COMPLETS

Dr. Carl Alphonce alphonce@buffalo.edu 343 Davis Hall



Figure 1.6, page 5 of text

	character stream ↓
	Lexical Analyzer
Syntactic Symbol Table	token stream
	Syntax Analyzer
	syntax tree
	Semantic Analyzer
	syntax tree
	Intermediate Code Generator
	intermediate representation
	Machine-Independent Code Optimizer
	intermediate representation
	Code Generator
	target-machine code
	Machine-Dependent Code Optimizer
	target-machine code

CELLU CLASSTOOM

@ Accept assignment (Link in Piazza) to create repo

Parl 1 of project

- @ Four files likely:
 - Makefile
 - lexicalstructure.lex (input to FLEX)
 - typedefs.h (definitions of token values)
 - runner.c (containing a main that calls yylex())
- This structure will change slightly for part 2

@ Makefile

- targets: lex.yy.c, lexer, clean
- a lexical Structure.lex (input to FLEX)
 - regular expressions + supporting code
- typedefs.h (definitions of token values)
 #define ID 101
- o runner.c (containing a main that calls yylex())



- Chapter 2 gives good overview of the compilation process.
- Chapters 3 through 9 give details.

Follow along in textbook as we go though topics, and use it as a reference for details as you work through the project.

Lexical Analysis

- o Chapter 3
 - 3.5 discusses the LEX tool. Read the FLEX manual as that's the tool you'll be using.
 - 3.6 and 3.7 go into more detail on NFA to DFA conversion.

Syntax Analysis

- Chapters 4 and 5
 - We'll take a fair bit of time working through this material
 - Consult text on an as-needed basis for details
 - 4.9 discusses the YACC tool. Read the BISON manual as that's the tool you'll be using.



Language terminology (from Sebesta (10th ed), p. 115)

- A *language* is a set of strings of symbols, drawn from some finite set of symbols (called the alphabet of the language).
- "The strings of a language are called **sentences**"
- "Formal descriptions of the syntax [...] do not include descriptions of the lowest-level syntactic units [...] called **lexemes**."
- "A token of a language is a category of its lexemes."
- Syntax of a programming language is often presented in two parts:
 - regular grammar for token structure (e.g. structure of identifiers)
 - context-free grammar for sentence structure

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Examples of *lexemes* and *tokens*

Lexemes	Tokens
foo	identifier
i	identifier
sum	identifier
-3	integer_literal
10	integer_literal
1	integer_literal
;	statement_separator
=	assignment_operator





Backus-Naur Form (BNF)

- Backus-Naur Form (1959)
 - Invented by John Backus to describe ALGOL 58, modified by Peter Naur for ALGOL 60
 - BNF is equivalent to context-free grammar
 - BNF is a *metalanguage* used to describe another language, the *object language*
 - Extended BNF: adds syntactic sugar to produce more readable descriptions



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BNF Fundamentals

- Sample rules [p. 128]
 - $\langle assign \rangle \rightarrow \langle var \rangle = \langle expression \rangle$
 - <if stmt> \rightarrow **if** <logic expr> **then** <stmt>
 - <if_stmt> -> if <logic_expr> then <stmt> else <stmt>
- non-terminals
 surrounded by < and >
- tokens are not surrounded by < and >
- keywords in language are in **bold**
- \rightarrow separates LHS from RHS
- expresses alternative expansions for LHS
 - <if_stmt> -> if <logic_expr> then <stmt>
 - if <logic_expr> then <stmt> else <stmt>
- = is in this example a singleton token represented by its sole lexeme





BNF Rules

- A rule has a left-hand side (LHS) and a right-hand side (RHS), and consists of *terminal* and *nonterminal* symbols
- A grammar is often given simply as a set of rules (terminal and non-terminal sets are implicit in rules, as is start symbol)





Describing Lists

- There are many situations in which a programming language allows a list of items (e.g. parameter list, argument list).
- Such a list can typically be as short as empty or consisting of one item.
- Such lists are typically not bounded.
- How is their structure described?



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Describing lists

- The are described using *recursive rules*.
- Here is a pair of rules describing a list of identifiers, whose minimum length is one:

<ident_list> -> ident

| ident , <ident_list>

• Notice that ', ' is part of the *object language* (the language being described by the grammar).

Sample grammars

- http://www.schemers.org/Documents/Standards/
 R5RS/HTML/
- https://sicstus.sics.se/sicstus/docs/latest4/ html/sicstus.html/ ref_002dsyn_002dsyn_002dsen.html
- https://docs.oracle.com/javase/specs/jls/se13/
 html/jls-19.html
- http://blackbox.userweb.mwn.de/Pascal-EBNF.html
- https://cs.wmich.edu/~gupta/teaching/cs4850/ sumII06/The%20syntax%20of%20C%20in%20Backus-Naur%20form.htm

Observations

- Every string of symbols in a derivation is a sentential form.
- A sentence is a sentential form that has only terminal symbols.
- A leftmost derivation is one in which the leftmost nonterminal in each sentential form
 is the one that is expanded
- A derivation can be leftmost, rightmost, or neither.

Programming Language Grammar Fragment

<program> -> <stmt-list> <stmt-list> -> <stmt> | <stmt> ; <stmt-list> <stmt> -> <var> = <expr> <var> -> a | b | c | d <expr> -> <term> + <term> | <term> - <term> <term> -> <var> | const

Notes: <var> is defined in the grammar const is not defined in the grammar

derivations of a = b + const

grammar

<program> -> <stmt-list> <stmt-list> -> <stmt> | <stmt> ; <stmt-list> <stmt> -> <var> = <expr> <var> -> a | b | c | d <expr> -> <term> + <term> | <term> - <term> <term> -> <var> | const

leftmost derivation

```
<program> => <stmt-list>
=> <stmt>
=> <var> = <expr>
=> a = <expr>
=> a = <term> + <term>
=> a = <var> + <term>
=> a = b + <term>
=> a = b + <term>
```

rightmost derivation

```
<program> => <stmt-list>
=> <stmt>
=> <var> = <expr>
=> <var> = <term> + <term>
=> <var> = <term> + const
=> <var> = <var> + const
=> <var> = b + const
=> a = b + const
```





Parse trees and compilation

- A compiler builds a parse tree for a program (or for different parts of a program)
 If the compiler cannot build a well-formed parse tree from a given input, it reports a compilation error
- The parse tree serves as the basis for semantic interpretation/translation of the program.

Ambiguily in grammars

A grammar is ambiguous if and only if it generates a sentential form that has two or more distinct parse trees.
Operator precedence and operator associativity are two examples of ways in which a grammar can provide unambiguous interpretation.

Operator precedence ambiguity

The following grammar is ambiguous:

<expr> -> <expr> <op> <expr> | const
<op> -> - | /

The grammar treats the two operators, '-' and '/', equivalently



An ambiguous grammar for arithmetic expressions

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<expr> -> <expr> <op> <expr> | const <op> -> / | -



Disambiguating the grammar

This grammar (fragment) is unambiguous:

<expr> -> <expr> - <term> | <term>
<term> -> <term> / const | const

The grammar treats the two operators, '-' and '/', differently.

In this grammar, '/' has higher precedence than '-'. Within a given subtree, deeper nodes are evaluated before shallower notes.

Disambiguating the grammar

- If we use the parse tree to indicate precedence levels of the operators, we can remove the ambiguity.
- The following rules give / a higher precedence than -

<expr> -> <expr> - <term> | <term>
<term> -> <term> / const | const

