cup L(F)$ .
2. If  $E$  and  $F$  are regular expressions, then  $EF$  is a regular expression that denotes the concatenation of  $L(E)$  and  $L(F)$ . That is,  $L(EF) = L(E)L(F)$ .
3. If  $E$  is a regular expression, then  $E^*$  is a regular expression that denotes the closure of  $L(E)$ . That is,  $L(E^*) = (L(E))^*$ .
4. If  $E$  is a regular expression, then  $(E)$ , a parenthesized regular expression, is also a regular expression, that denotes the same language as  $E$ . That is,  $L((E)) = L(E)$ .

**Example 2.1.1.** Let us use the formal theory to build a regular expression for sequence of one or more decimal digits. First we use the basis rule 2 to build regular expressions for decimal digits:

$$\mathbf{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9}$$

Now we have languages

$$L(\mathbf{0}) = \{0\}, \dots, L(\mathbf{9}) = \{9\}$$

Next we use induction step 1 to build a regular expression for any decimal digit, denoted by  $D$ :

$$D = \mathbf{0|1|2|3|4|5|6|7|8|9}$$

Now we have a language for a single decimal digit:

$$L(D) = \{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$$

Next we use induction step 3 to build a regular expression of any number, including zero, decimal digits:

$$E = D^*$$

Now we have a language for any number of decimal digits:

$$L(E) = \{\epsilon, 0, 1, \dots, 9, 00, 01, \dots, 09, \dots\}$$

Finally we exclude the empty string by concatenating one decimal digit with any number of decimal digits:

$$F = DD^*$$

The language for nonempty sequence of decimal digits is thus

$$L(F) = \{0, 1, \dots, 9, 00, 01, \dots, 09, \dots\}$$

---

<sup>1</sup>Here we denote regular expressions using **bold typeface** and symbols using *italics*.

## 2.2 Tools for Lexical Analysis

Regular expressions can be used to describe patterns that form tokens. But using regular expressions, one can describe only relatively simple kind of languages, namely *regular languages*.

Strings that belong to a particular regular language can be recognized by constructing a *finite automaton*. A finite automaton is a kind of *state machine*, it has states and transitions between the states, but it has limited “memory”. It cannot for example recognize the language of arbitrary long strings of balanced parentheses.

Many fundamental programming language constructs such as identifiers and literals are regular, but to recognize potentially infinitely deep block structures, one needs to have a more powerful kind of language recognizer, a finite automaton with a stack, or a *pushdown automaton*.

A pushdown automaton can recognize a language that is *context-free*. The languages for syntactic structures in many programming languages are mostly context-free, but for some constructs one may need to provide lexical information to guide the parser.

Finite automata can be constructed by hand, but there are also tools that take regular expression patterns as input and construct a lexical analyzer that recognize those patterns. Such a tool is called a *lexical-analyzer generator*. Most famous is the Unix tool `lex` and its GNU version `flex`.

## 2.3 Lexical Analysis in Cmajor

The Cmajor compiler includes a tool called Cmajor Parser Generator, `cmpg`, that combines the role of a parser generator and a lexical-analyzer generator, or more truly, it is a parser generator that can be used without the need to have a separate lexical-analyzer generator.

### 2.3.1 Introduction to Cmajor Parser Generator

The following table summarises some `cmpg` expressions:

Expression	Matches	Example
<b>empty</b>	empty string	<b>empty</b>
<b>space</b>	any white space character	<b>space</b>
<b>anychar</b>	any single character	<b>anychar</b>
<b>letter</b>	any latin letter	<b>letter</b>
<b>digit</b>	any decimal digit	<b>digit</b>
<b>hexdigit</b>	any hexadecimal digit	<b>hexdigit</b>
<b>punctuation</b>	any ASCII punctuation character	<b>punctuation</b>
'c'	character c	'a'
\c	character c literally	\(
"s"	string s	"0x"
[s]	any one of characters in s	[abc]
[^s]	any one character not in s	[^abc]
r*	zero or more strings matching r	a*
r+	one or more strings matching r	a+
r?	zero or one r	a?
r <sub>1</sub> r <sub>2</sub>	an r <sub>1</sub> followed by an r <sub>2</sub>	ab
r <sub>1</sub>  r <sub>2</sub>	an r <sub>1</sub> or an r <sub>2</sub>	a b
r <sub>1</sub> - r <sub>2</sub>	r <sub>1</sub> but not r <sub>2</sub>	<b>anychar</b> - "*" / "

To use `cmpg`, one prepares *.parser* files that contain `cmpg` grammar definitions, and a *.pp* file that lists the *.parser* files, and issues a command

```
cmpg file.pp
```

The `cmpg` reads and validates the grammar definitions in the *.parser* files and generates a C++ source and header files that contain C++ classes for each defined grammar. When the resulting C++ source files are compiled and linked with *Cm.Parsing* library, the result is a top-down backtracking parser.

### 2.3.2 Tokens in Cmajor

We are now going to take a look of some classes of tokens in Cmajor programming language, and how they are defined using `cmpg` expressions.

#### 2.3.2.1 Skipping Whitespace and Comments

We are not interested in contents of comments or whitespace during parsing, so they are skipped. In a `cmpg` grammar, one can define a *skip* clause, to set a *skip rule* that is in effect during parsing. The parser alternates between parsing other tokens and skip tokens. In the main compile unit grammar the skip rule is set to `spaces_and_comments` rule:

```

1 grammar CompileUnitGrammar
2 {
3     // ...
4     skip spaces_and_comments;
5     // ...
6 }
```

The `spaces_and_comments` rule is defined here. Note that the end of the block comment, `*/`, is not matched inside string or character literals.

```

1 spaces_and_comments
2     ::= (space | comment)+
3     ;
4
5 comment
6     ::= line_comment | block_comment
7     ;
8
9 line_comment
10    ::= "//" [^\r\n]* newline
11    ;
12
13 newline
14    ::= "\r\n" | "\n" | "\r"
15    ;
16
17 block_comment
18    ::= "/*" (StringLiteral | CharLiteral | (anychar - "*/"))* "*/"
19    ;
```

#### 2.3.2.2 Identifiers and Keywords

When parsing an identifier, for example, we must disable the skip rule. Otherwise the parser would accept string “iden ti fier” as an identifier, because whitespace is skipped. For that, the `cmpg` language has a **token** expression. The **token** expression suppresses the skip rule when parsing the contents of the expression.

The difference expression,  $r_1 - r_2$ , matches  $r_1$  but not  $r_2$ . In this case *id\_chars* – *Keyword* in line 2 rejects keywords as identifiers.

The **keyword\_list** expression in line 10 has two components. The first is a name of a rule that selects a token, in this case *id\_chars*, and the second is a list of keyword strings that are matched against the selected token. If the selected token is found among the keyword strings, the **keyword\_list** expression accepts the selected token, otherwise it rejects it.

```

1 Identifier
2   ::= token(id_chars - Keyword)
3   ;
4
5 id_chars
6   ::= token((letter | '_' ) (letter | digit | '_' )*)
7   ;
8
9 Keyword
10  ::= keyword_list(id_chars ,
11    ["abstract", "and", "as", "axiom", "base", "bool", ... ,
12     "where", "while" ])
13  ;

```

### 2.3.2.3 Literals

Literals in Cmajor, as in many other programming languages, can be parsed with regular expressions.

- Let us start one of the simplest, a Boolean literal:

```

1 BooleanLiteral
2   ::= keyword("true")
3   |   keyword("false")
4   ;

```

The **keyword** expression matches the input to its parameter string, but it accepts the input only if the input does *not* continue with an identifier character: a letter, a digit or an underscore. If the *BooleanLiteral* rule were defined using plain strings, like this:

```
BooleanLiteral ::= "true" | "false"
```

input like "truely" or "falsely" would be accepted as a *BooleanLiteral* followed by "ly" suffix. This is not what we want, so we use the **keyword** expression.

- Floating point numbers have many forms. The *fractional\_real* rule accepts inputs having a fractional part like "1.23", ".987", "1.23e3" and "3.". The *exponent\_real* rule accepts decimal digits followed by exponent part like "1e-2".

```

1 FloatingLiteral
2   ::= token((fractional_real | exponent_real)('f' | 'F')?)
3   ;
4
5 fractional_real
6   ::= token(digit_sequence? '.' digit_sequence exponent_part?)
7   | token(digit_sequence '.' ')
8   ;
9
10 digit_sequence
11  ::= token(digit+)
12  ;
13
14 sign
15  ::= '+' | '-'
16  ;
17
18 exponent_real
19  ::= token(digit_sequence exponent_part)
20  ;
21
22 exponent_part
23  ::= token([eE] sign? digit_sequence)
24  ;

```

An optional 'f' or 'F' suffix denotes floating point literal that has type **float**. Without the suffix floating point literals have type **double**.

- An integer literal can have either hexadecimal or decimal form. The "0x" or "0X" prefix denotes hexadecimal integer literal.

```

1 IntegerLiteral
2   ::= (hex_literal | digit_sequence) ('u' | 'U')?
3   ;
4
5 hex_literal
6   ::= token(("0x" | "0X") hex)
7   ;
8
9 hex
10  ::= token(hexdigit+)
11  ;

```

In Cmajor the type of an integer literal is the first of the of the following types in which its value can be represented: **sbyte**, **byte**, **short**, **ushort**, **int**, **uint**, **long**, **ulong**.

The 'u' or 'U' suffix denotes an integer literal with an unsigned type. The type of it is the first of the following types in which its value can be represented: **byte**, **ushort**, **uint**, **ulong**.



- The character literal rule accepts regular characters like 'a' or 'X', simple escapes like '\n' and '\r', hexadecimal escapes like '\xef', and decimal escapes like '\d100'. Other escaped characters represent themselves.

```

1 CharLiteral
2   ::= token( '\ ' ([^\\r\n] | escape) '\ ' )
3   ;
4
5 escape
6   ::= token( '\\ ' ([xX] hex | [dD] digit_sequence | [^dDxX]) )
7   ;

```

- String literals can have four forms.
  1. Regular strings like "abc", or strings containing escaped characters like "line\n". The type of regular string literal is **const char\***.
  2. Wide strings like w"abc", or wide strings containing escapes. The type of wide string literal is **const wchar\***.
  3. Unicode strings like u"abc", or Unicode strings containing escapes. The type of Unicode string literal is **const uchar\***.
  4. Raw strings, that have @-prefix and have no escapes in them, like @"abc\". The contents of raw string is taken literally. The type of raw string literal is **const char\***.

```

1 StringLiteral
2   ::= string
3   |   'w' string
4   |   'u' string
5   |   raw_string
6   ;
7
8 string
9   ::= token( '"' ([^"\\r\n]+) | escape)* '"' )
10  ;
11
12 raw_string
13  ::= '@' token( '"' [^"]* '"' )
14  ;

```

- The last literal is the simplest, it's the null literal:

```

1 NullLiteral
2   ::= keyword( " null" )
3   ;

```

## Chapter 3

# Syntax Analysis

We are now going to explore a class of languages that are suitable for defining the grammatical structure of a programming language, namely *context-free languages*. Context-free languages extend the notion of regular languages so that with a context-free language one can express also recursive structures like nesting blocks or balanced parentheses.

### 3.1 Example

**Example 3.1.1.** A *palindrome* is a string that reads the same forward or backward, such as *otto* or *madamadam* (“Madam, I’m Adam”, the first words that Adam said to Eve in the Garden of Eden.) We can define palindromes for the binary alphabet,  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ , recursively as follows:

#### **BASIS**

$\epsilon$ , i.e. the empty string, 0, and 1 are palindromes.

#### **INDUCTION**

If  $P$  is a palindrome, so are  $0P0$  and  $1P1$ . No string is a palindrome of 0’s and 1’s unless it follows from this basis and induction rule.

A context-free grammar is a formal notation for expressing such recursive definitions of languages ([2] pg. 170). A grammar consists of one or more variables that represent classes of strings, i.e. languages. In previous example we have only one variable,  $P$ , which represents the set of palindromes; that is the class of strings forming the language  $L_{pal}$ . There are rules that say how the strings in each class are constructed. The construction can use symbols of the alphabet, strings that are known to be in one of the classes, or both.

**Grammar 3.1.1.** The rules that define the palindromes, expressed in the context-free grammar notation, are:

$$P \rightarrow \epsilon \tag{3.1}$$

$$P \rightarrow 0 \tag{3.2}$$

$$P \rightarrow 1 \tag{3.3}$$

$$P \rightarrow 0P0 \tag{3.4}$$

$$P \rightarrow 1P1 \tag{3.5}$$

The first three rules form the basis. They tell us that a class of palindromes includes the strings  $\epsilon$ , 0, and 1. None of the right sides of these rules contains a variable, which is why they form a basis for the definition.

The last two rules form the inductive part of the definition. For instance, rule 3.4 says that if we take any string  $\omega$  from the class  $P$ , then  $0\omega 0$  is also in class  $P$ . Rule 3.5 likewise tells us that  $1\omega 1$  is also in class  $P$ .

## 3.2 Definition of Context-Free Grammars

There are four important components in a grammatical description of a language ([2] pg. 171):

1. There is a finite set of symbols that form the strings of the language being defined. This set was  $\{0, 1\}$  in the palindrome example. We call this alphabet the *terminals*, or *terminal symbols*.
2. There is a finite set of *variables*, sometimes called *nonterminals*. Each variable represents a language; i.e. a set of strings. In the last example, there was only one variable,  $P$ , which we used to represent the class of palindromes over alphabet  $\{0, 1\}$ .
3. One of the variables represents the language being defined; it is called the *start symbol*. Other variables represent auxiliary classes of strings that are used to help define the language of the start symbol. In our example,  $P$ , the only variable, is the start symbol.
4. There is a finite set of *productions* or *rules* that represent the recursive definition of the language. Each production consists of:
  - (a) A variable that is being (partially) defined by the production. This variable is often called the *head* of the production.
  - (b) The production symbol  $\rightarrow$ .
  - (c) A string of zero or more terminals and variables. This string, called the *body* of the production, represents one way to form strings in the of the variable of the head. In doing so, we leave terminals unchanged and substitute for each variable of the body any string that is known to be in the language of that variable.

We follow a convention that if the start symbol is not explicitly specified, the head of the first production of the grammar is the start symbol.

### 3.2.1 Derivations Using a Grammar

To infer that a certain string is in the language of a grammar, we start with the start symbol of the grammar and expand it using one of its productions, i.e. by replacing the head of the production with its body. Then we further expand the resulting string by replacing one of its variables by the body of one of its productions, and so on, until we derive a string consisting entirely of terminals. The language of the is all strings of terminals that we can obtain this way. This use of grammar is called a *derivation*.

To see that string 0110 is in the language of binary palindromes  $L_{pal}$ , for example, we start from the start symbol  $P$ , and replace it with the body of the production 4 of grammar 3.1.1:

$P \Rightarrow 0P0$ . We then replace the variable  $P$  between the 0's with the body of the production 5:  $0P0 \Rightarrow 01P10$ . Finally we replace the variable  $P$  in the obtained string with the body of the production 1:  $01P10 \Rightarrow 01\epsilon 10$ . That way we have the derivation  $P \Rightarrow 0P0 \Rightarrow 01P10 \Rightarrow 0110$  and we have inferred that  $0110 \in L_{pal}$ .

We denote that there is a derivation that requires zero or more derivation steps with  $\Rightarrow^*$  symbol. For example, to indicate that there is a derivation of string 0110 from variable  $P$  using some number of steps, is denoted  $P \Rightarrow^* 0110$ .

### 3.2.2 Parse Trees for a Grammar

There is a tree representation for derivations that show explicitly how terminal symbol are grouped into substrings, each of which belongs to the language of one of the variables of the grammar. These trees are called *parse trees*. There might be more than one parse tree for a terminal string that belongs to the language of some grammar. In that case the grammar is called *ambiguous*. Ambiguous grammars are not suitable for representing a syntax of a programming language unless the ambiguities are resolved somehow.

The parse trees of a specific grammar  $G$  are trees with the following conditions:

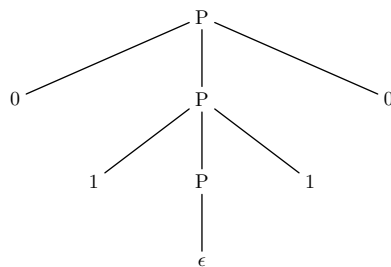
1. Each interior node is labeled by a variable of the grammar.
2. Each leaf is labeled by either a variable, a terminal, or  $\epsilon$ . However, if the leaf is labeled  $\epsilon$ , then it must be the only child of its parent.
3. If an interior node is labeled  $A$ , and its children are labeled

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k$$

respectively, from the left, then  $A \rightarrow X_1X_2 \dots X_k$  is a production of the grammar  $G$ .

Figure 3.1 shows a parse tree of derivation  $P \Rightarrow^* 0110$  for the grammar 3.1.1.

Figure 3.1: A parse tree for derivation  $P \Rightarrow^* 0110$



### 3.2.3 Compact Notation for Grammars

Let  $\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_k$  be strings of grammar symbols (i.e. strings of terminals and nonterminals). If we have productions

$$\begin{aligned}
P &\rightarrow \omega_1 \\
P &\rightarrow \omega_2 \\
&\dots \\
P &\rightarrow \omega_k
\end{aligned}$$

in some grammar  $G$ , we may represent the  $P$ -productions (i.e. the productions whose head is  $P$ ) by grouping them together as follows:

$$P \rightarrow \omega_1 \mid \omega_2 \mid \dots \mid \omega_k$$

For example, the grammar [3.1.1](#) may be represented more compactly as

$$P \rightarrow \epsilon \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid 0P0 \mid 1P1$$

### 3.3 Syntax-Directed Translation

Consider the following grammar:

**Grammar 3.3.1.**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{expr} &\rightarrow \text{expr} + \text{term} \mid \text{expr} - \text{term} \mid \text{term} \\ \text{term} &\rightarrow \text{term} * \text{factor} \mid \text{term} / \text{factor} \mid \text{factor} \\ \text{factor} &\rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \mid (\text{expr}) \end{aligned}$$

The language defined by this grammar consists of expressions that are lists of terms separated by operator symbols  $+$  and  $-$ . Terms are in turn lists of factors separated by operator symbols  $*$  and  $/$ . Factors consist of single digits and parenthesized expressions. The alphabet of this language is  $\{+, -, *, /, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, (, )\}$ .

To see that an expression "1+3\*(4-2)", for example, is in this language, we may construct a derivation for it:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{expr} &\Rightarrow \text{expr} + \text{term} \\ &\Rightarrow \text{term} + \text{term} \\ &\Rightarrow \text{factor} + \text{term} \\ &\Rightarrow 1 + \text{term} \\ &\Rightarrow 1 + \text{term} * \text{factor} \\ &\Rightarrow 1 + \text{factor} * \text{factor} \\ &\Rightarrow 1 + 3 * \text{factor} \\ &\Rightarrow 1 + 3 * (\text{expr}) \\ &\Rightarrow 1 + 3 * (\text{expr} - \text{term}) \\ &\Rightarrow 1 + 3 * (\text{term} - \text{term}) \\ &\Rightarrow 1 + 3 * (\text{factor} - \text{term}) \\ &\Rightarrow 1 + 3 * (4 - \text{term}) \\ &\Rightarrow 1 + 3 * (4 - \text{factor}) \\ &\Rightarrow 1 + 3 * (4 - 2) \end{aligned}$$

Suppose now that we need to translate infix expressions of this kind into *postfix notation*. The postfix notation of an expression  $E$  can be defined inductively as follows:

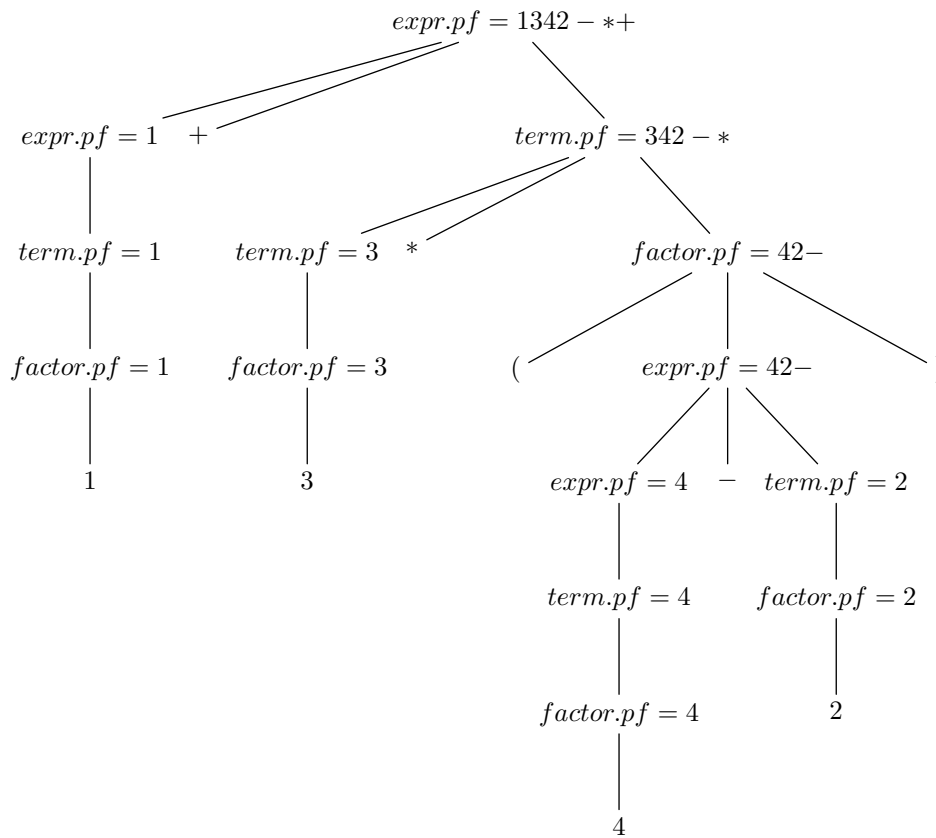
1. If  $E$  is a digit, the postfix notation of  $E$  is  $E$  itself.
2. If  $E$  is of the form  $E_1 + E_2$ , the postfix notation of  $E$  is the postfix notation of  $E_1$  followed by the postfix notation of  $E_2$  followed by  $+$ .
3. If  $E$  is of the form  $E_1 * E_2$ , the postfix notation of  $E$  is the postfix notation of  $E_1$  followed by the postfix notation of  $E_2$  followed by  $*$ .
4. If  $E$  is of the form  $(E)$ , the postfix notation of  $(E)$  is the postfix notation of  $E$ .

For example, postfix notation for infix expression "1+3\*(4-2)" is "1342-\*+".

In computing the postfix notation from infix expressions, we can take advantage of the grammar 3.3.1 by associating *attributes* to each nonterminal of the grammar. Attributes can in principle be of any kind: numbers, structures or strings, for example. In this case we may represent the value of a postfix expression with one string attribute. A parse tree that shows the values of the attributes of nonterminals is called an *annotated* parse tree.

Figure 3.2 shows an annotated parse tree with an attribute *pf* associated with nonterminals *expr*, *term* and *factor*.

Figure 3.2: Annotated parse tree for expression "1+3\*(4-2)"



There can be two kinds of attributes for nonterminals: ([1] pg. 304)

1. A *synthesized attribute* for a nonterminal  $A$  at a parse-tree node  $N$  is defined by a semantic action associated with the production at  $N$ . A synthesized attribute at node  $N$  is defined in terms of attribute values at the children of  $N$  and at  $N$  itself. The *pf* attribute in Fig. 3.2 is an example of a synthesized attribute.
2. An *inherited attribute* for a nonterminal  $B$  at a parse-tree node  $N$  is defined by a semantic action associated with the production at the *parent* of  $N$ . An inherited attribute at node  $N$  is defined in terms of attribute values at  $N$ 's parent,  $N$  itself, and  $N$ 's siblings.

The attributes can be computed by visiting the nodes of the parse tree in some order. Synthesized attributes have the nice property that their values can be computed by a single bottom-up traversal of the parse tree.

## 3.4 Parsing

Parsing is the process of determining how a string of terminals can be generated by a grammar. ([1] pg. 60). Most parsing methods fall into one of two classes, called the *top-down* and *bottom-up* methods. These terms refer to the order in which nodes in the parse tree are constructed. 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. Most handwritten parsers use top-down methods, while many parser-generator tools generate a bottom-up parser.

### 3.4.1 Recursive Descent Parsing

A *recursive-descent parsing* is a top-down method in which a set of recursive procedures is used to process the input. For example, consider the following grammar:

#### Grammar 3.4.1.

$$stmt \rightarrow \text{if}(expr) stmt \text{ else } stmt$$

To write a recursive-descent parser for this grammar, one writes a procedure that is used to match tokens and obtain more input, and then a procedure for each nonterminal. The following listing shows the structure of these procedures:

```

1  int lookahead;
2
3  void match(int token)
4  {
5      if (token == lookahead)
6      {
7          // read next token into lookahead;
8      }
9      else
10     {
11         throw std::runtime_error("syntax error");
12     }
13 }
14
15 void expr()
16 {
17     // match an expression...
18 }
19
20 void stmt()
21 {
22     match(IF); match('('); expr(); match(')'); stmt(); match(ELSE); stmt
23     ();
24 }
```



### 3.4.2 Left Recursion

A recursive-descent parser cannot directly use grammars like the grammar 3.3.1, because it has “left-recursive” productions such as  $expr \rightarrow expr + term$ , where the leftmost symbol of the body is the same as the nonterminal at the head of the production. Suppose the procedure for  $expr$  decides to apply this production. The body begins with  $expr$  so the procedure for  $expr$  is called recursively. Since the lookahead symbol changes only when a terminal is matched, no change to the input took place between recursive calls of  $expr$ . As a result, the second call to  $expr$  does exactly what the first call did, which means a third call, and so on.

A left-recursive production can be eliminated by rewriting the offending production. Consider a nonterminal  $A$  with two productions

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

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are sequences of terminals and nonterminals that do not start with  $A$ . For example, in

$$expr \rightarrow expr + term \mid term$$

nonterminal  $A = expr$ , string  $\alpha = +term$ , and string  $\beta = term$ .

The nonterminal  $A$  and its production are said to be *left recursive* ([1] pg. 67), because the production  $A \rightarrow A\alpha$  has  $A$  itself as the leftmost symbol of the right side. Repeated application of this production builds up a sequence of  $\alpha$ ’s to the right of  $A$ . When  $A$  is finally replaced by  $\beta$ , we have a  $\beta$  followed by a sequence of zero or more  $\alpha$ ’s.

We can achieve the same effect by rewriting the productions for  $A$  in the following manner, using a new nonterminal  $R$ :

$$\begin{aligned} A &\rightarrow \beta R \\ R &\rightarrow \alpha R \mid \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

## 3.5 Extending the Grammar Notation

We have found it useful to extend the context-free grammar notation with regular-expression like operations.<sup>1 2</sup> In the following definitions the expression in the middle is in the extended form, and the productions on the right express the same language using conventional context-free grammar notation.

1. X or Y:

$$\begin{aligned} P &\rightarrow \alpha (X \mid Y) \beta & P &\rightarrow \alpha R \beta \\ & & R &\rightarrow X \mid Y \end{aligned}$$

2. Closure of  $X$ ,  $X$  occurs zero or more times:

$$\begin{aligned} P &\rightarrow \alpha X^* \beta & P &\rightarrow \alpha R \beta \\ & & R &\rightarrow RR \mid X \mid \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

---

<sup>1</sup> $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  denote strings of grammar symbols, and  $X$  and  $Y$  single grammar symbols.

<sup>2</sup>Since asterisk, plus, question mark, parentheses and square brackets belong to regular expression syntax, they must now be quoted when they appear as terminals in productions of extended notation.

3. Positive  $X$ ,  $X$  occurs one or more times:

$$\begin{array}{ll} P \rightarrow \alpha X^+ \beta & P \rightarrow \alpha R \beta \\ & R \rightarrow RR \mid X \end{array}$$

4. Optional  $X$ ,  $X$  occurs zero or one times:

$$\begin{array}{ll} P \rightarrow \alpha X? \beta & P \rightarrow \alpha R \beta \\ & R \rightarrow X \mid \epsilon \end{array}$$

5. Class  $[abc]$ , one of the characters in the class occurs:

$$\begin{array}{ll} P \rightarrow \alpha [abc] \beta & P \rightarrow \alpha R \beta \\ & R \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \end{array}$$

In the definitions above,  $X$  denotes a single grammar symbol, i.e. either terminal or nonterminal, but we may extend the notation further by substituting  $X$  with arbitrary expressions containing grammar symbols and other expressions, much the same way we can use regular expressions. We can now replace left recursion with iteration using the extended notation. The left-recursive productions

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

become an iterative production:

$$A \rightarrow \beta(\alpha)^*$$

meaning  $\beta$  followed by zero or more  $\alpha$ 's.

We can rewrite the grammar 3.3.1 without left recursion using the extended notation as follows:

#### Grammar 3.5.1.

$$\begin{array}{l} expr \rightarrow term ( ('+'|-') term )^* \\ term \rightarrow factor ( ('*'|'/') factor )^* \\ factor \rightarrow [0-9] \mid '(' expr ')' \end{array}$$

## 3.6 Parsing in Cmajor

The parsers in Cmajor are written using the Cmajor Parser Generator, or **cmpg**, notation, that is much like the extended grammar notation of the previous section. The **cmpg** reads grammar definitions in *.parser* files, validates them, and generates C++ classes that represent the grammars. To become familiar with the grammar definition syntax, we write the grammar 3.5.1 using the **cmpg** notation.

**Example 3.6.1.** Postfix Translation Grammar.

```

1 grammar PostfixTranslationGrammar
2 {
3     expr: std::string
4         ::= term:t{ value = t; }
5         (   '+' term:pt{ value.append(pt).append(1, '+'); }
6         |   '-' term:mt{ value.append(mt).append(1, '-'); }
7         ) *
8         ;
9
10    term: std::string
11        ::= factor:f{ value = f; }
12        (   '*' factor:tf{ value.append(tf).append(1, '*'); }
13        |   '/' factor:df{ value.append(df).append(1, '/'); }
14        ) *
15        ;
16
17    factor: std::string
18        ::= digit{ value = std::string(1, *matchBegin); }
19        |   '(' expr{ value = expr; } ')'
20        ;
21 }

```

The grammar has a list of *rules*. In this case *expr*, *term* and *factor*. If the start rule is not explicitly defined by the **start** clause, the first rule of the grammar is taken as the start rule.

A rule may have one synthesized attribute whose type is denoted by a colon and a name of a C++ type after the head of the rule, **std::string** in this case. In this example each of the rules of the grammar have a synthesized attribute of type **std::string**. If multiple synthesized attributes are needed, one can specify a structure of values, or a dynamically created object holding the values.

The ::= symbol corresponds to the → symbol in the formal grammars.

If the same nonterminal occurs many times inside the body of a rule, and that nonterminal refers to a rule that has a synthesized attribute, the synthesized attribute has to be named explicitly by a colon and an identifier after the name of the nonterminal. In the body of the *expr* rule, for example, one can refer to many occurrences of *term*'s synthesized attribute, the first of which is named *t*, the second *pt*, and the third *mt*.

A grammar symbol in a body of a rule may have an associated semantic action, i.e. a block of C++ code. For example in line 4, the first *term* nonterminal has a semantic action { **value** = **t**; } associated with it. The semantic action is executed only if input matches the rule that it is associated with.

The synthesized attribute of the rule is exposed as an identifier *value* inside the body of a rule. It can be read and assigned to many times inside the body of a rule. For example in line 4, the value of the synthesized attribute of the *expr* rule is initialized to a value of the synthesized attribute of the *term* rule. When more *terms* are matched, the synthesized attributes of these are appended to the synthesized attribute the *expr* rule.

The matched lexeme of a grammar symbol is exposed as two character pointers to the semantic action associated with a grammar symbol. The *matchBegin* pointer points to the start of the matched lexeme and the *matchEnd* pointer points to one past the end of the

matched lexeme. For example, in line 18, the value of the matched digit is assigned to the synthesized attribute of the *factor* rule.

If the nonterminal occurs only once inside the body of a rule, one can refer the synthesized attribute of it with the name of the nonterminal. Example of this appears in the line 19, where the synthesized attribute of *expr* rule is referred in the semantic action by its name *expr*.

### 3.6.1 Internal Representation of cmpg Grammar Definitions

The **cmpg** program reads grammar definitions and constructs an internal representation for them. The internal representation of a grammar is a list of rules, one of which is set as a start rule. Each rule has a *name* and a *definition*. The definition of a rule is represented as a *tree of parsing nodes*.

There are many kinds of parsing nodes. Each kind of parsing node has either zero, one, or two child nodes. A node that has zero child nodes is also called a *leaf* parsing node, a node that has one child node is called a *unary* parsing node, and a node that has two child nodes is called a *binary* parsing node.

- The definition of a rule consists of nonempty sequence of *alternative* expressions:

$$R \rightarrow \omega_1 \mid \omega_2 \mid \cdots \mid \omega_k$$

If input matches one of the alternatives, it matches the rule. The alternatives are tested from left to right, and if a match is found, the rest of the alternatives are not tested.

If the definition of a rule is represented as a tree of parsing nodes, it consists of *alternative* binary parsing nodes, where the left and right subtrees of an alternative nodes represent expressions  $\omega_i$  and  $\omega_{i+1}$ . Figure 3.3 shows two alternative nodes.

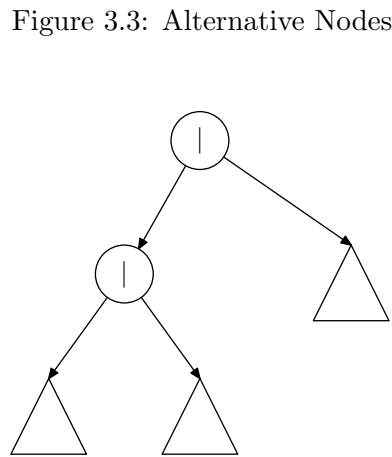


Figure 3.3: Alternative Nodes

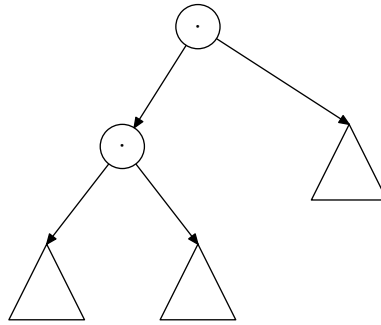
- Each alternative expression  $\omega_i$  consists of catenation of expressions :

$$\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cdots \alpha_k$$

If input consists of a nonempty sequence of strings  $s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k$  of terminal symbols where  $s_1$  matches expression  $\alpha_1$ ,  $s_2$  matches expression  $\alpha_2$ , etc., and  $s_k$  matches expression  $\alpha_k$ , the input matches the whole alternative expression.

A *catenate* node is a binary parsing node, whose left and right subtree represent expressions  $\alpha_i$  and  $\alpha_{i+1}$ . Figure 3.4 shows two catenate nodes.

Figure 3.4: Catenate Nodes



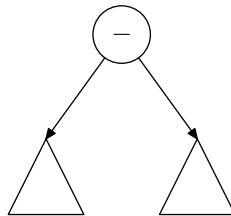
- A *difference* expression is denoted by  $\alpha_i$  in a catenate expression  $\alpha_1\alpha_2\cdots\alpha_k$ . The difference expression consists of nonempty sequence of expressions separated by the  $-$  symbol:

$$\beta_1 - \beta_2 - \cdots - \beta_k$$

Usually  $k = 1$  or  $k = 2$ . If a string  $s$  of terminal symbols matches expression  $\beta_1$ , but does not match expression  $\beta_2$ , the string  $s$  matches expression  $\beta_1 - \beta_2$ .

A *difference* node is a binary parsing node whose left and right subtrees represent expressions  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  respectively. Figure 3.5 shows a difference node.

Figure 3.5: Difference Node



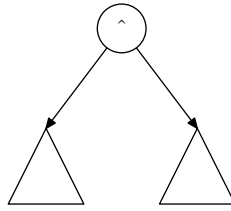
- An *xor* expression is denoted by  $\beta_i$  in a difference expression  $\beta_1 - \beta_2 - \cdots - \beta_k$ . The xor expression consists of nonempty sequence of expressions separated by the  $\wedge$  symbol:

$$\gamma_1 \wedge \gamma_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge \gamma_k$$

Usually  $k = 1$  or  $k = 2$ . If a string  $s$  of terminal symbols either matches expression  $\gamma_1$ , but does not match expression  $\gamma_2$ , or matches expression  $\gamma_2$ , but does not match expression  $\gamma_1$ , the string  $s$  matches expression  $\gamma_1 \hat{\gamma}_2$ .

An *xor* node is a binary parsing node whose left and right subtrees represent expressions  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  respectively. Figure 3.6 shows an xor node.

Figure 3.6: Xor Node



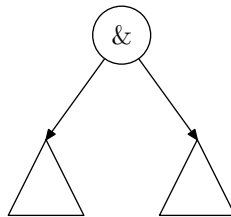
- An *intersection* expression is denoted by  $\gamma_i$  in an xor expression  $\gamma_1 \hat{\gamma}_2 \cdots \hat{\gamma}_k$ . The intersection expression consists of nonempty sequence of expressions separated by the  $\&$  symbol:

$$\mu_1 \& \mu_2 \& \cdots \& \mu_k$$

Usually  $k = 1$  or  $k = 2$ . If a string  $s$  of terminal symbols matches both expression  $\mu_1$  and expression  $\mu_2$ , the string  $s$  matches expression  $\mu_1 \& \mu_2$ .

An *intersection* node is a binary parsing node whose left and right subtrees represent expressions  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  respectively. Figure 3.7 shows an intersection node.

Figure 3.7: Intersection Node



- A *list* expression is denoted by  $\mu_i$  in an intersection expression  $\mu_1 \& \mu_2 \& \cdots \& \mu_k$ : The list expression is an expression optionally followed by the % symbol and an expression:

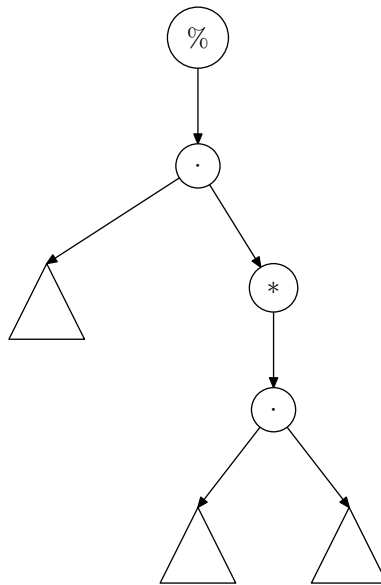
$$\theta_1 (\% \theta_2)?$$

In the previous expression the parentheses and the ? symbol are metasymbols, not terminal symbols.

Expression  $\theta_1 \% \theta_2$  denotes a nonempty sequence of  $\theta_1$ 's separated by  $\theta_2$ 's.

A list node is a unary parsing node, whose child subtree is set to nodes corresponding to expression  $\theta_1 (\theta_2 \theta_1)^*$ . Figure 3.8 shows a list node with a child subtree.

Figure 3.8: List Node



- A *postfix* expression is denoted by  $\theta_i$  in a list expression  $\theta_1 (\% \theta_2)?$ . A postfix expression is an expression optionally followed by one of the symbols \*, +, or ?:

$$\eta(' * ' | ' + ' | ' ? ')?$$

In the previous expression the parentheses and the last ? symbol are metasymbols, not terminal symbols.

The postfix expressions containing symbols \*, +, and ? are:

1.  $\eta^*$ : If the input consists of a possibly empty sequence of strings  $s_i$  of terminal symbols where each string  $s_i$  matches expression  $\eta$ , the input matches expression  $\eta^*$ . For example, strings  $\{\epsilon, a, aa, aaa\}$  match expression  $a^*$ .

A *closure* node is a unary parsing node whose child subtree represents expression  $\eta$ .

2.  $\eta^+$ : If the input consists of a nonempty sequence of strings  $s_i$  of terminal symbols where each string  $s_i$  matches expression  $\eta$ , the input matches expression  $\eta^+$ . For example, strings  $\{\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{aa}, \mathbf{aaa}\}$  match expression  $\mathbf{a}^+$ .

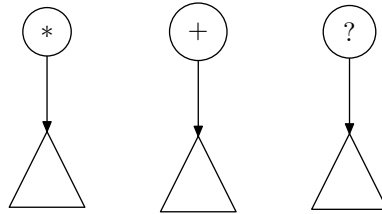
A *positive* node is a unary parsing node whose child subtree represents expression  $\eta$ .

3.  $\eta^?$ : If the input consists either an empty string  $\epsilon$ , or a string  $s$  of terminal symbols where  $s$  matches expression  $\eta$ , the input matches expression  $\eta^?$ . For example, strings  $\{\epsilon, \mathbf{a}\}$  match expression  $\mathbf{a}^?$ .

An *optional* node is a unary parsing node whose child subtree represents expression  $\eta$ .

Figure 3.9 shows the postfix nodes.

Figure 3.9: Postfix Nodes



- A *primary* expression is denoted by  $\eta$  in a postfix expression  $\eta(' * ' | ' + ' | ' ? ' ) ?$ .

Using extended context-free grammar notation, a primary expression can be expressed as:

$$\text{primary} \rightarrow ( \text{primitive} \mid \text{nonterminal} \mid \text{grouping} \mid \text{token} ) \text{expectation? action?}$$

That is, a primary expression is one of:

1. a *primitive* expression, that is an atomic **cmpg** expression.
2. a *nonterminal* expression that matches input to a rule recursively.
3. a *grouping* expressions that is a parenthesized alternative expression.
4. a *token* expression that prevents skipping.

Previous expressions can be optionally followed by an *expectation* expression that prevents backtracking, and an *action* expression that associates a semantic action to a primary expression.



- The primitive expression is defined using the extended context-free notation as:

$$\text{primitive} \rightarrow \text{char} | \text{string} | \text{charset} | \text{keyword} | \text{keyword\_list} | \\ \text{empty} | \text{space} | \text{anychar} | \text{letter} | \text{digit} | \text{hexdigit} | \text{punctuation}$$

Figure 3.10 shows the primitive expressions, what input they match, and the corresponding node types.

Figure 3.10: Primate Expressions

Expression	Matches	Node
<i>char</i>	matches a single terminal symbol to a character specified in the expression.	'x'
<i>string</i>	matches a string of terminal symbols to a string specified in the expression.	"abc"
<i>charset</i>	matches a single terminal symbol to set of characters specified in the expression.	[abc]
<i>keyword</i>	matches a string of terminal symbols to a keyword string specified in the expression.	for
<i>keyword_list</i>	matches a string of terminal symbols to a list of keyword strings specified in the expression	for,if
<b>empty</b>	matches always	empty
<b>space</b>	matches a single terminal symbol to any whitespace character	space
<b>anychar</b>	matches a single terminal symbol to any single character	anychar
<b>letter</b>	matches a single terminal symbol to any latin letter	letter
<b>digit</b>	matches a single terminal symbol to any decimal digit	digit
<b>hexdigit</b>	matches a single terminal symbol to any hexadecimal digit	hexdigit
<b>punctuation</b>	matches a single terminal symbol any ASCII punctuation symbol	punct

- A *nonterminal* expression is defined using extended context-free notation as follows:

$$\text{nonterminal} \rightarrow ( \text{identifier} | \text{identifier arguments} ) \text{alias?} \\ \text{arguments} \rightarrow '( \text{argument} ( ',' \text{argument} )^* )' \\ \text{alias} \rightarrow ' : ' \text{identifier}$$

The nonterminal expression names a rule that is matched recursively. It can contain a parenthesized list of *arguments*, that become the inherited attributes of the “called” rule. We used the word “called” because the recursive matching process can be thought as procedures that call each other recursively, as in recursive-descent parser.

If the called rule has a synthesized attribute and the rule is called many times inside a body of a rule, the synthesized attribute of the called rule must be given a unique name. That is the use of an *alias* expression.

The node for the nonterminal is represented as

$$\boxed{nt(foo)}$$

where *foo* is the name of the rule matched recursively.

- A *grouping* expression is a parenthesized sequence of alternative expressions.

$$grouping \rightarrow '(' alternatives ')'$$

- A *token* expression consists of a keyword **token** followed by a parenthesized sequence of alternative expressions. It prevents skipping of tokens that match the *skip rule* of the grammar.

$$token \rightarrow \mathbf{token} '(' alternatives ')'$$

- An *expectation* expression is a single '!' symbol associated with the preceding primary expression. It forces the matching of its preceding expression without backtracking. If its associated expression does not match, an exception is thrown.

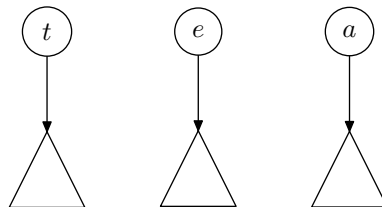
$$expectation \rightarrow '!'$$

- An *action* expression is a block of C++ code in braces. It represents a semantic action that is executed if input matches its associated primary expression.

$$action \rightarrow '\{ \text{C++ code} \}'$$

Figure 3.11 shows the token, expectation and action unary parsing nodes.

Figure 3.11: Token, Expectation, and Action Nodes



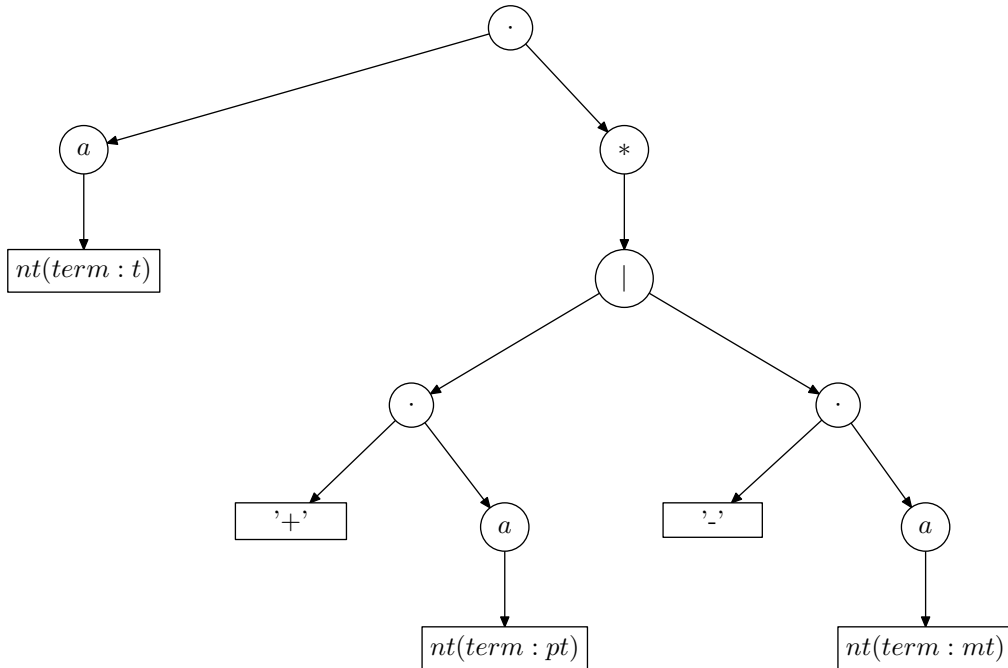
**Example 3.6.2.** Example of Internal Representation.

Let us recall the Postfix Translation Grammar of example 3.6.1. For ease of reference it is repeated here:

```

1 grammar PostfixTranslationGrammar
2 {
3     expr: std::string
4         ::= term:t{ value = t; }
5         (   '+' term:pt{ value.append(pt).append(1, '+'); }
6         |   '-' term:mt{ value.append(mt).append(1, '-'); }
7         ) *
8         ;
9
10    term: std::string
11        ::= factor:f{ value = f; }
12        (   '*' factor:tf{ value.append(tf).append(1, '*'); }
13        |   '/' factor:df{ value.append(df).append(1, '/'); }
14        ) *
15        ;
16
17    factor: std::string
18        ::= digit{ value = std::string(1, *matchBegin); }
19        |   '(' expr{ value = expr; } ')'
20        ;
21 }
```

Figure 3.12 shows the internal representation of the *expr* rule.

Figure 3.12: Internal Representation of *expr* Rule

### 3.6.2 cmpg Language Grammar

Here the syntax of the `cmpg` language is presented in extended context-free notation:

**Grammar 3.6.1.** `cmpg` Language Grammar.

```

grammar → grammar identifier '{' grammarcontent '}'
grammarcontent → ( startclause | skipclause | rulelink | rule ) *
startclause → start identifier ';'
skipclause → skip qualifiedid ';'
rulelink → using ( identifier '=' qualifiedid | qualifiedid ) ';'
rule → identifier locals? returns? " ::= " alternatives ';'
locals → ' ( (variable | parameter) ( ',' (variable | parameter) ) * ' ) '
variable → var cpptype cppdeclarator
parameter → cpptype cppdeclarator
returns → ' : ' cpptype
alternatives → catenate ( ' | ' catenate ) *
catenate → diff +
diff → xor ( ' - ' xor ) *
xor → and ( ^ and ) *
and → list ( ' & ' list ) *
list → postfix ( ' % ' list ) ?
postfix → primary ( ' * ' | ' + ' | ' ? ' ) ?
primary → ( primitive | nonterminal | grouping | token ) expectation? action?
primitive → char | string | charset | keyword | keyword_list
           | empty | space | anychar | letter | digit | hexdigit | punctuation
nonterminal → ( identifier | identifier arguments ) alias?
arguments → ' ( ' argument ( ' , ' argument ) * ' ) '
alias → ' : ' identifier
grouping → ' ( ' alternatives ' ) '
token → token ' ( ' alternatives ' ) '
expectation → ' ! '
action → ' { ' C++ code ' } '
identifier → id - keyword
qualifiedid → identifier ( ' . ' identifier ) *
id → ( letter | ' _ ' ) ( letter | digit | ' _ ' ) *
keyword → using | grammar | start | skip | token | keyword | keyword_list
         | empty | space | anychar | letter | digit | hexdigit | punctuation | var

```

The *cpptype* denotes a C++ type expression, and the *cppdeclarator* denotes a C++ declarator.

### 3.6.3 Informal Description of Operation of a Parser Generated Using cmpg

A parser generated using `cmpg` works much the same way than a handwritten recursive-descent parser would operate. In principle, each rule can be thought as a recursive procedure that receives parameters, or inherited attributes, from its caller, or parent rule, matches terminals and maybe calls other recursive procedures, or rules, and finally can return a value, a computed synthesized attribute, to its caller, or parent rule.

The parsing begins by trying to match the start of the input to the body of the rule  $S$ , the start rule of the grammar.

If the current input position is at the start of rule  $P$ , and there are many  $P$ -productions,  $P \rightarrow \omega_1 | \omega_2 | \dots | \omega_k$ , the parser tries to match the the input to the production  $P \rightarrow \omega_1$ . If the input matches, the other  $P$ -productions are not tried and the parsing proceeds to the successor of the caller of the production  $P \rightarrow \omega_1$ . However, if the input does not match  $P \rightarrow \omega_1$ , input is backtracked, and the production  $P \rightarrow \omega_2$  is tried, and so on, until either a match is found, or the input did not match the last  $P$ -production  $P \rightarrow \omega_k$ . In that case, let  $Q \rightarrow \alpha P \beta \Leftrightarrow Q \rightarrow v_i$  be the parent of  $P$ . At this point the input is backtracked and the next alternative for the caller of the  $P$ ,  $Q \rightarrow v_{i+1}$  is tried. This process is repeated until either the entire input matches, or a syntax error is detected.

### 3.6.4 Parsing Algorithm

The algorithm uses a stack of attribute values, a Boolean variable for skipping state *skip*, a stack of skipping states, and keeps track of *current input position*. Each rule has a data structure called *context* that contains the current values of inherited attributes, synthesized attribute, local variables, and synthesized attributes of the contained nonterminals of the rule. Each rule has also a stack of those context structures called a *context stack*.

When input is parsed using the following algorithm 3.6.1 applied to a parsing node, the result of parsing can be either:

1. **match(true,  $n$ )**, where  $n > 0$ , to indicate that input matched, and the length of the match was  $n$  characters.
2. **match(true, 0)**, to indicate a successful empty match. In this case the current input position was not advanced.
3. **match(false)** to indicate that input did not match. In this case we say that the result is a *failure* match.

In the beginning the attribute stack is empty, the skipping state stack is empty, and the skipping state *skip* is **true**. The parsing begins by setting the current input position to the start of the input, and applying algorithm 3.6.1 to the root node of the parsing node tree that forms the definition of the start rule of the grammar. Let  $m$  be the result of parsing applied to the root node.

If  $m$  is:

1. **match(true,  $n$ )**, where  $n$  is the length of the input, the parsing succeeds.
2. **match(true,  $n$ )**, where  $n$  is less than the length of the input, the parsing fails.
3. **match(false)**, the parsing fails.

**Algorithm 3.6.1.** Parsing Algorithm. ([3])

If the type of the node this algorithm is applied to is:

1. Alternative node (Fig. 3.3). Let *save* be the current input position. Apply this algorithm recursively to the left subtree of this node. Let  $m$  be the result of parsing the left subtree.<sup>3</sup> If  $m$  was a successful match, let the result of parsing this node be  $m$ . Otherwise, backtrack by setting the current input position to *save* and apply this algorithm recursively to the right subtree of this node. Let the result of parsing this node be the result of parsing the right subtree.

2. Catenate node (Fig. 3.4). Apply this algorithm recursively to the left subtree of this node. Let  $m_1$  be the result of parsing the left subtree. If  $m_1$  a successful match, unless *skip* is **false** skip tokens using the skip rule, then apply this algorithm recursively to the right subtree of this node. Let  $m_2$  be the result of parsing the right subtree. If  $m_2$  was a successful match, let the result of parsing this node be **match**(**true**,  $length(m_1) + length(m_2)$ ).

Otherwise, either  $m_1$  was a failure match, or  $m_2$  was a failure match. Let the result of parsing this node be **match**(**false**).

3. Difference node (Fig. 3.5). Let *save* be the current input position. Apply this algorithm recursively to the left subtree of this node. Let  $m_1$  be the result of parsing the left subtree. If  $m_1$  was a successful match, let *tmp* be the current input position, and backtrack by setting the current input position to *save*; then apply this algorithm recursively to the right subtree of this node. Let  $m_2$  be the result of parsing the right subtree. If  $m_2$  was a failure match, or  $length(m_2) < length(m_1)$ , set the current input position to *tmp*, and let the result of parsing this node be  $m_1$ , a successful match.

Otherwise, either  $m_1$  was a failure match, or  $m_2$  was a successful match with  $length(m_2) \geq length(m_1)$ . Let the result of parsing this node be **match**(**false**).

4. Xor node (Fig. 3.6). Let *save* be the current input position. Apply this algorithm recursively to the left subtree of this node. Let  $m_1$  be the result of parsing the left subtree. Let *tmp* be the current input position, and backtrack by setting the current input position to *save*. Apply this algorithm recursively to the right subtree of this node. Let  $m_2$  be the result of parsing the right subtree. If  $m_1$  was a successful match and  $m_2$  was a failure match, or  $m_1$  was a failure match and  $m_2$  was a successful match, do the following:

- (a) If  $m_1$  was a successful match, set the current input position to *tmp*.
- (b) If  $m_1$  was a successful match, let the result of parsing this node be  $m_1$ , otherwise let the result of parsing this node be  $m_2$ .

Otherwise, either both  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  were successful matches, or both were failure matches. Let the result of parsing this node be **match**(**false**).

---

<sup>3</sup>When we say that a node, or a subtree, is parsed, we mean that input is parsed in the context of that node, or subtree.

5. Intersection node (Fig. 3.7). Let *save* be the current input position. Apply this algorithm recursively to the left subtree of this node. Let  $m_1$  be the result of parsing the left subtree. If  $m_1$  was a successful match, backtrack by setting the current input position to *save*, and apply this algorithm recursively to the right subtree of this node. Let  $m_2$  be the result of parsing the right subtree. If  $m_2$  was a successful match and  $length(m_1) = length(m_2)$ , let the result of parsing this node be  $m_1$ .

Otherwise, either  $m_1$  was a failure match,  $m_2$  was a failure match, or  $length(m_1) \neq length(m_2)$ . Let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.

6. List node (Fig. 3.8). Apply this algorithm recursively to the child subtree of this node. Let the result of parsing this node be the result of parsing the child subtree.
7. Closure node (Fig. 3.9). Let  $m_1$  be **match(true, 0)**, and let *first* be **true**. Do following in a loop until loop exited:

- (a) Let *save* be the current input position.
- (b) If *first* = **true**, set *first* to **false**, otherwise, unless *skip* is **false**, skip tokens using the skip rule.
- (c) Apply this algorithm recursively to the child subtree of this node. Let  $m_2$  be the result of parsing the child subtree.
- (d) If  $m_2$  was a successful match, set  $m_1$  to **match(true, length( $m_1$ ) + length( $m_2$ ))**, otherwise backtrack by setting the current input position to *save* and exit the loop.

Let the result of parsing this node be  $m_1$ .

8. Positive node (Fig. 3.9). Apply this algorithm recursively to the child subtree of this node. Let  $m_1$  be the result of parsing the child subtree.

If  $m_1$  was a successful match, do following in a loop until loop exited:

- (a) Let *save* be the current input position.
- (b) If *skip* is **true**, skip tokens using the skip rule.
- (c) Apply this algorithm recursively to the child subtree of this node. Let  $m_2$  be the result of parsing the child subtree.
- (d) If  $m_2$  was a successful match, set  $m_1$  to **match(true, length( $m_1$ ) + length( $m_2$ ))**, otherwise backtrack by setting the current input position to *save* and exit the loop.

Let the result of parsing this node be  $m_1$ .

9. Optional node (Fig. 3.9). Let *save* be the current input position. Apply this algorithm recursively to the child subtree of this node. Let  $m$  be the result of parsing the child subtree. If  $m$  was a successful match, let the result of parsing this node be  $m$ .

Otherwise, backtrack by setting the current input position to *save*. Let the result of parsing this node be **match(true, 0)**.

10. Char node (Fig. 3.10). If current input position is not at the end of the input, and the character at the current input position is equal to the character contained in this char node, advance the current input position by one character, and let the result of parsing this node be **match(true, 1)**.

Otherwise, either the current input position is at the end of the input, or the character at the current input position is not equal to the character contained in this char node, so let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.

11. String node (Fig. 3.10). Let  $m$  be **match(true, 0)**. Let  $i$  be 0. Let  $n$  be the length of the string contained in this string node.

While  $i < n$  and the current input position is not at the end of the input and the character at the current input position is equal to the  $i$ 'th character of the string contained in this string node, do the following:

- (a) Advance the current input position by one character.
- (b) Increment  $i$ .
- (c) Set  $m$  to **match(true, length(m) + 1)**.

If  $i = n$ , let the result of parsing this node be  $m$ .

Otherwise let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.

12. CharSet node (Fig. 3.10). If current input position is not at the end of the input, do the following:

- (a) If the character set is not an inverse set, and the character at the current input position is in the set, or the character set is an inverse set, and the character at the current input position is not in the set, advance the current input position by one character, and let the result of parsing this node be **match(true, 1)**

Otherwise let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.

13. Keyword node (Fig. 3.10). If the contained keyword string is denoted by  $k$ , the keyword node contains following expression converted to a tree of parsing nodes:  $k - \text{token}(kc)$ , where  $c$  is usually expression  $(\text{letter}|\text{digit}|\_|\cdot|.)^+$ , but may also be user supplied *continuation rule*. Let the result of parsing this node be the result of parsing the contained tree of nodes.

14. Keyword list node (Fig. 3.10). The keyword list node has a *selector rule*, that is usually  $(\text{letter}|\_|\cdot)(\text{letter}|\text{digit}|\_|\cdot)^*$ , but may also supplied by the user. The node has also a set of keyword strings  $s$ .

Let  $save$  be the current input position. First the input is parsed with the selector rule. Let  $m$  be the result of this parsing, and  $l$  be the matched lexeme. If  $m$  is a successful match, do the following:

- (a) If the lexeme  $l$  matches one of the contained keyword strings  $s$ , let the result of parsing this node be  $m$ , otherwise backtrack by setting the current input position to  $save$ .

Otherwise let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.



15. Empty node (Fig. 3.10). Let the result of parsing this node be **match(true, 0)**.
16. Space node (Fig. 3.10). If the current input position is not at the end of the input, and the character at the current input position is a whitespace character, advance the current input position by one character, and let the result of parsing this node be **match(true, 1)**.  
Otherwise let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.
17. AnyChar node (Fig. 3.10). If the current input position is not at the end of the input, advance the current input position by one character, and let the result of parsing this node be **match(true, 1)**.  
Otherwise let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.
18. Letter node (Fig. 3.10). If the current input position is not at the end of the input, and the character at the current input position is a latin letter character, advance the current input position by one character, and let the result of parsing this node be **match(true, 1)**.  
Otherwise let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.
19. Digit node (Fig. 3.10). If the current input position is not at the end of the input, and the character at the current input position is a decimal digit character, advance the current input position by one character, and let the result of parsing this node be **match(true, 1)**.  
Otherwise let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.
20. HexDigit node (Fig. 3.10). If the current input position is not at the end of the input, and the character at the current input position is a hexadecimal digit character, advance the current input position by one character, and let the result of parsing this node be **match(true, 1)**.  
Otherwise let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.
21. Punctuation node (Fig. 3.10). If the current input position is not at the end of the input, and the character at the current input position is ASCII punctuation character, advance the current input position by one character, and let the result of parsing this node be **match(true, 1)**.  
Otherwise let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.
22. Nonterminal node. Let the rule that the nonterminal is associated with be  $r$ . Parsing proceeds by parsing the rule  $r$  recursively as follows:
  - (a) Parsing rule  $r$  begins by pushing values of arguments specified in this nonterminal node to the attribute stack. Those arguments will become the inherited attributes of  $r$ . Arguments can be current values of inherited attributes, the synthesized attribute, local variables, or synthesized attributes of the contained nonterminals of the current rule, i.e. the rule that contains the current nonterminal node.
  - (b) On entry of parsing the rule  $r$ , the current context structure of  $r$  is pushed to the context stack of  $r$  and the context of  $r$  is initialized with default values.

- (c) Then arguments are popped off from the attribute stack, and placed to the context structure of  $r$  as inherited attributes.
  - (d) Apply this algorithm recursively to the root node of the parsing node tree that forms the definition of the rule  $r$ . Let the result of parsing be  $m$ .
  - (e) On exit of parsing the rule  $r$ , if  $m$  was a successful match, the value of the synthesized attribute of  $r$ , if any, is pushed to the attribute stack. Then in any case, the previous context of  $r$  is popped off from the context stack of  $r$ , and it becomes the current context of  $r$ .
  - (f) If  $m$  was a successful match, the synthesized attribute of  $r$ , if any, is popped off from the attribute stack and placed to the context structure of the current rule as synthesized attribute of this nonterminal.
  - (g) Let the result of parsing this node be  $m$ .
23. Token node (Fig. 3.11). Push the current skipping state *skip* to the skipping state stack, and set *skip* to **false**. Apply this algorithm recursively to the child subtree of this node. Let  $m$  be the result of parsing the child subtree. Pop the previous skipping state off from the skipping state stack, and assign it to *skip*. Let the result of parsing this node be  $m$ .
24. Expectation node (Fig. 3.11). Apply this algorithm recursively to the child subtree of this node. Let  $m$  be the result of parsing the child subtree. If  $m$  was a failure match, throw *ExpectationFailure* exception, otherwise, let  $m$  be the result of parsing this node.
25. Action node (Fig. 3.11). Apply this algorithm recursively to the child subtree of this node. Let  $m$  be the result of parsing the child subtree. If  $m$  was a successful match, do the following:
- (a) Let *matchBegin* be the start of the matched lexeme and *matchEnd* be one past the end of the matched lexeme. Let *pass* be **true**.
  - (b) Call the semantic action associated with this action node by passing pointers *matchBegin* and *matchEnd*, and reference to *pass* as arguments.
  - (c) If the semantic action set *pass* to **false**, let the result of parsing this node be **match(false)**.

Otherwise,  $m$  was a failure match, so if this action has an associated failure action, call it.

In any case, let the result of parsing this node be  $m$ .

### 3.6.5 Grammars for Cmajor Language Elements

Let us take a look at some language elements of Cmajor programming language and how they are represented using `cmpg` grammars.

#### 3.6.5.1 Basic Types

The grammar for parsing names of basic types is one of the simplest. It consists of an alternative for each keyword of a basic type. The semantic action associated with a keyword of the type creates an abstract syntax tree node for it and assigns it to the synthesized attribute of the rule, that is exposed to semantic actions as an identifier *value*:

```

1 grammar BasicTypeGrammar
2 {
3     BasicType: Cm::Ast::Node*
4         ::= keyword("bool"){ value = new Cm::Ast::BoolNode(span); }
5         |   keyword("sbyte"){ value = new Cm::Ast::SByteNode(span); }
6         |   keyword("byte"){ value = new Cm::Ast::ByteNode(span); }
7         |   keyword("short"){ value = new Cm::Ast::ShortNode(span); }
8         |   keyword("ushort"){ value = new Cm::Ast::UShortNode(span); }
9         |   keyword("int"){ value = new Cm::Ast::IntNode(span); }
10        |   keyword("uint"){ value = new Cm::Ast::UIntNode(span); }
11        |   keyword("long"){ value = new Cm::Ast::LongNode(span); }
12        |   keyword("ulong"){ value = new Cm::Ast::ULongNode(span); }
13        |   keyword("float"){ value = new Cm::Ast::FloatNode(span); }
14        |   keyword("double"){ value = new Cm::Ast::DoubleNode(span); }
15        |   keyword("char"){ value = new Cm::Ast::CharNode(span); }
16        |   keyword("wchar"){ value = new Cm::Ast::WCharNode(span); }
17        |   keyword("uchar"){ value = new Cm::Ast::UCharNode(span); }
18        |   keyword("void"){ value = new Cm::Ast::VoidNode(span); }
19    ;
20 }
```

*span* is a name for a structure exposed to semantic actions that represents a range of input positions. It contains four integer attributes:

1. *fileIndex* is an opaque integer given by user in the main parsing function that identifies the file being parsed.
2. *lineNumber* is the line number of the matched lexeme counted from the start of the file being parsed.
3. *start* is the starting position of the matched lexeme.
4. *end* is the ending position of the matched lexeme.

The start and end positions are measured from the beginning of the whole input string given in the main parsing function.

### 3.6.5.2 Type Expressions

Next we go through the composition of type expressions. In the beginning of type expression grammar there are declarations that begin with the keyword **using**. They are *rule links*. A rule link refers to a rule defined in another grammar. It brings the name of a rule to the scope of the grammar being defined.

```

1 grammar TypeExprGrammar
2 {
3     using BasicTypeGrammar.BasicType;
4     using IdentifierGrammar.Identifier;
5     using IdentifierGrammar.QualifiedId;
6     using TemplateGrammar.TemplateId;
7     using ExpressionGrammar.Expression;
8     ...

```

The *TypeExpr* rule is the start rule of the *TypeExprGrammar* grammar:

```

1     ...
2     TypeExpr(
3         ParsingContext* ctx,
4         var std::unique_ptr<Cm::Ast::DerivedTypeExprNode> node
5     ): Cm::Ast::Node*
6     ::= empty
7     {
8         ctx->BeginParsingTypeExpr();
9         node.reset(new Cm::Ast::DerivedTypeExprNode(span));
10    }
11    PrefixTypeExpr(ctx, node.get())
12    {
13        node->GetSpan().SetEnd(span.End());
14        value = Cm::Ast::MakeTypeExprNode(node.release());
15        ctx->EndParsingTypeExpr();
16    }
17    /
18    {
19        ctx->EndParsingTypeExpr();
20    }
21    ;
22    ...

```

The *TypeExpr* rule has one inherited attribute, *ctx*, of type *ParsingContext\**, and one local variable, *node*, of type *std::unique\_ptr<DerivedTypeExprNode>*.

The body of the rule begins with keyword **empty** that matches anything without consuming any input. The semantic action associated with it constructs an abstract syntax tree node *DerivedTypeExprNode*, that eventually becomes the synthesized attribute of this rule, if the rule happens to match. The reason that the type of *node* is a unique pointer and not an ordinary one is that we don't want to leak memory in the case that the rule does not match.

The type of the inherited attribute *ctx\**, *ParsingContext*, is a class that is used throughout parsing. It contains Boolean flags that guide the parsing, stacks of Boolean flags that hold the previous values of those flags, and member functions for manipulating those flags.

For example, member function *BeginParsingTypeExpr()* pushes the old value of *parsingTypeExpr* flag to the stack and sets the *parsingTypeExpr* flag to **true**. Correspondingly the *EndParsingTypeExpr()* member function pops the previous value of the *parsingTypeExpr* flag off from the stack and assign it to *parsingTypeExpr*. The reason that the flags are manipulated using stacks is that parsing is a highly recursive process, and we may have several instances of the same rule active at one time. Therefore we must push the old value to the stack when we start parsing a rule, and pop it off when we end parsing that rule.

In line 11 we match the *PrefixTypeExpr* rule recursively. We pass *ctx* and pointer to *node* as arguments to the *PrefixTypeExpr* rule. They become inherited attributes of that rule.

The semantic action associated with the *PrefixTypeExpr* nonterminal sets the value of the synthesized attribute of the rule. If the type expression is a simple one, *value* actually receives the simple type expression node contained by *DerivedTypeExprNode*, otherwise *value* receives the full *DerivedTypeExprNode*.

The semantic action after the / symbol starting line 18 is a *failure action*. It is executed if matching the rule fails. Thus we call *BeginParsingTypeExpr()* function at the start of the rule, and *EndParsingTypeExpr()* function at the end of the rule regardless whether matching the rule succeeds or fails.

The next rule of the *TypeExprGrammar* grammar is the *PrefixTypeExpr* rule:

```

1      ...
2      PrefixTypeExpr (
3          ParsingContext* ctx , Cm::Ast::DerivedTypeExprNode* node)
4          ::= keyword("const"){ node->AddConst(); }
5             PostfixTypeExpr(ctx , node):c
6             |   PostfixTypeExpr(ctx , node)
7             ;
8      ...

```

A *prefix* type expression is a *postfix* type expression optionally prefixed by the keyword **const**. It has two inherited attributes, a *parsing context* and a pointer to the abstract syntax tree node we are constructing.

A *postfix* type expression is a *primary* type expression followed by zero or more *postfix type operators* ., &&, &, \*, and []:

```

1      ...
2      PostfixTypeExpr (
3          ParsingContext* ctx , Cm::Ast::DerivedTypeExprNode* node ,
4          var Span s)
5          ::= PrimaryTypeExpr(ctx , node){ s = span; }
6             (
7                 '.' Identifier!{ ... }
8                 |   "&&" { node->AddRvalueRef(); }
9                 |   "&" { node->AddReference(); }
10                |   "*" { node->AddPointer(); }
11                |   '[' { node->AddArray(); }
12                |   Expression(ctx):dim { node->AddArrayDimensionNode(dim); }
13                |   ']'
14            ) *
15            ;
16      ...

```

A *primary* type expression is either a name of a basic type, i.e. **bool**, **sbyte**, etc., a template identifier such as *foo*<**int**>, a name of a type, *Symbol* for instance, or a parenthesized *prefix* type expression.

```

1      ...
2      PrimaryTypeExpr (
3          ParsingContext* ctx , Cm::Ast::DerivedTypeExprNode* node)
4          ::= BasicType{ node->SetBaseTypeExpr(BasicType); }
5             | TemplateId(ctx){ node->SetBaseTypeExpr(TemplateId); }
6             | Identifier{ node->SetBaseTypeExpr(Identifier); }
7             | '('{ node->AddLeftParen(); } PrefixTypeExpr(ctx, node)! ')' '{
              node->AddRightParen(); }
8         ;
9     }
```

### 3.6.5.3 Template Identifiers

The *template identifier* has one inherited attribute: **ctx** of type **ParsingContext\***, and one local variable **templateId** of type **std::unique\_ptr<TemplateIdNode>** that becomes the value of the inherited attribute of the rule.

```

1  grammar TemplateGrammar
2  {
3      using IdentifierGrammar.Identifier;
4      using IdentifierGrammar.QualifiedId;
5      using TypeExprGrammar.TypeExpr;
6
7      TemplateId(ParsingContext* ctx ,
8          var std::unique_ptr<TemplateIdNode> templateId): Cm::Ast::Node*
9          ::= empty{ ctx->BeginParsingTemplateId(); }
10         (
11             QualifiedId:subject
12             {
13                 templateId.reset(new TemplateIdNode(span, subject));
14             }
15             '<',
16             ( TypeExpr(ctx):templateArg
17                 {
18                     templateId->AddTemplateArgument(templateArg);
19                 }
20                 '%',
21                 ',',
22             )
23             '>',
24         )
25         {
26             ctx->EndParsingTemplateId();
27             value = templateId.release();
28             value->GetSpan().SetEnd(span.End());
29         }
30     ...
```

At the beginning of the rule *BeginParsingTemplateId()* member function of the *ParsingContext* is called. Correspondingly at the end of the rule *EndParsingTemplateId()* member function of the *ParsingContext* is called regardless whether the parsing succeeds or fails. *BeginParsingTemplateId()* function pushes the value of member variable *parsingTemplateId* to the stack and sets *parsingTemplateId* to **true**. *EndParsingTemplateId()* function pops the previous value of member variable *parsingTemplateId* off from the stack and assigns it to *parsingTemplateId*.

Template identifier consists of a qualified identifier, *foo*, *bar.bazz*, etc., followed a list of one or more *type expressions* between angle brackets. Thus the *TypeExpr* rule is called recursively by this rule.

```

1      ...
2      /
3      {
4          ctx->EndParsingTemplateId();
5      }
6      ;
7      ...

```

#### 3.6.5.4 Expressions

In the beginning of *Expression* grammar there are some rule link declarations. These are the external rules that this grammar uses:

```

1 grammar ExpressionGrammar
2 {
3     using LiteralGrammar.Literal;
4     using BasicTypeGrammar.BasicType;
5     using IdentifierGrammar.Identifier;
6     using IdentifierGrammar.QualifiedId;
7     using TemplateGrammar.TemplateId;
8     using TypeExprGrammar.TypeExpr;
9     ...

```

The start rule of the grammar is the *Expression* rule. It has one inherited attribute *ctx* of type *ParsingContext*.

An *expression* consists of an *equivalence expression*. The value of *ctx* is passed as an argument to the *Equivalence* rule. After matching *Equivalence*, the synthesized attribute of the *Expression* rule is set to the value of the synthesized attribute of the *Equivalence* rule.

```

1      ...
2      Expression(ParsingContext* ctx): Cm::Ast::Node*
3          ::= Equivalence(ctx){ value = Equivalence; }
4      ;
5      ...

```

An *equivalence expression* consists of a nonempty sequence of *implication expressions* separated by  $\langle = \rangle$  symbols:  $\alpha_1 \langle = \rangle \alpha_2 \langle = \rangle \dots \langle = \rangle \alpha_k$ . If  $k > 1$  and we are not parsing a concept definition, or we are parsing a template identifier, we reject the input by setting *pass* to **false**. This is the way to make semantic decisions during parsing. An expression of the form  $\alpha_1 \langle = \rangle \alpha_2$  is accepted only in a concept definition. Sole *implication expression*  $\alpha_1$  is accepted always.

```

1      ...
2      Equivalence (ParsingContext* ctx,
3          var std::unique_ptr<Node> expr,
4          var Span s): Cm::Ast::Node*
5          ::=
6          (
7              Implication (ctx): left { expr.reset (left); s = span; }
8              (
9                  "<=>"
10                 {
11                     if (!ctx->ParsingConcept ())
12                     || ctx->ParsingTemplateId ())
13                     pass = false;
14                 }
15                 Implication (ctx): right !
16                 {
17                     s.SetEnd (span.End ());
18                     expr.reset (new EquivalenceNode (s, expr.release (),
19                         right));
20                 }
21             ) *
22         )
23         {
24             value = expr.release ();
25         }
26     ;
27     ...

```

An *implication* expression is of the form  $\beta_1(=> \beta_2(=> \dots(=> \beta_k)))$ . The parentheses show that operands of an implication associate to the right. We can express such right associative expressions by using *right recursion*, as in the following *Implication* rule:

```

1      ...
2      Implication (ParsingContext* ctx, var std::unique_ptr<Node> expr,
3          var Span s): Cm::Ast::Node*
4          ::=
5          (
6              Disjunction (ctx): left { expr.reset (left); s = span; }
7              (
8                  ">="
9                  {
10                     if (!ctx->ParsingConcept ())
11                     || ctx->ParsingTemplateId ())
12                     pass = false;
13                 }
14                 Implication (ctx): right !
15                 {
16                     s.SetEnd (span.End ());
17                     expr.reset (new ImplicationNode (s, expr.release (),
18                         right));
19                 }
20             ) ?
21         )
22         {
23             value = expr.release ();
24         }
25     ;
26     ...

```



A right recursive rule is of the form

$$p \rightarrow q (op p)?$$

where *op* is an operator that associates to the right. Like in *equivalence* expression, the implication expression of the form  $\beta_1 \Rightarrow \beta_2$  is also accepted only in concept definitions. Sole *disjunction* expression  $\beta_1$  is accepted always.

The *disjunction* rule rejects meaningless statements like  $a||b = c$ ;, where  $a||b$  is an *lvalue*. That is, when we are parsing the left part of an assignment statement, we set *parsingLvalue* flag is **true**, so in that case we reject expression of the form  $a||b$ .

```

1      ...
2      Disjunction(ParsingContext* ctx, var std::unique_ptr<Node> expr,
3          var Span s): Cm::Ast::Node*
4          ::=
5          (    Conjunction(ctx):left { expr.reset(left); s = span; }
6              (    "||"
7                  {
8                      if (ctx->ParsingLvalue()
9                          || ctx->ParsingSimpleStatement()
10                         && !ctx->ParsingArguments())
11                          pass = false;
12                  }
13                  Conjunction(ctx):right!
14                  {
15                      s.SetEnd(span.End());
16                      expr.reset(new DisjunctionNode(s, expr.release(),
17                                              right));
18                  }
19              ) *
20          )
21          {
22              value = expr.release();
23          }
24      ;
25      ...

```

Rules for other expressions are not shown, because there is nothing new in them. However, we show the syntax of *primary* expression. A *primary* expression consists one of

1. a parenthesized *expression*,
2. a *literal*,
3. a name of a basic type,
4. a **sizeof** expression,
5. a **cast** expression,
6. a **construct** expression,
7. a **new** expression,

8. a *template identifier*,
9. an *identifier*,
10. keyword **this**,
11. keyword **base** or a
12. **typename** expression.

```

1      Primary(ParsingContext* ctx): Cm::Ast::Node*
2          ::= ( '(' Expression(ctx) ')' ) { value = Expression; }
3          |
4          | Literal{ value = Literal; }
5          | BasicType{ value = BasicType; }
6          | SizeOfExpr(ctx){ value = SizeOfExpr; }
7          | CastExpr(ctx){ value = CastExpr; }
8          | ConstructExpr(ctx){ value = ConstructExpr; }
9          | NewExpr(ctx){ value = NewExpr; }
10         | TemplateId(ctx){ value = TemplateId; }
11         | Identifier{ value = Identifier; }
12         | keyword("this"){ value = new ThisNode(span); }
13         | keyword("base"){ value = new BaseNode(span); }
14         | (keyword("typename") '(' Expression(ctx):subject ')' )
15         {
16             value = new TypeNameNode(span, subject);
17         }
18         ;

```

### 3.6.5.5 Statements

The grammar for statements begins with rule link declarations:

```

1 grammar StatementGrammar
2 {
3     using stdlib.identifier;
4     using KeywordGrammar.Keyword;
5     using ExpressionGrammar.Expression;
6     using TypeExprGrammar.TypeExpr;
7     using IdentifierGrammar.Identifier;
8     using ExpressionGrammar.ArgumentList;
9     ...

```

Here is the definition of the *Statement* rule. There are branches for each kind of statement that Cmajor language contains.

```

1     ...
2     Statement(ParsingContext* ctx): Cm::Ast::StatementNode*
3         ::= LabeledStatement(ctx){ value = LabeledStatement; }
4         | ControlStatement(ctx){ value = ControlStatement; }
5         | TypedefStatement(ctx){ value = TypedefStatement; }
6         | SimpleStatement(ctx){ value = SimpleStatement; }
7         | AssignmentStatement(ctx){ value = AssignmentStatement; }
8         | ConstructionStatement(ctx){ value = ConstructionStatement; }
9         | DeleteStatement(ctx){ value = DeleteStatement; }
10        | DestroyStatement(ctx){ value = DestroyStatement; }
11        | ThrowStatement(ctx){ value = ThrowStatement; }
12        | TryStatement(ctx){ value = TryStatement; }
13        | AssertStatement(ctx){ value = AssertStatement; }
14        | ConditionalCompilationStatement(ctx)
15        {
16            value = ConditionalCompilationStatement;
17        }
18    ;
19    ...

```

The *SimpleStatement* rule consists of an optional expression. Thus it is the rule that matches also an empty statement consisting a sole semicolon.

```

1     ...
2     SimpleStatement(ParsingContext* ctx,
3         var std::unique_ptr<Node> expr): Cm::Ast::StatementNode*
4         ::= (empty{ ctx->PushParsingSimpleStatement(true); }
5             (Expression(ctx){ expr.reset(Expression); })? ';'')
6         {
7             ctx->PopParsingSimpleStatement();
8             value = new SimpleStatementNode(span, expr.release());
9         }
10        /
11        {
12            ctx->PopParsingSimpleStatement();
13        }
14    ;
15    ...

```

The *ControlStatement* rule consists of cases for each kind of control statement.

```

1      ...
2      ControlStatement(ParsingContext* ctx): Cm::Ast::StatementNode*
3          ::= ReturnStatement(ctx){ value = ReturnStatement; }
4          |   ConditionalStatement(ctx){ value = ConditionalStatement; }
5          |   SwitchStatement(ctx){ value = SwitchStatement; }
6          |   WhileStatement(ctx){ value = WhileStatement; }
7          |   DoStatement(ctx){ value = DoStatement; }
8          |   RangeForStatement(ctx){ value = RangeForStatement; }
9          |   ForStatement(ctx){ value = ForStatement; }
10         |   CompoundStatement(ctx){ value = CompoundStatement; }
11         |   BreakStatement(ctx){ value = BreakStatement; }
12         |   ContinueStatement(ctx){ value = ContinueStatement; }
13         |   GotoCaseStatement(ctx){ value = GotoCaseStatement; }
14         |   GotoDefaultStatement(ctx){ value = GotoDefaultStatement; }
15         |   GotoStatement(ctx){ value = GotoStatement; }
16         ;
17     ...

```

We are showing just the definition of the return statement and while statement rules.

A return statement consists of keyword **return** followed by an optional expression and a semicolon. The *ReturnStatement* rule constructs an abstract syntax tree node called *ReturnStatementNode*, that takes the input position and synthesized attribute of the *Expression* rule as arguments, and assigns it to the synthesized attribute of the rule. The exclamation mark after the semicolon disables backtracking. If the semicolon is missing in input, an *ExpectationFailure* exception containing exact input position is thrown.

```

1      ...
2      ReturnStatement(ParsingContext* ctx): Cm::Ast::StatementNode*
3          ::= (keyword("return") Expression(ctx)? ';' '!')
4          {
5              value = new ReturnStatementNode(span, Expression);
6          }
7          ;
8      ...

```

A while statement consists of keyword **while**, a Boolean expression and a statement. The exclamation marks after the parentheses, and the calls of the expression rule and statement rule disable backtracking and force matching those constructs. The *WhileStatement* rule constructs an abstract syntax tree node called *WhileStatementNode* that takes the synthesized attributes of the *Expression* and *Statement* rules as arguments, and assigns it to the synthesized attribute of the rule.

```

1      ...
2      WhileStatement(ParsingContext* ctx): Cm::Ast::StatementNode*
3          ::= (keyword("while") '(' '! Expression(ctx)! ')' '! Statement(ctx)!')
4          {
5              value = new WhileStatementNode(span, Expression, Statement);
6          }
7          ;
8      ...

```

### 3.6.6 Abstract Syntax Tree Class Hierarchy

There are three abstract node classes in the abstract syntax tree node class hierarchy: *Node*, *UnaryNode* and *BinaryNode*.

The *Node* class is the root of the abstract syntax tree node class hierarchy. The *UnaryNode* class is an abstract syntax tree node that has one child node. The *BinaryNode* class is an abstract syntax tree node that has two child nodes.

Node

UnaryNode

BinaryNode

#### 3.6.6.1 Node Classes for Basic Types

There is a node class for each basic type:

Node

BoolNode

SByteNode

ByteNode

ShortNode

UShortNode

IntNode

UIntNode

LongNode

ULongNode

FloatNode

DoubleNode

CharNode

WCharNode

UCharNode

VoidNode

#### 3.6.6.2 Literal Node Classes

There is a node class for each kind of literal:

Node

BooleanLiteralNode

SByteLiteralNode

ByteLiteralNode

ShortLiteralNode

UShortLiteralNode

IntLiteralNode

UIntLiteralNode

LongLiteralNode

ULongLiteralNode

FloatLiteralNode

```
DoubleLiteralNode
CharLiteralNode
StringLiteralNode
WStringLiteralNode
UStringLiteralNode
NullLiteralNode
```

### 3.6.6.3 Expression Node Classes

There is a node class for each kind of Cmajor expression:

Node

```
CastNode
IsNode
AsNode
NewNode
ConstructNode
ThisNode
BaseNode
UnaryNode
    InvokeNode
    IndexNode
    DotNode
    ArrowNode
    PostfixIncNode
    PostfixDecNode
    DerefNode
    AddOfNode
    NotNode
    UnaryPlusNode
    UnaryMinusNode
    ComplementNode
    PrefixIncNode
    PrefixDecNode
    SizeOfNode
    TypeNameNode
BinaryNode
    EquivalenceNode
    ImplicationNode
    DisjunctionNode
    ConjunctionNode
    BitOrNode
    BitXorNode
    BitAndNode
    EqualNode
    NotEqualNode
    LessNode
```

```

GreaterNode
LessOrEqualNode
GreaterOrEqualNode
ShiftLeftNode
ShiftRightNode
AddNode
SubNode
MulNode
DivNode
RemNode

```

### 3.6.6.4 Statement Node Classes

There is a node class for each kind of Cmajor statement:

Node

```

LabelNode
CatchNode
CondCompSymbolNode
CondCompilationPartNode
CondCompExprNode
    CondCompNotNode
    CondCompPrimaryNode
    CondCompBinExprNode
        CondCompDisjunctionNode
        CondCompConjunctionNode

```

StatementNode

```

SimpleStatementNode
ReturnStatementNode
ConditionalStatementNode
SwitchStatementNode
CaseStatementNode
DefaultStatementNode
GotoCaseStatementNode
GotoDefaultStatementNode
WhileStatementNode
DoStatementNode
ForStatementNode
RangeForStatementNode
CompoundStatementNode
BreakStatementNode
ContinueStatementNode
GotoStatementNode
TypedefStatementNode
AssignmentStatementNode
ConstructionStatementNode
DeleteStatementNode

```

```

DestroyStatementNode
ThrowStatementNode
TryStatementNode
ExitTryStatementNode
BeginCatchStatementNode
AssertStatementNode
CondCompStatementNode

```

### 3.6.6.5 Concept Node Classes

Node classes relating to concepts:

Node

```

AxiomStatementNode
AxiomNode
ConceptIdNode
ConceptNode
    SameConceptNode
    DerivedConceptNode
    ConvertibleConceptNode
    ExplicitlyConvertibleConceptNode
    CommonConceptNode
    NonReferenceTypeConceptNode
ConstraintNode
    WhereConstraintNode
    IsConstraintNode
    MultiParamConstraintNode
    TypeNameConstraintNode
    IntrinsicConstraintNode
        SameConstraintNode
        DerivedConstaraintNode
        ConvertibleConstraintNode
        ExplicitlyConvertibleConstraintNode
        CommonConstraintNode
        NonReferenceTypeConstraintNode
    SignatureConstraintNode
        ConstructorConstraintNode
        DestructorConstraintNode
        MemberFunctionConstraintNode
        FunctionConstraintNode
    BinaryConstraintNode
        DisjunctiveConstraintNode
        ConjunctiveConstraintNode

```



### 3.6.6.6 Class and Function Node Classes

Node classes relating to classes and functions:

Node

- MemberVariableNode
- FunctionGroupIdNode
- FunctionNode
  - StaticConstructorNode
  - ConstructorNode
  - DestructorNode
  - MemberFunctionNode
  - ConversionFunctionNode
- ClassNode
- InitializerNode
  - MemberInitializerNode
  - BaseInitializerNode
  - ThisInitializerNode

### 3.6.6.7 Other Node Classes

Other kinds of node classes:

Node

- CompileUnitNode
- ConstantNode
- DelegateNode
- ClassDeletateNode
- DerivedTypeExprNode
- EnumConstantNode
- EnumTypeNode
- IdentifierNode
- InterfaceNode
- NamespaceNode
- AliasNode
- NamespaceImportNode
- ParameterNode
- TemplateParameterNode
- TemplateIdNode
- TypedefNode

### 3.6.7 Example

The following example shows the result of parsing a function and constructing an abstract syntax tree for it.

**Example 3.6.3.** The following Cmajor function is used as example input to the parser:

```

1 public nothrow int StrLen(const char* s)
2 {
3     int len = 0;
4     if (s != null)
5     {
6         while (*s != '\0')
7         {
8             ++len;
9             ++s;
10        }
11    }
12    return len;
13 }
```

The following listing shows the resulting abstract syntax tree for parsing the *StrLen* function:

```

FunctionNode
  FunctionGroupIdNode(StrLen)
  ParameterNodeList
    ParameterNode
      DerivedTypeExprNode
        DerivationList
          Derivation.const
          Derivation.pointer
        CharNode
          IdentifierNode(s)
    CompoundStatementNode
      ConstructionStatementNode
        IntNode
        IdentifierNode(len)
        SByteLiteralNode(0)
      ConditionalStatementNode
        NotEqualNode
          IdentifierNode(s)
          NullLiteralNode
        CompoundStatementNode
          WhileStatementNode
            NotEqualNode
              DerefNode
                IdentifierNode(s)
                CharLiteralNode('\0')
            CompoundStatementNode
              SimpleStatementNode
```

```

        PrefixIncNode
            IdentifierNode(len)
    SimpleStatementNode
        PrefixIncNode
            IdentifierNode(s)
    ReturnStatementNode
        IdentifierNode(len)

```

The parser constructs an abstract syntax tree node called *FunctionNode* for the function. The *FunctionNode* contains:

1. the name of the function group that the function belongs to: *FunctionGroupIdNode*(StrLen).
2. nodes for each parameter that the function takes. Each *ParameterNode* consists of nodes for the type and the name of the parameter.
3. node for the body of the function: *CompoundStatementNode*.

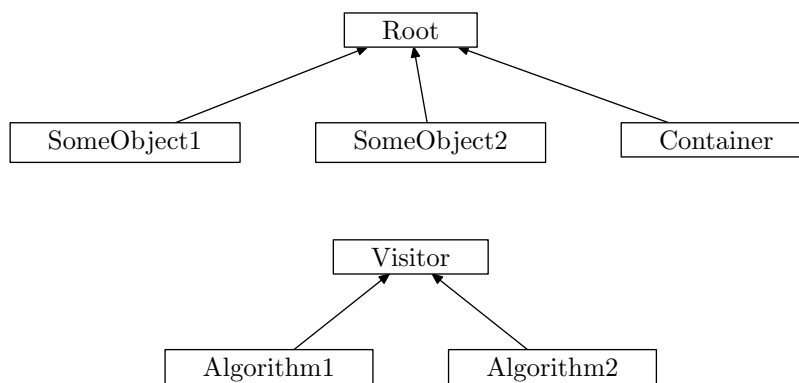
The body consists of an construction statement, an **if** statement and a return statement. The **if** statement consists of a **while** statement that has two simple statements in it. Each simple statement contains a prefix increment expression.

### 3.7 Iterating Through the Abstract Syntax Trees using Visitor Design Pattern

Many of the following phases of compilation iterate through the abstract syntax trees generated by the parser. Technically the iteration is done using the *visitor* design pattern.

The visitor design pattern enables creation of several algorithms that operate on a object hierarchy without touching the object hierarchy. In visitor pattern, each object that is part of the object hierarchy implements a virtual *Accept* member function that takes a parameter of a class derived from common *Visitor* class. *Accept* calls *Visit* member function of a visitor by passing itself as a parameter to the *Visit* member function.

Figure 3.13: Visitor



```
1  class Root
2  {
3  public:
4      virtual void Accept(Visitor& visitor) = 0;
5  };
6
7  class SomeObject1 : public Root
8  {
9  public:
10     void Accept(Visitor& visitor) override
11     {
12         visitor.Visit(*this);
13     }
14 };
15
16 class SomeObject2 : public Root
17 {
18 public:
19     void Accept(Visitor& visitor) override
20     {
21         visitor.Visit(*this);
22     }
23 };
24
25 class Container : public Root
26 {
27 public:
28     void Accept(Visitor& visitor) override
29     {
30         o1->Accept(visitor);
31         o2->Accept(visitor);
32         visitor.Visit(*this);
33     }
34 private:
35     SomeObject1* o1;
36     SomeObject2* o2;
37 };
38
39 class Visitor
40 {
41 public:
42     virtual void Visit(SomeObject1& someObject1) {}
43     virtual void Visit(SomeObject2& someObject2) {}
44     virtual void Visit(Container& container) {}
45 };
```

```

1  class Algorithm1 : public Visitor
2  {
3  public:
4      void Visit(SomeObject1& someObject1) override
5      {
6          // algorithm 1 for SomeObject1
7      }
8      void Visit(SomeObject2& someObject2) override
9      {
10         // algorithm 1 for SomeObject2
11     }
12     void Visit(Container& container) override
13     {
14         // algorithm 1 for Container
15     }
16 };
17
18 class Algorithm2 : public Visitor
19 {
20 public:
21     void Visit(SomeObject1& someObject1) override
22     {
23         // algorithm 2 for SomeObject1
24     }
25     void Visit(SomeObject2& someObject2) override
26     {
27         // algorithm 2 for SomeObject2
28     }
29     void Visit(Container& container) override
30     {
31         // algorithm 2 for Container
32     }
33 };
34
35 void DoAlgorithm1(Container& c)
36 {
37     Algorithm1 algorithm1;
38     c.Accept(algorithm1);
39 }
40
41 void DoAlgorithm2(Container& c)
42 {
43     Algorithm2 algorithm2;
44     c.Accept(algorithm2);
45 }

```

### 3.7.1 Visitor Pattern Applied in Cmajor

In Cmajor the visitor pattern is extended by providing two visiting points for containers. When starting to visit a container, visitor's `BeginVisit(Container&)` member function is called. Then the contained elements are visited by calling their `Accept` member functions. Finally, when ending to visit a container, visitor's `EndVisit(Container&)` member function

is called.

**Example 3.7.1.** Visiting a Namespace in Cmajor.

```
1  class NamespaceNode
2  {
3  public :
4      virtual void Accept( Visitor& visitor )
5      {
6          visitor.BeginVisit(*this);
7          for (Node* node : members)
8              {
9                  node->Accept( visitor );
10             }
11         visitor.EndVisit(*this);
12     }
13 private :
14     std::vector<Node*> members;
15 };
```

## Chapter 4

# Symbol Table

The next phase of compilation after parsing is constructing a symbol table.

### 4.1 Symbol Table Structure

A symbol table consists of a tree of symbols. There are many kinds of symbols. Container symbols like class and namespace symbols form the interior nodes of the symbol tree. Simple kind of symbols like constant and parameter symbols form the leaf nodes of the symbol tree.

#### 4.1.1 Symbol Class Hierarchy

The following listing shows the most important kind of symbols:

```
Symbol
  FunctionGroupSymbol
  ConceptGroupSymbol
  ConstantSymbol
  EnumConstantSymbol
  TypedefSymbol
  VariableSymbol
    LocalVariableSymbol
    MemberVariableSymbol
    ParameterSymbol
  ContainerSymbol
    FunctionSymbol
    NamespaceSymbol
    ConceptSymbol
    TypeSymbol
      BasicTypeSymbol
      ...
      ClassTypeSymbol
        TemplateTypeSymbol
      DerivedTypeSymbol
      EnumTypeSymbol
      InterfaceTypeSymbol
```

### 4.1.2 Properties of Symbols

We inspect properties of symbols that make possible symbol algorithms.

#### 4.1.2.1 Properties Common To All Symbols

The most important attribute common to each kind of symbol is its name. Another property common to all symbols is a pointer to the symbol's parent symbol in the symbol table. The global namespace symbol is the root of the symbol tree. The name of the global namespace symbol is empty and its parent property is null. Other symbols have a nonempty name and a nonnull parent property.

With the name and parent properties the *full name* of a symbol can be computed. The algorithm returns a string that consists of nonempty names of symbols along a path from the global namespace symbol to the symbol separated by dot characters. For example, the full name of the global namespace symbol is an empty string, and the full name of a class symbol whose name is `gamma` that is contained by namespace symbol whose name is `beta` that is contained by a namespace symbol whose name is `alpha` that is contained by the global namespace symbol is `alpha.beta.gamma`.

**Algorithm 4.1.1.** Computing the Full Name of a Symbol.

1. If the symbol's parent property is not null let  $p$  be the full name of symbol's parent. Otherwise let  $p$  be empty string.
2. If  $p$  is empty string, the full name of the symbol is the name of the symbol. Otherwise the full name of the symbol is  $p$  concatenated with "." and the name of the symbol.

With the parent property also an associated namespace symbol for a symbol can be computed as follows:

**Algorithm 4.1.2.** Computing an Associated Namespace Symbol for a Symbol.

1. Let  $s$  be the symbol for which to compute the associated namespace symbol.
2. If  $s$  is a namespace symbol, return  $s$ .
3. Otherwise, if the parent symbol of  $s$  is not null, compute the associated namespace symbol for the parent symbol of  $s$  and return it.
4. Otherwise, throw an exception.

#### 4.1.2.2 Properties of Container Symbols

Each container symbol, say  $S$ , like a namespace or a class symbol, has a *container scope*, say  $C$ , that keeps a mapping from names of contained symbols to contained symbols themselves. A container scope  $C$  also has pointers to its *base scope* and its *parent scope*. If  $S$  is a class type symbol, the base scope of  $C$  is the container scope of the base class symbol of  $S$ . The parent scope of  $C$  is the container scope of the parent symbol of  $S$ . A container scope also contains a pointer to its owning container symbol.



### 4.1.3 Symbol Name Lookup

Symbol name lookup searches a symbol from a number of container scopes using a possibly qualified name, a scope kind, and kinds of a symbols to search. A scope kind is a combination of following values: **this**, **base** and **parent**. The kind of symbol to search can be one of many values. For example, lookup: **all** symbols, only **type** symbols, only **namespace** symbols, only **variable** and **parameter** symbols, etc.

Let  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  be the components of a qualified name to search. The components are separated by dots. For example, if the name to search is **alpha**, then  $n = 1$  and  $c_1 = \mathbf{alpha}$ . Another example: if the name to search is **alpha.beta**, then  $n = 2$ ,  $c_1 = \mathbf{alpha}$  and  $c_2 = \mathbf{beta}$ .

#### 4.1.3.1 Unqualified Name Lookup

If  $n = 1$ , we have a simple name and the symbol name lookup performs an *unqualified name lookup*:

**Algorithm 4.1.3.** Unqualified Name Lookup. The algorithm returns a symbol if the search is successful, or null otherwise.

1. Let  $s$  be the name to search,  $t$  be the container scope from which the search begins,  $p$  be the set of scope kinds to search, and  $k$  be the kind of symbol to search.
2. If  $s$  is found from the mapping of  $t$ , let  $m$  be the mapped symbol. If the symbol kind of  $m$  is equal to  $k$ , return symbol  $m$ .
3. If  $p$  contains the **base** scope and the base scope of  $t$  is not null, perform unqualified name lookup from the base scope of  $t$ . If that search is successful, return the symbol found.
4. If  $p$  contains the **parent** scope and the parent scope of  $t$  is not null, perform unqualified name lookup from the parent scope of  $t$ . If that search is successful, return the symbol found.
5. Otherwise, return null.

#### 4.1.3.2 Qualified Name Lookup

If  $n > 1$ , we have a qualified name of at least two components and the symbol name lookup performs a *qualified name lookup*:

**Algorithm 4.1.4.** Qualified Name Lookup. The algorithm returns a symbol if the search is successful, or null otherwise.

1. Let  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  be the components of a qualified name to search ( $n > 1$ ),  $t$  and  $u$  be the container scope from which the search begins,  $p$  be the set of scope kinds to search, and  $k$  be the kind of symbol to search, flag  $a$  be **true**, symbol  $s$  be null.
2. For  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :
  - (a) If  $t$  is not null, perform unqualified name lookup (algorithm 4.1.3) for name  $c_i$ , using scope  $t$  and scope kind **this**. If  $i < n$ , set the kind of symbol to search to

only **container** symbols, otherwise, if  $i = n$ , set the kind of symbol to search to  $k$ . If the search was successful, let  $s$  be the returned symbol, and let  $t$  be the container scope of  $s$ . Otherwise let  $t$  be null and let  $a$  be **false**.

3. If  $s$  is null or  $a$  is **false**, and if **parent** scope is in  $p$  and the parent scope of  $u$  is not null, perform qualified name lookup (this algorithm) for the parent scope of  $u$ . If the search was successful, return the symbol found. Otherwise return null.
4. Otherwise return symbol  $s$ .

#### 4.1.4 Opening and Closing Container Symbols

A symbol table also keeps track of *currently open container symbol* and a *stack of open container symbols*. Initially the currently open container symbol is the global namespace symbol (the root of the symbol tree), and the stack of open container symbols is empty.

A nonnamespace container symbol is opened by pushing the currently open container symbol to the stack of open container symbols, and then setting the container symbol as the currently open container symbol. Any container symbol is closed by popping a container symbol from the stack of open container symbols and setting it as the currently open container symbol.

##### 4.1.4.1 Opening a Namespace

A namespace is opened using the following algorithm:

**Algorithm 4.1.5.** Opening a Namespace. The algorithm sets the currently open container symbol of a symbol table.

1. Let  $n$  be a possibly qualified namespace name to open. Let  $t$  be a symbol table to which to open the namespace.
2. If  $n$  is an empty string, push the currently open container symbol to the stack of open container symbols of  $t$ , and then set the global namespace symbol as the currently open container symbol of  $t$ .
3. Otherwise lookup  $n$  (see section 4.1.3) from the container scope of the currently open container symbol using scope kind **this** and setting the kind of symbols to search as **namespace** symbols. If the search was successful, let  $s$  be the symbol found, otherwise let  $s$  be null.
4. If  $s$  is a namespace symbol, push the currently open container symbol to the stack of open container symbols of  $t$ , and then set  $s$  as the currently open container symbol of  $t$ . Otherwise if  $s$  is not a namespace symbol, throw an exception.
5. Otherwise  $s$  is null, so use algorithm 4.1.6 to create a namespace to the container scope of the currently open container symbol of  $t$ , and open it by pushing the currently open container symbol to the stack of open container symbols of  $t$ , and then set the created namespace symbol as the currently open container symbol of  $t$ .

#### 4.1.4.2 Creating a Namespace

A namespace is created using the following algorithm:

**Algorithm 4.1.6.** Creating a Namespace. The algorithm returns created namespace symbol.

1. Let  $m$  be a possibly qualified namespace name to create and let  $t$  be the container scope to which the namespace symbol is to be created. Let  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  be the  $n$  components of  $m$  separated by dots. Let  $p$  be the namespace symbol associated with the owner symbol of the container scope  $t$ . It can be computed using algorithm 4.1.2.
2. For  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :
  - (a) Lookup name  $c_i$  (see section 4.1.3) from container scope  $t$  using scope kind **this** and setting the kind of symbols to search as **namespace** symbols. If the search was successful let  $s$  be the symbol found. Otherwise let  $s$  be null.
  - (b) If  $s$  is not null and  $s$  is a namespace symbol, let  $t$  be the container scope of  $s$  and let  $p$  be the namespace symbol associated with the owner symbol of the container scope  $t$  (algorithm 4.1.2). Otherwise if  $s$  is not null and  $s$  is not a namespace symbol, throw an exception.
  - (c) Otherwise  $s$  is null, so create a new namespace symbol  $ns$  with name  $c_i$ . Let  $t$  be the container scope of  $ns$ . Let the parent scope of  $t$  be the container scope of  $p$ . Add symbol  $ns$  as the child symbol of  $p$ . Finally let  $p$  be  $ns$ .
3. Return  $p$ .

#### 4.1.5 Adding Symbols to Containers

A symbol is added as a child of a container symbol using the following algorithm:

**Algorithm 4.1.7.** Adding a Symbol to a Container.

1. Let  $s$  be the symbol to add to a container symbol  $c$ .
2. If the name of  $s$  is not empty and  $s$  is not a function symbol and  $s$  is not a concept symbol and  $s$  is not a declaration block symbol and  $s$  is not a namespace type symbol, install the symbol to the container scope of  $c$  using following steps:
  - (a) If the name of  $s$  is found from symbol name mappings of the container scope of  $c$ , throw an exception, because the name of a symbol must be unique in its immediate container.
  - (b) Add a mapping from name of  $s$  to  $s$  to the  $name \rightarrow symbol$  mapping of the container scope of  $c$ .
  - (c) If symbol is a container symbol, set the parent scope of the container scope of  $s$  to the container scope of  $c$ .
3. If  $s$  is a function symbol, open a function group using the group name of  $s$  and add  $s$  to the opened function group using algorithm 4.1.8.
4. Otherwise, if  $s$  is a concept symbol, open a concept group using the group name of  $s$  and add  $s$  to the opened concept group using algorithm 4.1.9.
5. Otherwise, add  $s$  as a child symbol of  $c$  and set the parent property of  $s$  to  $c$ .

#### 4.1.5.1 Function Groups

Function symbols are not added directly to containers, but there is an extra layer called a *function group* in between the container symbol and the function symbol. To describe function groups we need two definitions:

**Definition 4.1.1.** The *group name* of a nonmember function is the name of the function without its parameters. The group name of a constructor is "@constructor" and the group name of a destructor is "@destructor". The group name of other member function is the name of the member function without its parameters. For example, the group name of function

```
void foo(int x, double y)
```

is `foo` and the group name of member function

```
void C.operator=(const C& x)
```

is `operator=`.

**Definition 4.1.2.** The *arity* of a function is the number of its parameters. For example, the arity of function

```
void foo(int x, double y)
```

is 2.

A function group collects functions that have equal group name under a name. A function group has a mapping from arities of functions to lists of function symbols.

**Example 4.1.1.** For example, if we have three functions:

```
void foo(int a);
void foo(double b);
void foo(int a, double b);
```

they all belong to a function group named *foo*. The function group *foo* contains a mapping from arity 1 to a list containing two functions: `void foo(int a)` and `void foo(double b)`. It also contains a mapping from arity 2 to a list containing one function: `void foo(int a, double b)`.

Opening a function group and adding a function to it is performed using the following algorithm:

**Algorithm 4.1.8.** Opening a Function Group, and Adding a Function to it.

1. Let *s* be a function symbol to add to a function group under container *c*.
2. Lookup the group name of *s* from the container scope of *c* using scope kind **this** (algorithm 4.1.3). If the search was successful, let *g* be symbol found. Otherwise let *g* be null.
3. If *g* is null, create a new function group symbol using group name of *s*, and add it to *c* using algorithm 4.1.7. Let *g* be the created function group.
4. Otherwise, if *g* is not a function group symbol, throw an exception, because name of a function group conflicts with name of another symbol.
5. Let *a* be the arity of *s*. Add the *s* to a list of functions of arity *a* in the *arity*  $\rightarrow$  *list* mappings of *g*.
6. Add *s* as a child symbol of *g*.

#### 4.1.5.2 Concept Groups

What is said about functions and function groups applies analogically to concepts and concept groups. Concept group acts as a layer between a container and a concept symbol. Also analogically to a group name and arity of a function, we can define the group name and arity of a concept as follows:

**Definition 4.1.3.** The *group name* of a concept is the name of a concept without its type parameters. For example, the group name of concept

`EqualityComparable<T, U>`

is `EqualityComparable`.

**Definition 4.1.4.** The *arity* of a concept is the number of its type parameters. For example, the arity of concept

`EqualityComparable<T, U>`

is 2.

A concept group collects concepts that have equal group name under a name. A concept group has a mapping from arities of concepts to concept symbols.

**Example 4.1.2.** For example, if we have these two concepts:

`EqualityComparable<T>`

`EqualityComparable<T, U>`

they both belong to a concept group named *EqualityComparable*. The concept group *EqualityComparable* contains a mapping from arity 1 to a concept symbol `EqualityComparable<T>` and from arity 2 to a concept symbol `EqualityComparable<T, U>`.

Opening a concept group and adding a concept to it is performed using the following algorithm:

**Algorithm 4.1.9.** Opening a Concept Group, and Adding a Concept to it.

1. Let  $s$  be a concept symbol to add to a concept group under container  $c$ .
2. Lookup the group name of  $s$  from the container scope of  $c$  using scope kind **this** (algorithm 4.1.3). If the search was successful, let  $g$  be symbol found. Otherwise let  $g$  be null.
3. If  $g$  is null, create a new concept group symbol using group name of  $s$ , and add it to  $c$  using algorithm 4.1.7. Let  $g$  be the created concept group.
4. Otherwise, if  $g$  is not a concept group symbol, throw an exception, because name of a concept group conflicts with name of another symbol.
5. Let  $a$  be the arity of  $s$ . Set  $s$  as a concept for arity  $a$  in the *arity*  $\rightarrow$  *concept* mappings of  $g$ .
6. Add  $s$  as a child symbol of  $g$ .

## 4.2 Construction of the Global Symbol Table

The global symbol table is built in three stages:

1. First basic type symbols like *BoolTypeSymbol* and *IntTypeSymbol*, and functions that operate on them, are inserted to the global namespace of the global symbol table.
2. Then the symbol tables of the referenced libraries are read and imported to the global symbol table.
3. Finally the abstract syntax trees of the project being compiled are iterated and symbols that correspond abstract syntax tree nodes are created and inserted to the global symbol table.

### 4.2.1 Insertion of Basic Types and Their Operations

The first stage in constructing the global symbol table is inserting the basic types and their operations to the global symbol table. The following listing shows the basic type symbols that are inserted to the global namespace of the global symbol table:

```
BasicTypeSymbol
  BoolTypeSymbol
  CharTypeSymbol
  WCharTypeSymbol
  UCharTypeSymbol
  VoidTypeSymbol
  SByteTypeSymbol
  ByteTypeSymbol
  ShortTypeSymbol
  UShortTypeSymbol
  IntTypeSymbol
  UIntTypeSymbol
  LongTypeSymbol
  ULongTypeSymbol
  FloatTypeSymbol
  DoubleTypeSymbol
  NullPtrTypeSymbol
```

The following listing shows operations for basic types that are inserted to the global namespace of the global symbol table: <sup>1</sup>

```
Symbol
  ContainerSymbol
    FunctionSymbol
      BasicTypeOp
        DefaultCtor[@constructor]
        CopyCtor[@constructor]
```

---

<sup>1</sup>The group name of the function symbol is shown in brackets after the operation.

```

CopyAssignment [operator=]
MoveCtor [@constructor]
MoveAssignment [operator=]
OpEqual [operator==]
OpLess [operator<]
BinOp
    OpAdd [operator+]
    OpSub [operator-]
    OpMul [operator*]
    OpDiv [operator/]
    OpRem [operator%]
    OpShl [operator<<]
    OpShr [operator>>]
    OpBitAnd [operator&]
    OpBitOr [operator|]
    OpBitXor [operator^]
OpNot [operator!]
OpUnaryPlus [operator+]
OpUnaryMinus [operator-]
OpComplement [operator~]
OpIncrement [operator++]
OpDecrement [operator--]
ConvertingCtor [@constructor]

```

#### 4.2.1.1 Operations for bool

Operations for *BoolTypeSymbol* are: *DefaultCtor*, *CopyCtor*, *CopyAssignment*, *MoveCtor*, *MoveAssignment*, *OpEqual*, *OpLess*, *OpNot*.

#### 4.2.1.2 Operations for Integer Types

Operations for integer types (*SByteTypeSymbol*, *ByteTypeSymbol*, *ShortTypeSymbol*, *UShortTypeSymbol*, *IntTypeSymbol*, *UIntTypeSymbol*, *LongTypeSymbol*, *ULongTypeSymbol*) are: *DefaultCtor*, *CopyCtor*, *CopyAssignment*, *MoveCtor*, *MoveAssignment*, *OpEqual*, *OpLess*, *OpAdd*, *OpSub*, *OpMul*, *OpDiv*, *OpRem*, *OpShl*, *OpShr*, *OpBitAnd*, *OpBitOr*, *OpBitXor*, *OpUnaryPlus*, *OpUnaryMinus*, *OpComplement*, *OpIncrement*, *OpDecrement*.

#### 4.2.1.3 Operations for Floating Point Types

Operations for floating point types (*FloatTypeSymbol* and *DoubleTypeSymbol*) are: *DefaultCtor*, *CopyCtor*, *CopyAssignment*, *MoveCtor*, *MoveAssignment*, *OpEqual*, *OpLess*, *OpAdd*, *OpSub*, *OpMul*, *OpDiv*, *OpUnaryPlus*, *OpUnaryMinus*.

#### 4.2.1.4 Operations for Character Types

Operations for character types (*CharTypeSymbol*, *WCharTypeSymbol* and *UCharTypeSymbol*) are: *DefaultCtor*, *CopyCtor*, *CopyAssignment*, *MoveCtor*, *MoveAssignment*, *OpEqual*, *OpLess*.

## 4.2.1.5 Standard Conversions

The following table shows standard conversion operations (*ConvertingCtor*) that are inserted to the global namespace of the global symbol table.

Abbreviations are:

I - implicit conversion,

E - explicit conversion,

C - conversion,

P - promotion

Target Type	Source Type	Explicit/Implicit	Rank	Distance
sbyte	byte	E	C	
sbyte	short	E	C	
sbyte	ushort	E	C	
sbyte	int	E	C	
sbyte	uint	E	C	
sbyte	long	E	C	
sbyte	ulong	E	C	
sbyte	float	E	C	
sbyte	double	E	C	
sbyte	char	E	C	
sbyte	wchar	E	C	
sbyte	uchar	E	C	
sbyte	bool	E	C	
byte	sbyte	E	C	
byte	short	E	C	
byte	ushort	E	C	
byte	int	E	C	
byte	uint	E	C	
byte	long	E	C	
byte	ulong	E	C	
byte	float	E	C	
byte	double	E	C	
byte	char	E	C	
byte	wchar	E	C	
byte	uchar	E	C	
byte	bool	E	C	
short	sbyte	I	P	1
short	byte	I	P	2
short	ushort	E	C	
short	int	E	C	
short	uint	E	C	
short	long	E	C	



short	ulong	E	C	
short	float	E	C	
short	double	E	C	
short	char	E	C	
short	wchar	E	C	
short	uchar	E	C	
short	bool	E	C	
<hr/>				
ushort	sbyte	E	C	
ushort	byte	I	P	1
ushort	short	E	C	
ushort	int	E	C	
ushort	uint	E	C	
ushort	long	E	C	
ushort	ulong	E	C	
ushort	float	E	C	
ushort	double	E	C	
ushort	char	E	C	
ushort	wchar	E	C	
ushort	uchar	E	C	
ushort	bool	E	C	
<hr/>				
int	sbyte	I	P	3
int	byte	I	P	4
int	short	I	P	1
int	ushort	I	P	2
int	uint	E	C	
int	long	E	C	
int	ulong	E	C	
int	float	E	C	
int	double	E	C	
int	char	E	C	
int	wchar	E	C	
int	uchar	E	C	
int	bool	E	C	
<hr/>				
uint	sbyte	E	C	
uint	byte	I	P	2
uint	short	E	C	
uint	ushort	I	P	1
uint	int	E	C	
uint	long	E	C	
uint	ulong	E	C	
uint	float	E	C	
uint	double	E	C	

uint	char	E	C	
uint	wchar	E	C	
uint	uchar	E	C	
uint	bool	E	C	
<hr/>				
long	sbyte	I	P	5
long	byte	I	P	6
long	short	I	P	3
long	ushort	I	P	4
long	int	I	P	1
long	uint	I	P	2
long	ulong	E	C	
long	float	E	C	
long	double	E	C	
long	char	E	C	
long	wchar	E	C	
long	uchar	E	C	
long	bool	E	C	
<hr/>				
ulong	sbyte	E	C	
ulong	byte	I	P	3
ulong	short	E	C	
ulong	ushort	I	P	2
ulong	int	E	C	
ulong	uint	I	P	1
ulong	long	E	C	
ulong	float	E	C	
ulong	double	E	C	
ulong	char	E	C	
ulong	wchar	E	C	
ulong	uchar	E	C	
ulong	bool	E	C	
<hr/>				
float	sbyte	I	C	5
float	byte	I	C	6
float	short	I	C	3
float	ushort	I	C	4
float	int	I	C	1
float	uint	I	C	2
float	long	E	C	
float	ulong	E	C	
float	double	E	C	
float	char	E	C	
float	wchar	E	C	
float	uchar	E	C	

float	bool	E	C	
double	sbyte	I	C	8
double	byte	I	C	9
double	short	I	C	6
double	ushort	I	C	7
double	int	I	C	4
double	uint	I	C	5
double	long	I	C	2
double	ulong	I	C	3
double	float	I	P	1
double	char	E	C	
double	wchar	E	C	
double	uchar	E	C	
double	bool	E	C	
char	sbyte	E	C	
char	byte	E	C	
char	short	E	C	
char	ushort	E	C	
char	int	E	C	
char	uint	E	C	
char	long	E	C	
char	ulong	E	C	
char	float	E	C	
char	double	E	C	
char	wchar	E	C	
char	uchar	E	C	
char	bool	E	C	
wchar	sbyte	E	C	
wchar	byte	E	C	
wchar	short	E	C	
wchar	ushort	E	C	
wchar	int	E	C	
wchar	uint	E	C	
wchar	long	E	C	
wchar	ulong	E	C	
wchar	float	E	C	
wchar	double	E	C	
wchar	char	I	P	1
wchar	uchar	E	C	
wchar	bool	E	C	
uchar	sbyte	E	C	
uchar	byte	E	C	

uchar	short	E	C
uchar	ushort	E	C
uchar	int	E	C
uchar	uint	E	C
uchar	long	E	C
uchar	ulong	E	C
uchar	float	E	C
uchar	double	E	C
uchar	char	I	P 2
uchar	wchar	I	P 1
uchar	bool	E	C
<hr/>			
bool	sbyte	E	C
bool	byte	E	C
bool	short	E	C
bool	ushort	E	C
bool	int	E	C
bool	uint	E	C
bool	long	E	C
bool	ulong	E	C
bool	float	E	C
bool	double	E	C
bool	char	E	C
bool	wchar	E	C
bool	uchar	E	C

#### 4.2.2 Importing Symbol Tables of Referenced Libraries

The second stage in constructing the global symbol table is reading the symbol table of referenced libraries and importing the symbols from them into the global symbol table. For each library  $L$  that the project being compiled references,

- the symbol table  $u$  of  $L$  is read from the library file of  $L$  and then
- the symbols from the global namespace of symbol table  $u$  are imported into the global symbol table using algorithm 4.2.1.

**Algorithm 4.2.1.** Importing Symbols from a Namespace into a Symbol Table.

1. Let  $t$  be the symbol table to which the symbols are to be imported. Let  $n$  be the source namespace, i.e. the namespace from which the symbols are to be imported.
2. Open a namespace of name  $n$  to the symbol table  $t$  using algorithm 4.1.5.
3. For each child symbol  $c$  of  $n$ :
  - (a) If  $c$  is a namespace symbol, import  $c$  to  $t$  by calling this algorithm recursively.
  - (b) Otherwise, add  $c$  to the currently open container symbol of  $t$  using algorithm 4.1.7.
4. Close the currently open namespace of  $t$ .

### 4.2.3 Creating Symbols for the Project Being Compiled

The third stage in constructing the global symbol table is creating the symbols for the project being compiled and inserting them to the global symbol table. For that we need four auxiliary algorithms:

**Algorithm 4.2.2.** Opening a Function Scope.

1. Let  $n$  be the function node for which to open the function scope.
2. Create a function symbol with the name defined in  $n$  and set its group name to the group name in  $n$ .
3. Open the function symbol as described in section 4.1.4.

**Algorithm 4.2.3.** Closing a Function Scope.

1. Let  $f$  be the function symbol to close.
2. Close  $f$  as described in section 4.1.4.
3. Add  $f$  to the currently open container symbol using algorithm 4.1.7.

**Algorithm 4.2.4.** Opening a Declaration Scope.

1. Let  $s$  be the statement node for which to open the declaration scope.
2. Create a declaration block symbol and open it as described in section 4.1.4.

**Algorithm 4.2.5.** Closing a Declaration Scope.

Let  $d$  be the declaration block symbol to close.

Close  $d$  as described in section 4.1.4.

Creating and adding symbols to the global symbol table is done using the following algorithm:

**Algorithm 4.2.6.** Creating and Adding Symbols to the Global Symbol Table. The algorithm is implemented by an abstract syntax tree visitor called declaration visitor. The declaration visitor visits abstract syntax tree nodes by overriding the following visiting points:

- **BeginVisit(NamespaceNode& namespaceNode):** Open a namespace for possibly qualified namespace name defined in the namespace node using algorithm 4.1.5.
- **EndVisit(NamespaceNode& namespaceNode):** Close the currently open namespace of the global symbol table as described in section 4.1.4.
- **BeginVisit(ClassNode& classNode):** Create a class symbol with the name defined in class node, add it to the currently open container node of the global symbol table using algorithm 4.1.7, and open the class symbol as described in section 4.1.4.
- **EndVisit(ClassNode& classNode):** Close the currently open class symbol of the global symbol table as described in section 4.1.4.

- **BeginVisit(InterfaceNode& interfaceNode):** Create an interface symbol with the name defined in the interface node, add it to the currently open container of the global symbol table using algorithm 4.1.7, and open the interface symbol as described in section 4.1.4.
- **EndVisit(InterfaceNode& interfaceNode):** Close the currently open interface type symbol of the global symbol table as described in section 4.1.4.
- **BeginVisit(ConstructorNode& constructorNode):** Open a function scope using constructorNode as the function node in algorithm 4.2.2. Create implicit **this** parameter and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.
- **EndVisit(ConstructorNode& constructorNode):** Close the currently open function scope using algorithm 4.2.3.
- **BeginVisit(DestructorNode& destructorNode):** Open a function scope using destructorNode as the function node in algorithm 4.2.2. Create implicit **this** parameter and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.
- **EndVisit(DestructorNode& destructorNode):** Close the currently open function scope using algorithm 4.2.3.
- **BeginVisit(MemberFunctionNode& memberFunctionNode):** Open a function scope using memberFunctionNode as the function node in algorithm 4.2.2. Create implicit **this** parameter and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.
- **EndVisit(MemberFunctionNode& memberFunctionNode):** Close the currently open function scope using algorithm 4.2.3.
- **BeginVisit(ConversionFunctionNode& conversionFunctionNode):** Open a function scope using conversionFunctionNode as the function node in algorithm 4.2.2. Create implicit **this** parameter and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.
- **EndVisit(ConversionFunctionNode& conversionFunctionNode):** Close the currently open function scope using algorithm 4.2.3.
- **BeginVisit(StaticConstructorNode& staticConstructorNode):** Open a function scope using staticConstructorNode as the function node in algorithm 4.2.2.
- **EndVisit(StaticConstructorNode& staticConstructorNode):** Close the currently open function scope using algorithm 4.2.3.
- **BeginVisit(EnumTypeNode& enumTypeNode):** Create an enumerated type symbol with name defined in enumTypeNode and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7. Open the enumerated type symbol as described in section 4.1.4.
- **EndVisit(EnumTypeNode& enumTypeNode):** Close the currently open enumerated type symbol of the global symbol table as described in section 4.1.4.
- **Visit(EnumConstantNode& enumConstantNode):** Create an enumerated constant symbol with name defined in enumConstantNode and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.

- `Visit(TypedefNode& typedefNode)`: Create a typedef symbol with name defined in `typedefNode` and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.
- `BeginVisit(FunctionNode& functionNode)`: Open a function scope using the function node in algorithm 4.2.2.
- `EndVisit(FunctionNode& functionNode)`: Close the currently open function scope using algorithm 4.2.3.
- `BeginVisit(DelegateNode& delegateNode)`: Create a delegate type symbol with name defined in `delegateNode` and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7. Open the delegate type symbol as described in section 4.1.4.
- `EndVisit(DelegateNode& delegateNode)`: Close the currently open delegate type symbol of the global symbol table as described in section 4.1.4.
- `BeginVisit(ClassDelegateNode& classDelegateNode)`: Create a delegate type symbol with name defined in `classDelegateNode` and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7. Open the class delegate type symbol as described in section 4.1.4.
- `EndVisit(ClassDelegateNode& classDelegateNode)`: Close the currently open class delegate type symbol of the global symbol table as described in section 4.1.4.
- `Visit(ConstantNode& constantNode)`: Create a constant symbol with name defined in `constantNode` and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.
- `Visit(ParameterNode& parameterNode)`: Create a parameter symbol with name defined in `parameterNode` and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.
- `Visit(TemplateParameterNode& templateParameterNode)`: Create a type parameter symbol with name defined in `templateParameterNode` and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.
- `Visit(MemberVariableNode& memberVariableNode)`: Create a member variable symbol with name defined in `memberVariableNode` and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.
- `BeginVisit(CompoundStatementNode& compoundStatementNode)`: Open a declaration scope using `compoundStatementNode` as the `statementNode` in algorithm 4.2.4.
- `EndVisit(CompoundStatementNode& compoundStatementNode)`: Close the declaration block symbol using algorithm 4.2.5.
- `BeginVisit(RangeForStatementNode& rangeForStatementNode)`: Open a declaration scope using `rangeForStatementNode` as the `statementNode` in algorithm 4.2.4.
- `EndVisit(RangeForStatementNode& rangeForStatementNode)`: Close the declaration block symbol using algorithm 4.2.5.
- `BeginVisit(ForStatementNode& forStatementNode)`: Open a declaration scope using `forStatementNode` as the `statementNode` in algorithm 4.2.4.

- **EndVisit(ForStatementNode& forStatementNode)**: Close the declaration block symbol using algorithm 4.2.5.
- **Visit(ConstructionStatementNode& constructionStatementNode)**: Create a local variable symbol with name defined in constructionStatementNode and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.
- **Visit(TypedefStatementNode& typedefStatementNode)**: Create a typedef symbol with name defined in typedefStatementNode and add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.
- **Visit(ConceptNode& conceptNode)**: Create a concept symbol with name defined in concept node and set its group name to the group name defined in concept node. Add it to the currently open container using algorithm 4.1.7.

### 4.3 Example

**Example 4.3.1.** Consider the following Cmajor source code file.

```

1 public enum TrafficLight
2 {
3     green, yellow, red
4 }
5
6 namespace Alpha.Beta
7 {
8     public class Gamma
9     {
10         public void Foo(int x)
11         {
12             int v = 0;
13         }
14         public void Foo(double y)
15         {
16             int v = 0;
17         }
18         public void Bar(bool b)
19         {
20             int v = 0;
21         }
22         private int m;
23     }
24
25     public void Delta(bool epsilon)
26     {
27         int v = 0;
28     }
29 }

```



The following abstract syntax tree is generated while parsing the previous source code file:

```
CompileUnitNode
  EnumTypeNode(TrafficLight)
    EnumConstantNode(green)
    EnumConstantNode(yellow)
    EnumConstantNode(red)
  NamespaceNode(Alpha.Beta)
    ClassNode(Gamma)
      FunctionNode(Foo)
        ParameterNode(x)
        CompoundStatementNode
          ConstructionStatementNode(v)
      FunctionNode(Foo)
        ParameterNode(y)
        CompoundStatementNode
          ConstructionStatementNode(v)
      FunctionNode(Bar)
        ParameterNode(b)
        CompoundStatementNode
          ConstructionStatementNode(v)
      MemberVariableNode(m)
    FunctionNode(Delta)
      ParameterNode(epsilon)
      CompoundStatementNode
        ConstructionStatementNode(v)
```

The following symbol table is constructed while iterating through the previous abstract syntax tree:

```

NamespaceSymbol()
  EnumTypeSymbol(TrafficLight)
    EnumConstantSymbol(green)
    EnumConstantSymbol(yellow)
    EnumConstantSymbol(red)
  NamespaceSymbol(Alpha)
    NamespaceSymbol(Beta)
      ClassTypeSymbol(Gamma)
        FunctionGroupSymbol(Foo)
          FunctionSymbol(Foo)
            ParameterSymbol(this)
            ParameterSymbol(x)
            DeclarationBlock
              LocalVariableSymbol(v)
          FunctionSymbol(Foo)
            ParameterSymbol(this)
            ParameterSymbol(y)
            DeclarationBlock
              LocalVariableSymbol(v)
        FunctionGroupSymbol(Bar)
          FunctionSymbol(Bar)
            ParameterSymbol(this)
            ParameterSymbol(b)
            DeclarationBlock
              LocalVariableSymbol(v)
      MemberVariableSymbol(m)
    FunctionGroupSymbol(Delta)
      FunctionSymbol(Delta)
        ParameterSymbol(epsilon)
        DeclarationBlock
          LocalVariableSymbol(v)

```

## Chapter 5

# Type Repository

The type repository keeps a mapping from *type identifiers* to type symbols. A type identifier is a sixteen-byte integer that uniquely identifies a type symbol.

### 5.1 Computing the Type Identifier for a Type Symbol

In the following sections we show how to compute a type identifier for each kind of type symbol.

#### 5.1.1 Type Identifiers for Basic Type Symbols

The following table shows the type identifiers for basic type symbols:

Basic Type Symbol	Type Identifier
BoolTypeSymbol	01 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
CharTypeSymbol	02 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
WCharTypeSymbol	03 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
UCharTypeSymbol	04 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
VoidTypeSymbol	05 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
SByteTypeSymbol	06 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
TypeSymbol	07 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
ShortTypeSymbol	08 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
UShortTypeSymbol	09 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
IntTypeSymbol	0A 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
UIntTypeSymbol	0B 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
LongTypeSymbol	0C 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
ULongTypeSymbol	0D 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
FloatTypeSymbol	0E 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
DoubleTypeSymbol	0F 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
NullPtrTypeSymbol	10 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00

### 5.1.2 Type Identifiers for Class and Interface Type Symbols

A type identifier for a class or interface type symbol consists of two parts. The first eight bytes is formed by two four-byte pseudorandom numbers generated using Mersenne Twister pseudorandom number generator (<http://www.math.sci.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/~m-mat/MT/emt.html>). The rest eight bytes is formed by a serial number of the class or interface.

### 5.1.3 Type Identifiers for Class Template Specialization Symbols

**Definition 5.1.1.** Let  $C < A_1, \dots, A_n >$  be a class template specialization. In that expression,  $C$  is called the *primary class type* of that class template specialization, and  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  are called the *type arguments* of that class template specialization.

The type identifier for a class template specialization symbol is computed using the following algorithm:

**Algorithm 5.1.1.** Computing the Type Identifier for a Class Template Specialization Symbol.

1. Let  $id$  be the type identifier of the primary class type of the class template specialization. Let  $n$  be the number of type argument type symbols of the class template specialization.
2. For  $i = 0, \dots, n - 1$ :
  - (a) Let  $a$  be the type identifier of the type argument  $i$  of the class template specialization.
  - (b) Let  $p$  be  $(i + 8) \% 16$ .
  - (c) Let  $r$  be  $a$  rotated by  $p$  byte positions right.
  - (d) Assign  $id \text{ xor } r$  to  $id$ .
3. The type identifier of the class template specialization is  $id$ .

### 5.1.4 Type Identifiers for Delegate, Class Delegate and Enumerated Type Symbols

A type identifier for delegate, class delegate and enumerated type symbols is formed by four four-byte pseudorandom numbers generated using Mersenne Twister pseudorandom number generator.

### 5.1.5 Type Identifiers for Derived Type Symbols

A derived type information consists of a *base type*, *derivations* and *array dimensions*. We need to encode each derivation of a derived type in order to compute a type identifier for a derived type.

The following table shows derivation code encodings for derivations:

Derivation Symbol	Derivation	Derivation Code
<code>const</code>	const	1
<code>&amp;</code>	reference	2
<code>&amp;&amp;</code>	rvalue reference	3
<code>*</code>	pointer	4
<code>(</code>	left parenthesis	5
<code>)</code>	right parenthesis	6
<code>[]</code>	array	7

The type identifiers for a derived type symbol is computed using the following algorithm:

**Algorithm 5.1.2.** Computing the Type Identifier for a Derived Type Symbol.

1. Let  $id$  be the type identifier for the base type of the derived type. Let  $m$  be the number of derivations of the derived type. Let  $n$  be the number of array dimensions of the derived type.
2. For  $i = 0, \dots, m - 1$ :
  - (a) Let  $c$  be the derivation code of  $i$ 'th derivation of the derived type.
  - (b) Let  $d$  be 1 shifted left by  $c$  bit positions.
  - (c) Set the  $id[i + 1]$  to  $id[i + 1]$  **xor**  $d$ .
3. For  $j = 0, \dots, n - 1$ :
  - (a) Let  $a$  be the  $j$ 'th array dimension of the derived type.
  - (b) Let  $d0$  be  $a$  shifted right by 24 bit positions and ANDed by 255. Let  $d1$  be  $a$  shifted right by 16 bit positions and ANDed by 255. Let  $d2$  be  $a$  shifted right by 8 bit positions and ANDed by 255. Let  $d3$  be  $a$  ANDed by 255.
  - (c) Set  $id[5 + j]$  to  $id[5 + j]$  **xor**  $d0$ . Set  $id[6 + j]$  to  $id[6 + j]$  **xor**  $d1$ . Set  $id[7 + j]$  to  $id[7 + j]$  **xor**  $d2$ . Set  $id[8 + j]$  to  $id[8 + j]$  **xor**  $d3$ .
4. The type identifier of the derived type is  $id$ .

## 5.2 Adding Type Symbols to the Type Repository

Each type symbol contains a type identifier. Adding a type to the type repository is done simply by adding a mapping from the type identifier of the type symbol to the type symbol itself to the  $typeid \rightarrow symbol$  mappings of the type repository.

## 5.3 Getting a Type Symbol from the Type Repository

Getting a type symbol from the type repository by a type identifier is done by searching the  $typeid \rightarrow symbol$  mappings using the type identifier. If the type identifier is found from the mappings, the corresponding type symbol is returned. Otherwise null is returned.

## 5.4 Making Type Symbols

The following algorithms are used to make type symbols.

**Algorithm 5.4.1.** Making a Derived Type Symbol. The algorithm returns either an existing derived type symbol, if it is found, or creates a new derived type symbol and returns it, if it does not exist.

1. Let  $b$  be a base type,  $d$  be list of derivations and  $a$  be a list of array dimensions.
2. Let  $id$  be a type identifier computed using algorithm 5.1.2 for  $b$ ,  $d$  and  $a$ .
3. If  $id$  is found in  $typeid \rightarrow symbol$  mappings of the type repository, return the type symbol found.
4. Otherwise create a new derived type symbol with type identifier  $id$ , base type  $b$ , list of derivations  $d$ , list of array dimensions  $a$ . Insert it in the  $typeid \rightarrow symbol$  mappings of the type repository, and return it.

**Algorithm 5.4.2.** Making a Pointer Type Symbol.

1. Let  $b$  be a base type symbol.
2. Make a derived type symbol using algorithm 5.4.1 with  $d$  being a list of derivations consisting a pointer derivation, and  $a$  being empty list of array dimensions, and return it.

**Algorithm 5.4.3.** Making a Reference Type Symbol.

1. Let  $b$  be a base type symbol.
2. Make a derived type symbol using algorithm 5.4.1 with  $d$  being a list of derivations consisting a reference derivation, and  $a$  being empty list of array dimensions, and return it.

**Algorithm 5.4.4.** Making an RValue Reference Type Symbol.

1. Let  $b$  be a base type symbol.
2. Make a derived type symbol using algorithm 5.4.1 with  $d$  being a list of derivations consisting an rvalue reference derivation, and  $a$  being empty list of array dimensions, and return it.

**Algorithm 5.4.5.** Making a Const Reference Type Symbol.

1. Let  $b$  be a base type symbol.
2. Make a derived type symbol using algorithm 5.4.1 with  $d$  being a list of derivations consisting a const derivation and a reference derivation, and  $a$  being empty list of array dimensions, and return it.

**Algorithm 5.4.6.** Making a Const Pointer Type Symbol.

1. Let  $b$  be a base type symbol.

2. Make a derived type symbol using algorithm 5.4.1 with  $d$  being a list of derivations consisting a const derivation and a pointer derivation, and  $a$  being empty list of array dimensions, and return it.

**Algorithm 5.4.7.** Making a Class Template Specialization Type Symbol.

1. Let  $C$  be a primary type of the class template specialization and  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  be the type arguments of the class template specialization.
2. Let  $id$  be a type identifier computed using algorithm 5.1.1 for  $C$  and  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ .
3. If  $id$  is found in  $typeid \rightarrow symbol$  mappings of the type repository, return the type symbol found.
4. Otherwise create a new class template specialization type symbol with type identifier  $id$ , primary type  $C$  and type arguments  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ . Insert it in the  $typeid \rightarrow symbol$  mappings of the type repository, and return it.

## Chapter 6

# Binder

### 6.1 Static Evaluator

The static evaluator evaluates constant expressions such as constant expressions as values of constants, constant expressions in case statements and constant expressions as values of enumeration constants. In other words it evaluates anything that must be evaluated statically at compile time.

#### 6.1.1 Evaluation Stack and Value Classes

The static evaluator has a stack of values called the *evaluation stack* that holds intermediate and final results of evaluation. The values are instances of classes derived from an abstract base class named `Value`. Here's the value class hierarchy:

```
Value
  BoolValue
  CharValue
  WCharValue
  UCharValue
  SByteValue
  ByteValue
  ShortValue
  UShortValue
  IntValue
  UIntValue
  LongValue
  ULongValue
  FloatValue
  DoubleValue
  NullValue
  StringValue
```

#### 6.1.2 Operand Types and Value Types

Associated with `Value` classes there is a C++ type called `OperandType` and a Cmajor type called `ValueType`. The following table shows the operand types and value types for `Value`



classes:

Value Class	OperandType	ValueType
BoolValue	<b>bool</b>	<b>bool</b>
CharValue	<b>char</b>	<b>char</b>
WCharValue	<b>uint16_t</b>	<b>wchar</b>
UCharValue	<b>uint32_t</b>	<b>uchar</b>
SByteValue	<b>int8_t</b>	<b>sbyte</b>
ByteValue	<b>uint8_t</b>	<b>byte</b>
ShortValue	<b>int16_t</b>	<b>short</b>
UShortValue	<b>uint16_t</b>	<b>ushort</b>
IntValue	<b>int32_t</b>	<b>int</b>
UIntValue	<b>uint32_t</b>	<b>uint</b>
LongValue	<b>int64_t</b>	<b>long</b>
ULongValue	<b>uint64_t</b>	<b>ulong</b>
FloatValue	<b>float</b>	<b>float</b>
DoubleValue	<b>double</b>	<b>double</b>

Each **Value** class contains a value whose type is its associated **OperandType**.

### 6.1.3 Evaluating Unary Expressions

First we go through how the static evaluator evaluates unary expressions.

#### 6.1.3.1 Unary Operator Functions

The static evaluator has a *unary operator function* for each supported unary operator. The unary operator function is a function template that delegates the evaluation to a C++ function object. The following table shows supported unary operators, their corresponding unary operator functions, and C++ function objects that are used in evaluating unary expressions:

Unary Operator	Unary Operator Function	C++ Function Object
~	Complement<ValueT>	bit_not<ValueT::OperandType>
+	UnaryPlus<ValueT>	identity<ValueT::OperandType>
-	UnaryMinus<ValueT>	std::negate<ValueT::OperandType>
!	Not<ValueT>	std::logical_not<ValueT::OperandType>

#### 6.1.3.2 Unary Expression Evaluation Algorithm

Here's the unary expression evaluation algorithm:

**Algorithm 6.1.1.** Evaluation a Unary Expression. Inputs to this algorithm are:

- the target value type,
- evaluation stack,
- unary operator function **f**,

- whether to perform cast.
1. Pop the operand from the evaluation stack.
  2. Let *subjectType* be the value type of the operand.
  3. If the target value type is wider than *subjectType*, let *operationType* be target value type. Otherwise let *operationType* be *subjectType*.
  4. Convert the operand to *operationType* type possibly performing a cast if requested. As usual in Cmajor, conversions that promote a value to a value of wider type are performed implicitly, whereas conversions to a narrower type require a cast.
  5. Call the unary operator function `f<operationType>` using the converted operand as an argument.
  6. Push the result to the evaluation stack.

#### 6.1.4 Evaluating Binary Expressions

Next we go through how the static evaluator evaluates binary expressions.

##### 6.1.4.1 Common Type

In order to evaluate a binary expression, one needs to have a *common type* to which both operands of the binary operator are converted before evaluation. Given two value types, one can compute their common type as follows:

**Algorithm 6.1.2.** Computing the Common Type of Two Value Types. Common type is a mapping from two value types to a value type. It gives the smallest value type for the left and the right value type that is large enough to hold a value of the left type and a value of the right type. Given the left and the right type, common type returns a type according to the following table:

Left Type	Right Type	Common Type
bool	bool	bool
bool	char	
bool	wchar	
bool	uchar	
bool	sbyte	
bool	byte	
bool	short	
bool	ushort	
bool	int	
bool	uint	
bool	long	
bool	ulong	
bool	float	

bool	double	
bool	nullPtrType	
bool	string	
char	bool	
char	char	char
char	wchar	wchar
char	uchar	uchar
char	sbyte	
char	byte	
char	short	
char	ushort	
char	int	
char	uint	
char	long	
char	ulong	
char	float	
char	double	
char	nullPtrType	
char	string	
wchar	bool	
wchar	char	wchar
wchar	wchar	wchar
wchar	uchar	uchar
wchar	sbyte	
wchar	byte	
wchar	short	
wchar	ushort	
wchar	int	
wchar	uint	
wchar	long	
wchar	ulong	
wchar	float	
wchar	double	
wchar	nullPtrType	
wchar	string	
uchar	bool	
uchar	char	uchar
uchar	wchar	uchar
uchar	uchar	uchar
uchar	sbyte	
uchar	byte	
uchar	short	

uchar	ushort	
uchar	int	
uchar	uint	
uchar	long	
uchar	ulong	
uchar	float	
uchar	double	
uchar	nullPtrType	
uchar	string	
<hr/>		
sbyte	bool	
sbyte	char	
sbyte	wchar	
sbyte	uchar	
sbyte	sbyte	sbyte
sbyte	byte	short
sbyte	short	short
sbyte	ushort	int
sbyte	int	int
sbyte	uint	long
sbyte	long	long
sbyte	ulong	
sbyte	float	float
sbyte	double	double
sbyte	nullPtrType	
sbyte	string	
<hr/>		
byte	bool	
byte	char	
byte	wchar	
byte	uchar	
byte	sbyte	short
byte	byte	byte
byte	short	short
byte	ushort	ushort
byte	int	int
byte	uint	uint
byte	long	long
byte	ulong	ulong
byte	float	float
byte	double	double
byte	nullPtrType	
byte	string	
<hr/>		
short	bool	

short	char	
short	wchar	
short	uchar	
short	sbyte	short
short	byte	short
short	short	short
short	ushort	int
short	int	int
short	uint	long
short	long	long
short	ulong	
short	float	float
short	double	double
short	nullPtrType	
short	string	
<hr/>		
ushort	bool	
ushort	char	
ushort	wchar	
ushort	uchar	
ushort	sbyte	int
ushort	byte	ushort
ushort	short	int
ushort	ushort	ushort
ushort	int	int
ushort	uint	uint
ushort	long	long
ushort	ulong	ulong
ushort	float	float
ushort	double	double
ushort	nullPtrType	
ushort	string	
<hr/>		
int	bool	
int	char	
int	wchar	
int	uchar	
int	sbyte	int
int	byte	int
int	short	int
int	ushort	int
int	int	int
int	uint	long
int	long	long

int	ulong	
int	float	float
int	double	double
int	nullPtrType	
int	string	
<hr/>		
uint	bool	
uint	char	
uint	wchar	
uint	uchar	
uint	sbyte	long
uint	byte	uint
uint	short	long
uint	ushort	uint
uint	int	long
uint	uint	uint
uint	long	long
uint	ulong	ulong
uint	float	float
uint	double	double
uint	nullPtrType	
uint	string	
<hr/>		
long	bool	
long	char	
long	wchar	
long	uchar	
long	sbyte	long
long	byte	long
long	short	long
long	ushort	long
long	int	long
long	uint	long
long	long	long
long	ulong	
long	float	float
long	double	double
long	nullPtrType	
long	string	
<hr/>		
ulong	bool	
ulong	char	
ulong	wchar	
ulong	uchar	
ulong	sbyte	

ulong	byte	ulong
ulong	short	
ulong	ushort	ulong
ulong	int	
ulong	uint	ulong
ulong	long	
ulong	ulong	ulong
ulong	float	float
ulong	double	double
ulong	nullPtrType	
ulong	string	
<hr/>		
float	bool	
float	char	
float	wchar	
float	uchar	
float	sbyte	float
float	byte	float
float	short	float
float	ushort	float
float	int	float
float	uint	float
float	long	float
float	ulong	float
float	float	float
float	double	double
float	nullPtrType	
float	string	
<hr/>		
double	bool	
double	char	
double	wchar	
double	uchar	
double	sbyte	double
double	byte	double
double	short	double
double	ushort	double
double	int	double
double	uint	double
double	long	double
double	ulong	double
double	float	double
double	double	double
double	nullPtrType	

double	string	
nullptrType	bool	
nullptrType	char	
nullptrType	wchar	
nullptrType	uchar	
nullptrType	sbyte	
nullptrType	byte	
nullptrType	short	
nullptrType	ushort	
nullptrType	int	
nullptrType	uint	
nullptrType	long	
nullptrType	ulong	
nullptrType	float	
nullptrType	double	
nullptrType	nullptrType	nullptrType
nullptrType	string	
string	bool	
string	char	
string	wchar	
string	uchar	
string	sbyte	
string	byte	
string	short	
string	ushort	
string	int	
string	uint	
string	long	
string	ulong	
string	float	
string	double	
string	nullptrType	
string	string	string



### 6.1.4.2 Binary Operator Functions

The static evaluator has a *binary operator function* for each supported binary operator. The binary operator function is a function template that delegates the evaluation to a C++ function object. The following table shows supported binary operators, their corresponding binary operator functions, and C++ function objects that are used in evaluating binary expressions:

Binary Operator	Binary Operator Function	C++ Function Object
&&	Conjunction<ValueT>	std::logical_and<ValueT::OperandType>
	Disjunction<ValueT>	std::logical_or<ValueT::OperandType>
^	BitXor<ValueT>	std::bit_xor<ValueT::OperandType>
	BitOr<ValueT>	std::bit_or<ValueT::OperandType>
&	BitAnd<ValueT>	std::bit_and<ValueT::OperandType>
%	Rem<ValueT>	std::modulus<ValueT::OperandType>
/	Div<ValueT>	std::divides<ValueT::OperandType>
*	Mul<ValueT>	std::multiplies<ValueT::OperandType>
-	Sub<ValueT>	std::minus<ValueT::OperandType>
+	Add<ValueT>	std::plus<ValueT::OperandType>
>>	ShiftRight<ValueT>	shiftRightFun<ValueT::OperandType>
<<	ShiftLeft<ValueT>	shiftLeftFun<ValueT::OperandType>
==	Equal<ValueT>	std::equal_to<ValueT::OperandType>
!=	NotEqual<ValueT>	std::not_equal_to<ValueT::OperandType>
<	Less<ValueT>	std::less<ValueT::OperandType>
>	Greater<ValueT>	std::greater<ValueT::OperandType>
<=	LessOrEqual<ValueT>	std::less_equal<ValueT::OperandType>
>=	GreaterOrEqual<ValueT>	std::greater_equal<ValueT::OperandType>

### 6.1.4.3 Binary Expression Evaluation Algorithm

Finally here's the binary expression evaluation algorithm:

**Algorithm 6.1.3.** Evaluating a Binary Expression. Inputs to this algorithm are:

- the target value type
- evaluation stack
- a binary operator function  $f$ ,
- whether to perform cast.

1. Pop the right operand from the evaluation stack.
2. Pop the left operand from the evaluation stack.
3. Let *leftType* be the value type of the left operand. Let *rightType* be the value type of the right operand. Let *commonType* be the common value type computed using algorithm 6.1.2 for *leftType* and *rightType*.

4. If the target value type is wider than *commonType*, let *operationType* be target value type. Otherwise let *operationType* be *commonType*.
5. Convert the left and right operands to *operationType* type possibly performing a cast if requested.
6. Call the binary operator function `f<operationType>` using converted left and right operands as arguments.
7. Push the result to the evaluation stack.

### 6.1.5 Evaluation of a Constant Expression

The main algorithm of this component is the evaluation of a constant expression:

**Algorithm 6.1.4.** Evaluating a Constant Expression. The inputs to this algorithm are:

- the constant expression is represented as an abstract syntax tree node.
- the target value type, i.e. the type to which the evaluated result is finally converted,
- whether a cast is performed,
- a container scope and file scopes for symbol lookup.

The algorithm returns an instance of a class derived from `Value` class that contains the evaluated result.

The algorithm creates an instance of a static evaluator that is an abstract syntax tree visitor, and calls the `Accept` member function of the given abstract syntax tree node by giving the static evaluator instance as an argument. As a result of the visitation, the evaluated value will be in the top of the evaluation stack. Finally the evaluated value is popped off from the evaluation stack, converted to the required target type, and returned.

The static evaluator overrides the following visiting points:

- `Visit(BooleanLiteralNode& booleanLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `BoolValue` containing the value from the `booleanLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.
- `Visit(SByteLiteralNode& sbyteLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `SByteValue` containing the value from the `sbyteLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.
- `Visit(ByteLiteralNode& byteLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `ByteValue` containing the value from the `byteLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.
- `Visit(ShortLiteralNode& shortLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `ShortValue` containing the value from the `shortLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.
- `Visit(ushortLiteralNode& ushortLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `UShortValue` containing the value from the `ushortLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.
- `Visit(IntLiteralNode& intLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `IntValue` containing the value from the `intLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.

- `Visit(UIntLiteralNode& uintLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `UIntValue` containing the value from the `uintLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.
- `Visit(LongLiteralNode& longLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `LongValue` containing the value from the `longLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.
- `Visit(ULongLiteralNode& ulongLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `ULongValue` containing the value from the `ulongLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.
- `Visit(FloatLiteralNode& floatLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `FloatValue` containing the value from the `floatLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.
- `Visit(DoubleLiteralNode& doubleLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `DoubleValue` containing the value from the `doubleLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.
- `Visit(CharLiteralNode& charLiteralNode)`: Create an instance of a `CharValue` containing the value from the `charLiteralNode`, and push it to the evaluation stack.
- `EndVisit(DisjunctionNode& disjunctionNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Disjunction` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(ConjunctionNode& conjunctionNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Conjunction` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(BitOrNode& bitOrNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `BitOr` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(BitXorNode& bitXorNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `BitXor` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(BitAndNode& bitAndNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `BitAnd` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(EqualNode& equalNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Equal` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(NotEqualNode& notEqualNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `NotEqual` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(LessNode& lessNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Less` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(GreaterNode& greaterNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Greater` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.

- `EndVisit(LessOrEqualNode& lessOrEqualNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `LessOrEqual` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(GreaterOrEqualNode& greaterOrEqualNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `GreaterOrEqual` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(ShiftLeftNode& shiftLeftNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `ShiftLeft` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(ShiftRightNode& shiftRightNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `ShiftRight` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(AddNode& addNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Add` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(SubNode& subNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Sub` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(MulNode& mulNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Mul` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(DivNode& divNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Div` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(RemNode& remNode)`: Evaluate a binary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.3 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Rem` binary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(UnaryPlusNode& unaryPlusNode)`: Evaluate a unary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.1 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `UnaryPlus` unary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(UnaryMinusNode& unaryMinusNode)`: Evaluate a unary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.1 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `UnaryMinus` unary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(NotNode& notNode)`: Evaluate a unary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.1 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Not` unary operator function, and cast as arguments.
- `EndVisit(ComplementNode& complementNode)`: Evaluate a unary expression by calling algorithm 6.1.1 and giving the target value type, evaluation stack, `Complement` unary operator function, and cast as arguments.

- `BeginVisit(ClassNode& classNode):`
- `BeginVisit(NamespaceNode& namespaceNode):`
- `BeginVisit(EnumTypeNode& enumTypeNode):`
- `BeginVisit(DotNode& dotNode):`
- `EndVisit(DotNode& dotNode):`
- `Visit(CastNode& castNode):`
- `Visit(IdentifierNode& identifierNode):`

## 6.2 Type Resolver

## Chapter 7

# Emitter

# Bibliography

- [1] AHO, A. V., M. S. LAM, R. SETHI, AND J. D. ULLMAN: Compilers: Principles, Techniques, & Tools. Second Edition. Addison-Wesley, 2007.
- [2] HOPCROFT, J. E., R. MOTWANI, AND J. D. ULLMAN: Introduction to Automata Theory, Languages, and Computation. Second Edition. Addison-Wesley, 2001.
- [3] JOEL DE GUZMAN: Spirit Parsing Libraries, <http://boost-spirit.com/home/>
- [4] LLVM TEAM: LLVM Language Reference Manual, <http://llvm.org/docs/LangRef.html>