

Lecture 6

CIS 341: COMPILERS

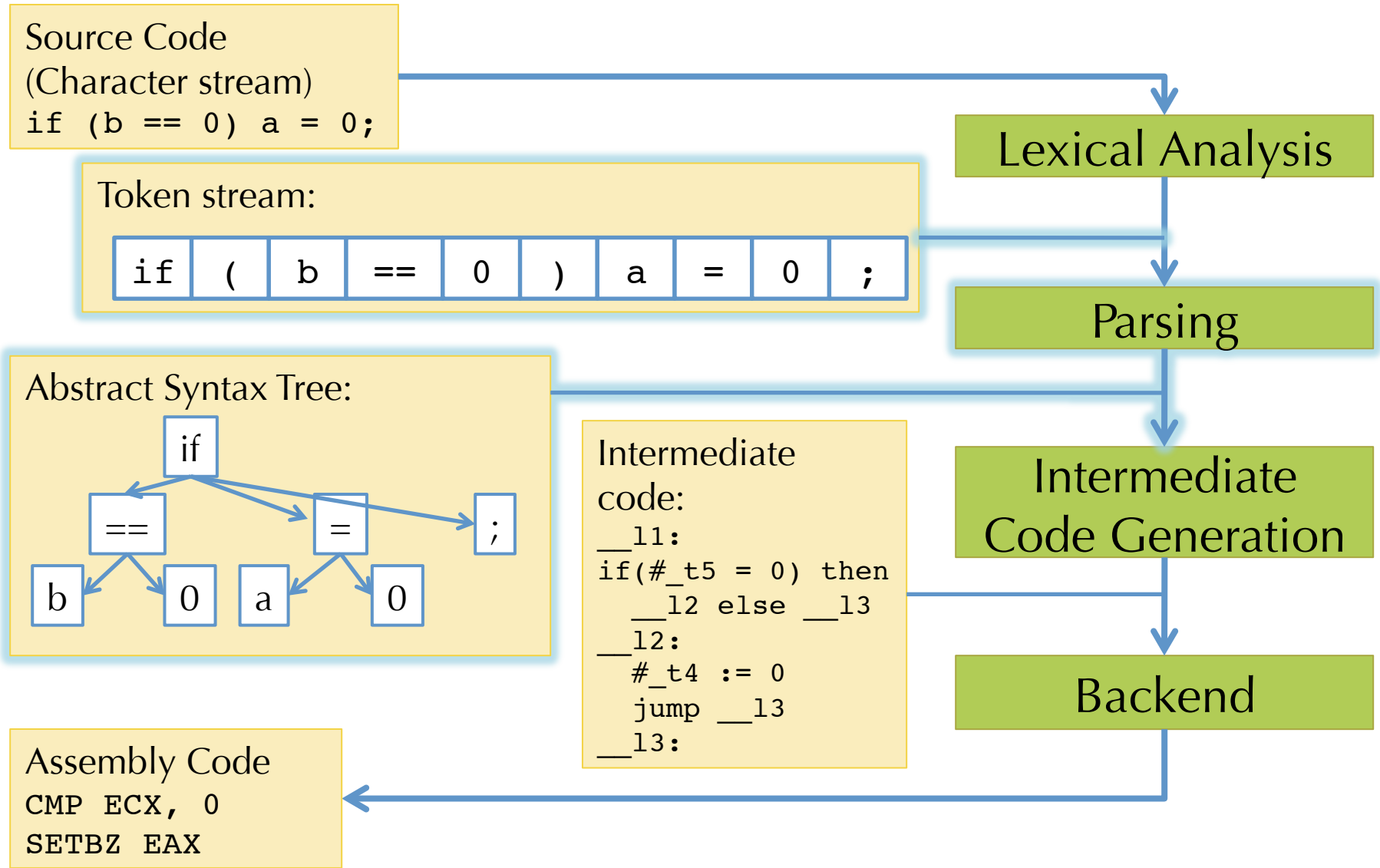
Announcements

- Project 1: X86lite
 - Due: Tonight at 11:59:59 pm
- Project 2: Parsing and Compiling Expressions
 - Available soon!
- Slightly abbreviated office hours for Dr. Zdancewic today
 - 4:00-4:45

Creating an abstract representation of program syntax.

PARSING

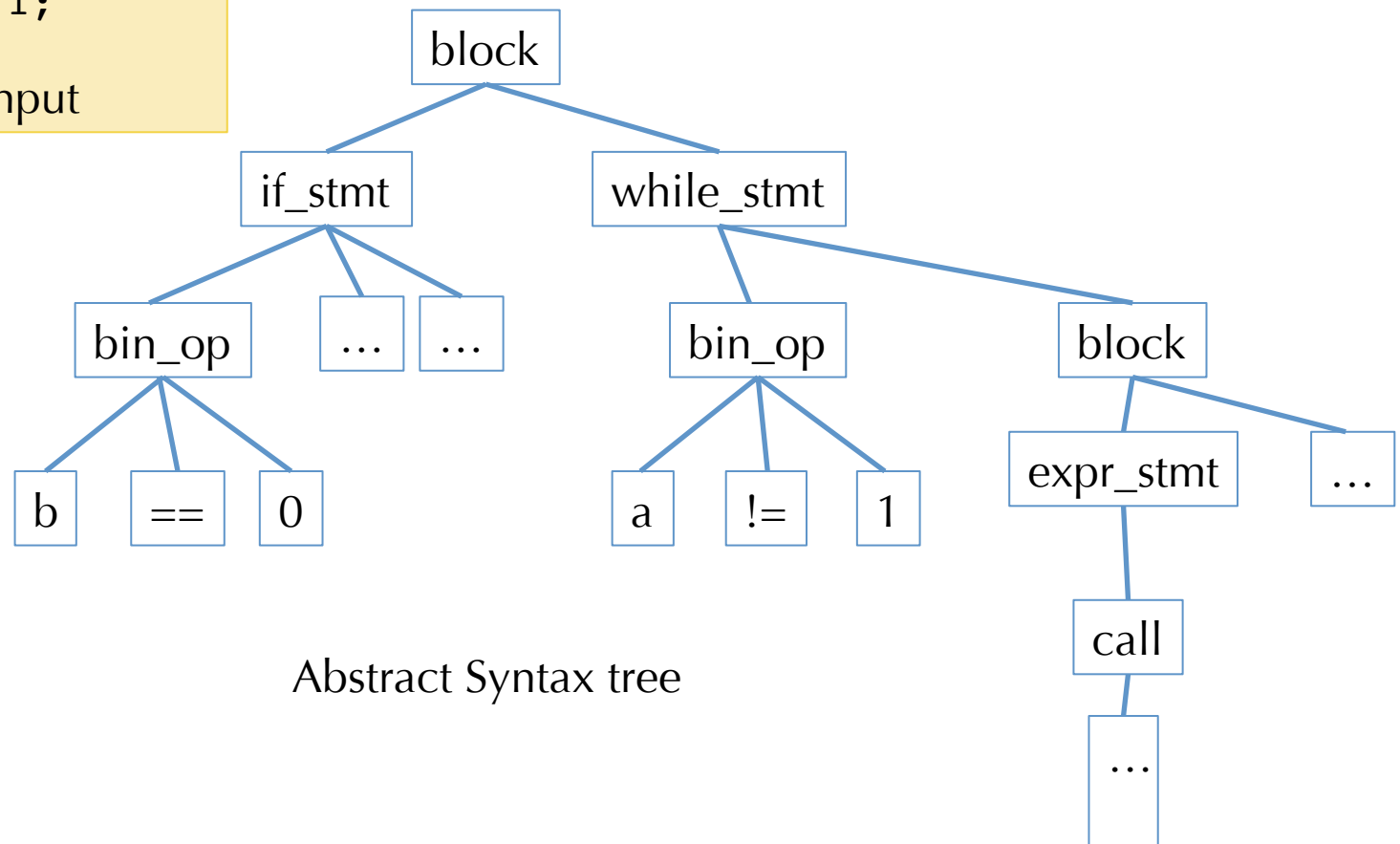
Today: Parsing I



Parsing: Finding Syntactic Structure

```
{  
  if (b == 0) a = b;  
  while (a != 1) {  
    print_int(a);  
    a = a - 1;  
  }  
}
```

Source input

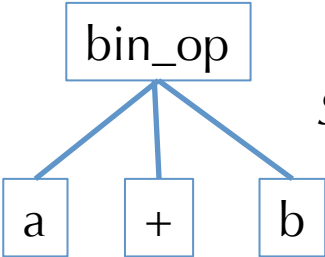


Abstract Syntax tree

Syntactic Analysis (Parsing): Overview

- Input: stream of tokens (generated by lexer)
- Output: abstract syntax tree
- Strategy:
 - Parse the token stream to traverse the “concrete” syntax
 - During traversal, build a tree representing the “abstract” syntax
- Why abstract? Consider these three *different* concrete inputs:

$a + b$
 $(a + ((b)))$
 $((a) + (b))$



```
graph TD; bin_op[bin_op] --> a[a]; bin_op --> plus[+]; bin_op --> b[b];
```

Same abstract syntax tree
- Note: parsing doesn't check many things:
 - Variable scoping, type agreement, initialization, ...

Specifying Language Syntax

- First question: how to describe language syntax precisely and conveniently?
- Last time: we described tokens using regular expressions
 - Easy to implement, efficient DFA representation
 - Why not use regular expressions on tokens to specify programming language syntax?
- Limits of regular expressions:
 - DFA's have only finite # of states
 - So... DFA's can't "count"
 - For example, consider the language of all strings that contain balanced parentheses – easier than most programming languages, but not regular.
- So: we need more expressive power than DFA's

CONTEXT FREE GRAMMARS

Context-free Grammars

- Here is a specification of the language of balanced parens:

$$S \mapsto (S)S$$

$$S \mapsto \varepsilon$$

- The definition is *recursive* – S mentions itself.
- Idea: “derive” a string in the language by starting with S and rewriting according to the rules:
 - Example: $S \mapsto (S)S \mapsto ((S)S)S \mapsto ((\varepsilon)S)S \mapsto ((\varepsilon)S)\varepsilon \mapsto ((\varepsilon)\varepsilon)\varepsilon = (())$
- You can replace the “*nonterminal*” S by its definition anywhere
- A context-free grammar accepts a string iff there is a derivation from the start symbol

CFGs Mathematically

- A Context-free Grammar (CFG) consists of
 - A set of *terminals* (e.g., a token or ϵ)
 - A set of *nonterminals* (e.g., S and other syntactic variables)
 - A designated nonterminal called the *start symbol*
 - A set of productions: $\text{LHS} \mapsto \text{RHS}$
 - LHS is a nonterminal
 - RHS is a *string* of terminals and nonterminals

- Example: The balanced parentheses language:

$$S \mapsto (S)S$$

$$S \mapsto \epsilon$$

- How many terminals? How many nonterminals? Productions?

Another Example: Sum Grammar

- A grammar that accepts parenthesized sums of numbers:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} S & \mapsto & E + S \quad | \quad E \\ E & \mapsto & \text{number} \quad | \quad (S) \end{array}$$

e.g.: $(1 + 2 + (3 + 4)) + 5$

- Note the vertical bar '|' is shorthand for multiple productions:

$$S \mapsto E + S$$

$$S \mapsto E$$

$$E \mapsto \text{number}$$

$$E \mapsto (S)$$

4 productions

2 nonterminals: S, E

4 terminals: (,), +, number

Start symbol: S

Derivations in CFGs

- Example: derive $(1 + 2 + (3 + 4)) + 5$

- $\underline{S} \mapsto \underline{E} + S$

$$\mapsto (\underline{S}) + S$$

$$\mapsto (\underline{E} + S) + S$$

$$\mapsto (1 + \underline{S}) + S$$

$$\mapsto (1 + \underline{E} + S) + S$$

$$\mapsto (1 + 2 + \underline{S}) + S$$

$$\mapsto (1 + 2 + \underline{E}) + S$$

$$\mapsto (1 + 2 + (\underline{S})) + S$$

$$\mapsto (1 + 2 + (\underline{E} + S)) + S$$

$$\mapsto (1 + 2 + (3 + \underline{S})) + S$$

$$\mapsto (1 + 2 + (3 + \underline{E})) + S$$

$$\mapsto (1 + 2 + (3 + 4)) + \underline{S}$$

$$\mapsto (1 + 2 + (3 + 4)) + \underline{E}$$

$$\mapsto (1 + 2 + (3 + 4)) + 5$$

$$S \mapsto E + S \mid E$$

$$E \mapsto \text{number} \mid (S)$$

For arbitrary strings α, β, γ and production rule $A \mapsto \beta$
a single step of the derivation is:


$$\alpha A \gamma \mapsto \alpha \beta \gamma$$

(*substitute* β for an occurrence of A)

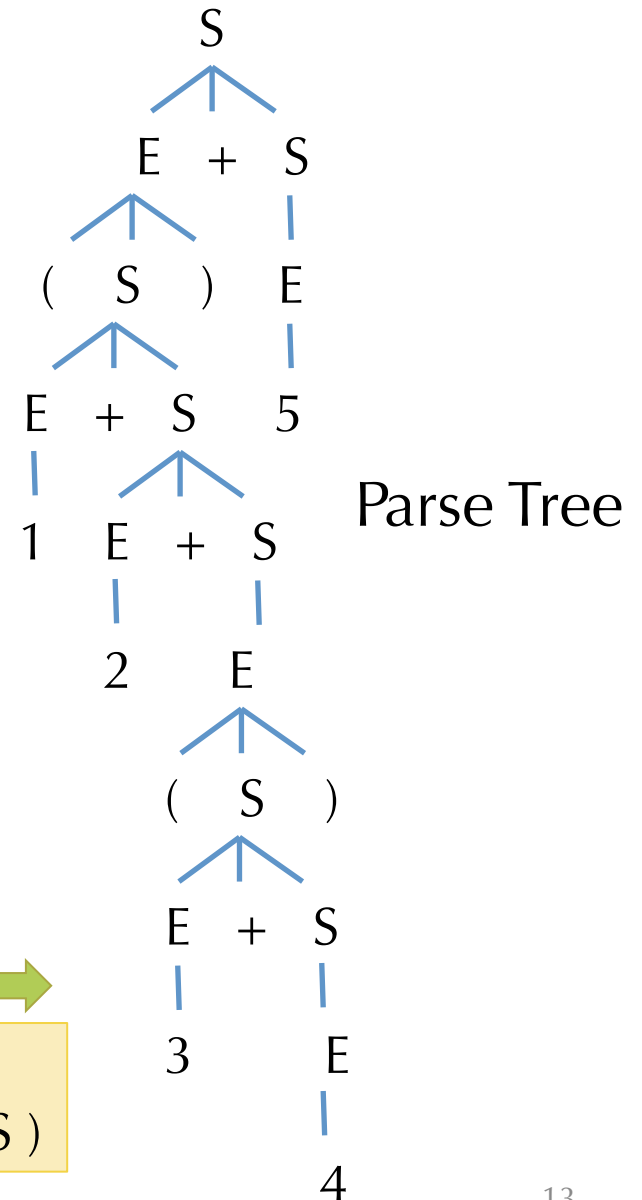
In general, there are many possible derivations for a given string

Note: Underline indicates symbol being expanded.

From Derivations to Parse Trees

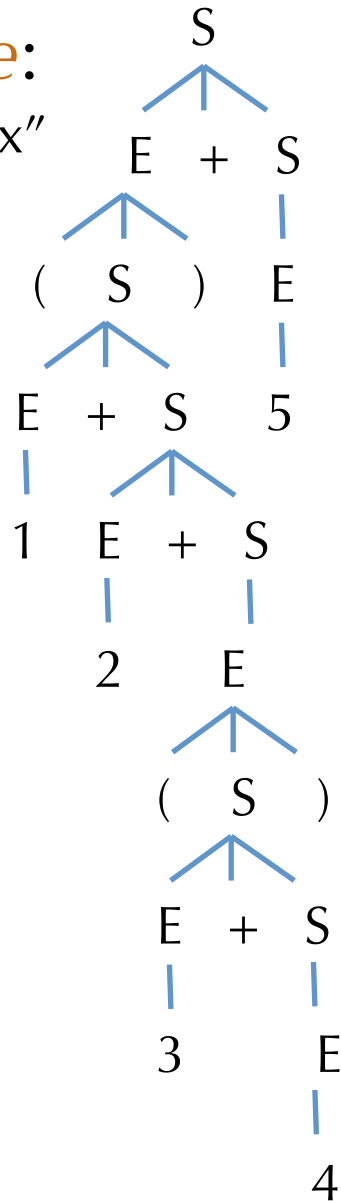
- Tree representation of the derivation
- Leaves of the tree are terminals
 - In-order traversal yields the input sequence of tokens
- Internal nodes: nonterminals
- No information about the *order* of the derivation steps
- $(1 + 2 + (3 + 4)) + 5$ 

$S \mapsto E + S \mid E$
 $E \mapsto \text{number} \mid (S)$

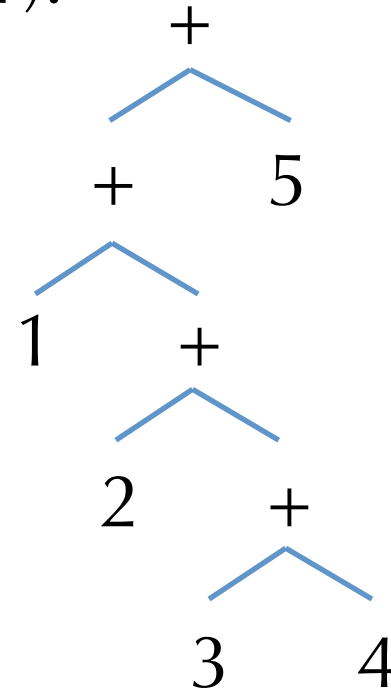


From Parse Trees to Abstract Syntax

- *Parse tree*:
“concrete syntax”



- *Abstract syntax tree*
(AST):



- Hides, or *abstracts*,
unnneeded information.

Derivation Orders

- Productions of the grammar can be applied in any order.
- There are two standard orders:
 - *Leftmost derivation*: Find the left-most nonterminal and apply a production to it.
 - *Rightmost derivation*: Find the right-most nonterminal and apply a production there.
- Note that both strategies (and any other) yield the same parse tree!
 - Parse tree doesn't contain the information about what order the productions were applied.

Example: Left- and rightmost derivations

- Leftmost derivation:

- $$\begin{aligned}
 \underline{S} &\longrightarrow \underline{E} + S \\
 &\longrightarrow (\underline{S}) + S \\
 &\longrightarrow (\underline{E} + S) + S \\
 &\longrightarrow (1 + \underline{S}) + S \\
 &\longrightarrow (1 + \underline{E} + S) + S \\
 &\longrightarrow (1 + 2 + \underline{S}) + S \\
 &\longrightarrow (1 + 2 + \underline{E}) + S \\
 &\longrightarrow (1 + 2 + (\underline{S})) + S \\
 &\longrightarrow (1 + 2 + (\underline{E} + S)) + S \\
 &\longrightarrow (1 + 2 + (3 + \underline{S})) + S \\
 &\longrightarrow (1 + 2 + (3 + \underline{E})) + S \\
 &\longrightarrow (1 + 2 + (3 + 4)) + \underline{S} \\
 &\longrightarrow (1 + 2 + (3 + 4)) + \underline{E} \\
 &\longrightarrow (1 + 2 + (3 + 4)) + 5
 \end{aligned}$$

- Rightmost derivation:

$$\underline{S} \longrightarrow E + \underline{S}$$

$$\longrightarrow E + \underline{E}$$

$$\longrightarrow \underline{E} + 5$$

$$\longrightarrow (\underline{S}) + 5$$

$$\longrightarrow (E + \underline{S}) + 5$$

$$\longrightarrow (E + E + \underline{S}) + 5$$

$$\longrightarrow (E + E + \underline{E}) + 5$$

$$\longrightarrow (E + E + (\underline{S})) + 5$$

$$\longrightarrow (E + E + (E + \underline{S})) + 5$$

$$\longrightarrow (E + E + (E + \underline{E})) + 5$$

$$\longrightarrow (E + E + (\underline{E} + 4)) + 5$$

$$\longrightarrow (E + \underline{E} + (3 + 4)) + 5$$

$$\longrightarrow (\underline{E} + 2 + (3 + 4)) + 5$$

$$\longrightarrow (1 + 2 + (3 + 4)) + 5$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 S \longrightarrow E + S \mid E \\
 E \longrightarrow \text{number} \mid (S)
 \end{array}$$

Loops and Termination

- Some care is needed when defining CFGs
- Consider:

$$\begin{array}{l} S \mapsto E \\ E \mapsto S \end{array}$$

- This grammar has nonterminal definitions that are “nonproductive”. (i.e. they don’t mention any terminal symbols)
- There is no finite derivation starting from S , so the language is empty.

- Consider: $S \mapsto (S)$

- This grammar is productive, but again there is no finite derivation starting from S , so the language is empty

- Easily generalize these examples to a “chain” of many nonterminals, which can be harder to find in a large grammar
- Upshot: be aware of “vacuously empty” CFG grammars.
 - Every nonterminal should eventually rewrite to an alternative that contains only terminal symbols.

Associativity, ambiguity, and precedence.

GRAMMARS FOR PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

Associativity

Consider the input: $1 + 2 + 3$

$S \mapsto E + S \mid E$
 $E \mapsto \text{number} \mid (S)$

Leftmost derivation: Rightmost derivation:

$\underline{S} \mapsto \underline{E} + S$

$\mapsto 1 + \underline{S}$

$\mapsto 1 + \underline{E} + S$

$\mapsto 1 + 2 + \underline{S}$

$\mapsto 1 + 2 + \underline{E}$

$\mapsto 1 + 2 + 3$

$\underline{S} \mapsto E + \underline{S}$

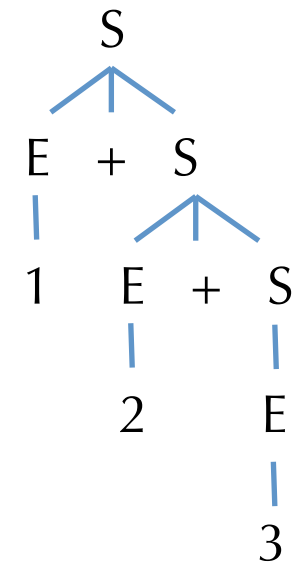
$\mapsto E + E + \underline{S}$

$\mapsto E + E + \underline{E}$

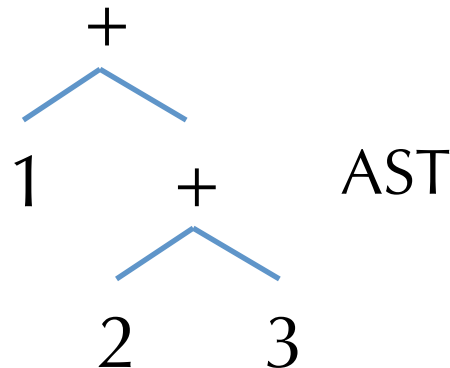
$\mapsto E + \underline{E} + 3$

$\mapsto \underline{E} + 2 + 3$

$\mapsto 1 + 2 + 3$



Parse Tree



AST

Associativity

- This grammar makes '+' *right associative*...
- The abstract syntax tree is the same for both $1 + 2 + 3$ and $1 + (2 + 3)$
- Note that the grammar is *right recursive*...

$$\begin{array}{l} S \mapsto E + S \mid E \\ E \mapsto \text{number} \mid (S) \end{array}$$

- How would you make '+' left associative?
- What are the trees for " $1 + 2 + 3$ "?

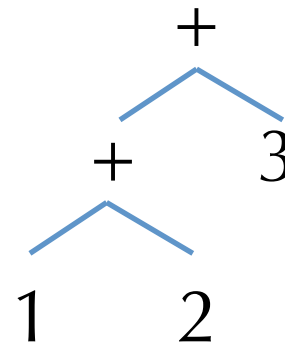
Ambiguity

- Consider this grammar:

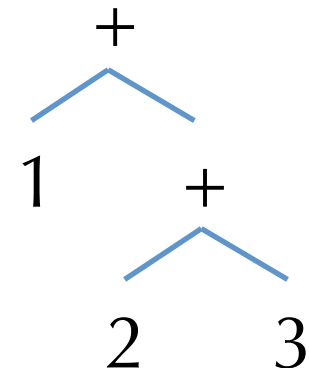
$$S \mapsto S + S \mid (S) \mid \text{number}$$

- Claim: it accepts the *same* set of strings as the previous one.
- What's the difference?
- Consider these *two* leftmost derivations:
 - $\underline{S} \mapsto \underline{S} + S \mapsto 1 + \underline{S} \mapsto 1 + \underline{S} + S \mapsto 1 + 2 + \underline{S} \mapsto 1 + 2 + 3$
 - $\underline{S} \mapsto \underline{S} + S \mapsto \underline{S} + S + S \mapsto 1 + \underline{S} + S \mapsto 1 + 2 + \underline{S} \mapsto 1 + 2 + 3$

- One derivation gives left associativity, the other gives right associativity to '+'
 - Which is which?



AST 1



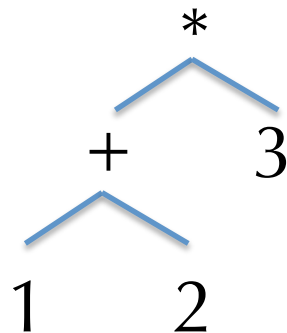
AST 2

Why do we care about ambiguity?

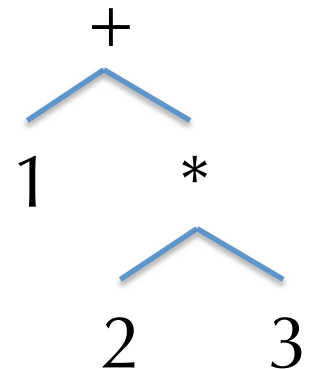
- The '+' operation is associative, so it doesn't matter which tree we pick. Mathematically, $x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z$
 - But, some operations aren't associative. Examples?
 - Some operations are only left (or right) associative. Examples?
- Moreover, if there are multiple operations, ambiguity in the grammar leads to ambiguity in their *precedence*
- Consider:

$S \mapsto S + S \mid S * S \mid (S) \mid \text{number}$

- Input: $1 + 2 * 3$
 - One parse = $(1 + 2) * 3 = 9$
 - The other = $1 + (2 * 3) = 7$



vs.



Eliminating Ambiguity

- We can often eliminate ambiguity by adding nonterminals and allowing recursion only on the left (or right) .
- Higher-precedence operators go *farther* from the start symbol.
- Example:

$$S \mapsto S + S \mid S * S \mid (S) \mid \text{number}$$

- To disambiguate:
 - Decide (following math) to make '*' higher precedence than '+'
 - Make '+' left associative
 - Make '*' right associative
- Note:
 - S_2 corresponds to 'atomic' expressions

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &\mapsto S_0 + S_1 \mid S_1 \\ S_1 &\mapsto S_2 * S_1 \mid S_2 \\ S_2 &\mapsto \text{number} \mid (S_0) \end{aligned}$$

CFGs Summary

- Context-free grammars allow concise specifications of programming languages.
 - An unambiguous CFG specifies how to parse: convert a token stream to a (parse tree)
 - Ambiguity can (often) be removed by encoding precedence and associativity in the grammar.
- Even with an unambiguous CFG, there may be more than one derivation
 - Though all derivations correspond to the same abstract syntax tree.
- Still to come: finding a derivation
 - But first: yacc

parser.mly, lexer.mll, range.ml, ast.ml, main.ml

DEMO: BOOLEAN LOGIC