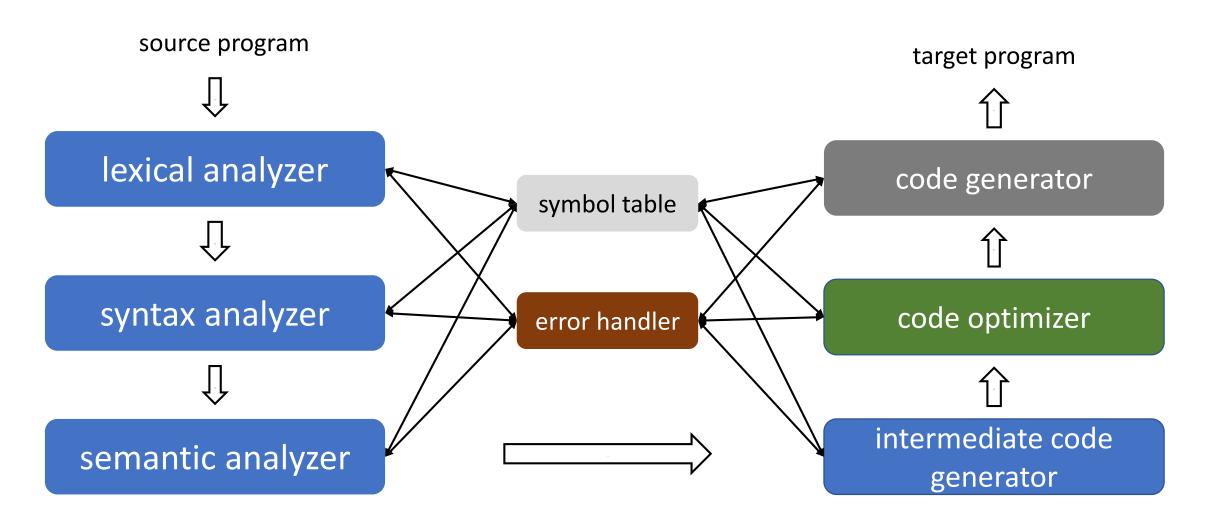
# CS335: Syntax Analysis

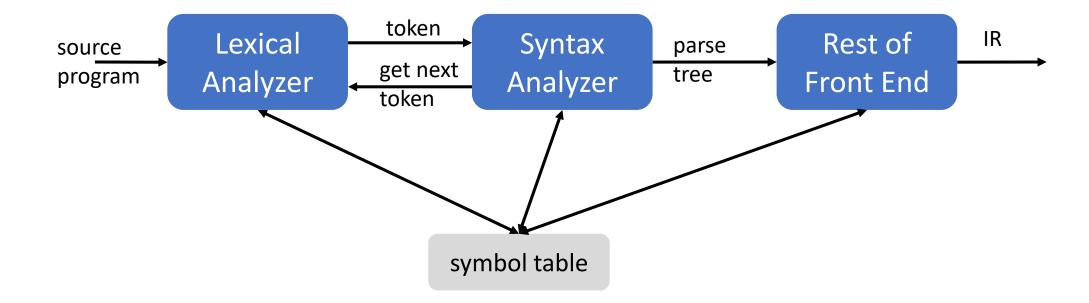
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## An Overview of Compilation



#### Parser Interface



## Need for Checking Syntax

- Given an input program, scanner generates a stream of tokens classified according to the syntactic category
- The parser determines if the input program, represented by the token stream, is a valid sentence in the programming language
- The parser attempts to build a derivation for the input program, using a grammar for the programming language
  - If the input stream is a valid program, parser builds a valid model for later phases
  - If the input stream is invalid, parser reports the problem and diagnostic information to the user

## Syntax Analysis

- Given a programming language grammar G and a stream of tokens S, parsing tries to find a derivation in G that produces S
- In addition, a syntax analyser
  - Forward the information as IR to the next compilation phases
  - Handle errors if the input string is not in L(G)

#### Context-Free Grammars

• A context-free grammar (CFG) G is a quadruple (T, NT, S, P)

T	Set of terminal symbols (also called words) in the language $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G})$
NT	Set of nonterminal symbols that appear in the productions of ${\it G}$
S	Goal or start symbol of the grammar $G$
P	Set of productions (or rules) in $G$

#### Context-Free Grammars

- Terminal symbols correspond to syntactic categories returned by the scanner
  - Terminal symbol is a word that can occur in a sentence
- Nonterminals are syntactic variables introduced to provide abstraction and structure in the productions
- S represents the set of sentences in L(G)
- Each rule in P is of the form  $NT \to (T \cup NT)^*$

#### **Definitions**

• Derivation is a a sequence of rewriting steps that begins with the grammar G's start symbol and ends with a sentence in the language

$$S \stackrel{+}{\Rightarrow} w$$
 where  $w \in L(G)$ 

 At each point during derivation process, the string is a collection of terminal or nonterminal symbols

$$\alpha A\beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$$
 if  $A \rightarrow \gamma$ 

- Such a string is called a sentential form if it occurs in some step of a valid derivation
- A sentential form can be derived from the start symbol in zero or more steps

## Example of a CFG

#### **CFG**

$$Expr \rightarrow (Expr)$$
 $|Expr Op \text{ name}|$ 
 $|name|$ 
 $Op \rightarrow +|-| \times | \div$ 

$$(a+b)\times c$$

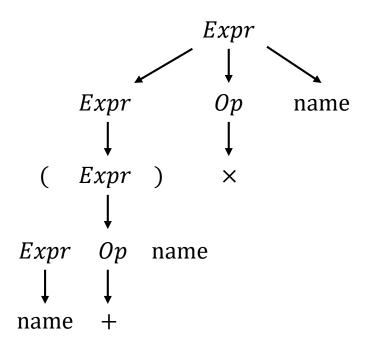
 $Expr \rightarrow Expr Op$  name

- $\rightarrow Expr \times name$
- $\rightarrow$  (*Expr*)  $\times$  name
- $\rightarrow$  (*Expr Op* name)  $\times$  name
- $\rightarrow$  (*Expr* + name) × name
- $\rightarrow$  (name + name) × name

#### Sentential Form and Parse Tree

 $Expr \rightarrow Expr Op$  name

- $\rightarrow Expr \times name$
- $\rightarrow$  (*Expr*)  $\times$  name
- $\rightarrow$  (*Expr Op* name)  $\times$  name
- $\rightarrow$  (*Expr* + name) × name
- $\rightarrow$  (name + name)  $\times$  name



Parse Tree

#### Parse Tree

- A parse tree is a graphical representation of a derivation
  - ullet Root is labeled with by the start symbol S
  - Each internal node is a nonterminal, and represents the application of a production
  - Leaves are labeled by terminals and constitute a sentential form, read from left to right, called the yield or frontier of the tree
- Parse tree filters out the order in which productions are applied to replace nonterminals
  - It just represents the rules applied

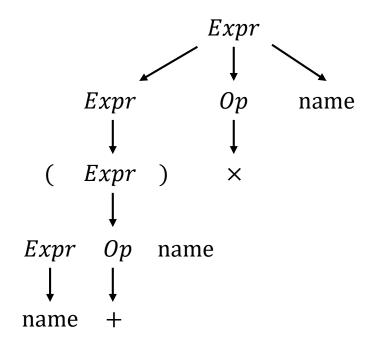
#### Derivations

- At each step during derivation, we have two choices to make
  - 1. Which nonterminal to rewrite?
  - 2. Which production rule to pick?
- Rightmost (or canonical) derivation rewrites the rightmost nonterminal at each step, denoted by  $\alpha \underset{rm}{\Longrightarrow} \beta$ 
  - Similarly, leftmost derivation rewrites the leftmost nonterminal at each step, denoted by  $\alpha \mathop{\Rightarrow}\limits_{lm} \beta$
- Every leftmost derivation can be written as  $wA\gamma \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} w\delta\gamma$

#### Leftmost Derivation

 $Expr \rightarrow Expr Op$  name

- $\rightarrow$  (*Expr*) *Op* name
- $\rightarrow$  (*Expr Op* name) *Op* name
- $\rightarrow$  (name Op name) Op name
- $\rightarrow$  (name + name) Op name
- $\rightarrow$  (name + name)  $\times$  name



Parse Tree

## Ambiguous Grammars

• A grammar G is ambiguous if some sentence in L(G) has more than one rightmost (or leftmost) derivation

 An ambiguous grammar can produce multiple derivations and parse trees

## Example of Ambiguous Grammar

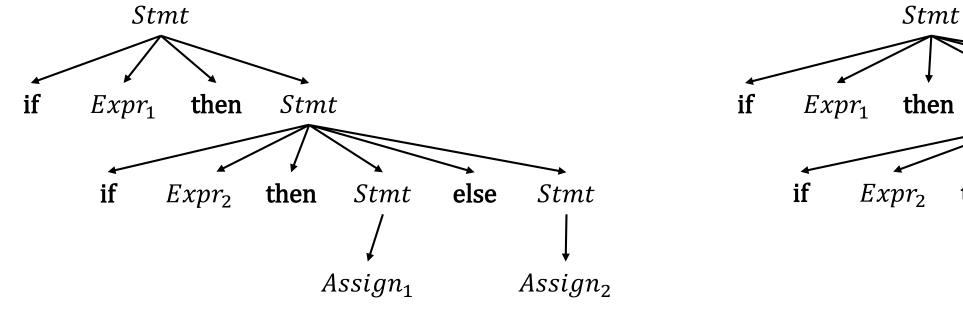
• A grammar G is ambiguous if some sentence in L(G) has more than one rightmost (or leftmost) derivation

 An ambiguous grammar can produce multiple derivations and parse trees

```
Stmt \rightarrow if Expr then Stmt
| if Expr then Stmt else Stmt
| Assign
```

### Ambiguous Dangling-Else Grammar

if  $Expr_1$  then if  $Expr_2$  then  $Assign_1$  else  $Assign_2$ 



if  $Expr_1$  then Stmt else Stmtif  $Expr_2$  then Stmt  $Assign_1$   $Assign_2$ 

### Dealing with Ambiguous Grammars

- Ambiguous grammars are problematic for compilers
  - Compilers use parse trees to interpret the meaning of the expressions during later stages
  - Multiple parse trees can give rise to multiple interpretations
- Fixing ambiguous grammars
  - Transform the grammar to remove the ambiguity
  - Include rules to disambiguate during derivations
    - For e.g., associativity and precedence

## Fixing the Ambiguous Dangling-Else Grammar

• In all programming languages, an else is matched with the closest then

```
Stmt 	o if Expr then Stmt
| if Expr then ThenStmt else Stmt
| Assign
ThenStmt 	o if Expr then ThenStmt else ThenStmt
| Assign
```

### Fixed Dangling-Else Grammar

if  $Expr_1$  then if  $Expr_2$  then  $Assign_1$  else  $Assign_2$ 



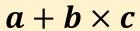
#### $Stmt \rightarrow if Expr then Stmt$

- $\rightarrow$  if Expr then if Expr then ThenStmt else Stmt
- $\rightarrow$  if Expr then if Expr then ThenStmt else Assign
- $\rightarrow$  if Expr then if Expr then Assign else Assign

## Interpreting the Meaning

#### **CFG**

$$Expr \rightarrow (Expr)$$
 $| Expr Op \text{ name}$ 
 $| \text{name}$ 
 $Op \rightarrow +|-| \times | \div$ 



 $Expr \rightarrow Expr Op$  name

- $\rightarrow Expr \times name$
- $\rightarrow$  *Expr Op* name  $\times$  name
- $\rightarrow Expr + name \times name$
- $\rightarrow$  name + name × name

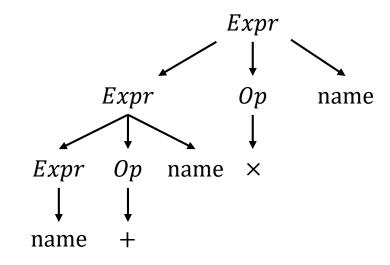


## Corresponding Parse Tree

$$a + b \times c$$

 $Expr \rightarrow Expr Op$  name

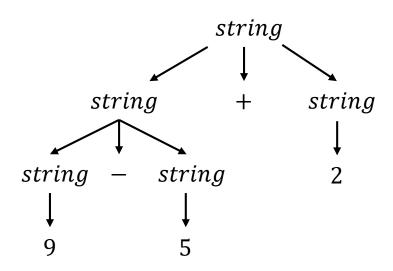
- $\rightarrow Expr \times name$
- $\rightarrow$  *Expr Op* name  $\times$  name
- $\rightarrow Expr + name \times name$
- → name + name × name

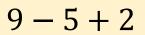


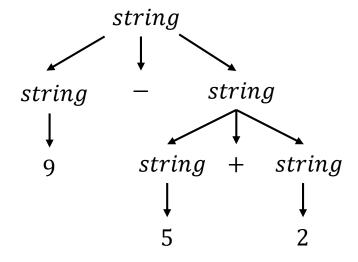
How do we evaluate the expression?

### Associativity

 $string \rightarrow string + string | string - string | 0 | 1 | 2 | \dots | 9$ 







### Associativity

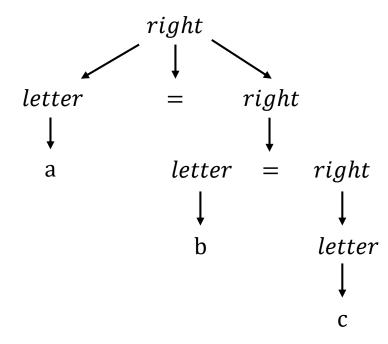
- If an operand has operator on both the sides, the side on which operator takes this operand is the associativity of that operator
  - +, -, \*, / are left associative
  - ^, = are right associative

Grammar to generate strings with right associative operators

```
right \rightarrow letter = right|letter
 letter \rightarrow a|b| \dots |z|
```

## Parse Tree for Right Associative Grammars

$$a = b = c$$



```
priority
```

```
Start \rightarrow Expr

Expr \rightarrow Expr + Term|Expr - Term|Term

Term \rightarrow Term \times Factor|Term \div Factor|Factor

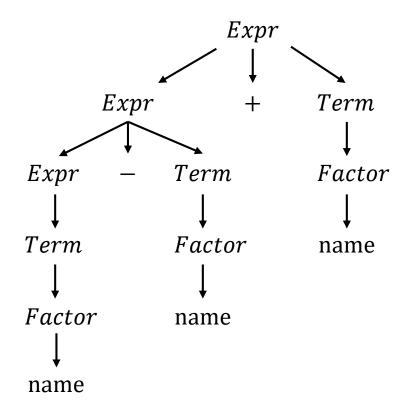
Factor \rightarrow (Expr)|num|name
```

## Corresponding Parse Tree

$$a-b+c$$

 $Start \rightarrow Expr$ 

- $\rightarrow Expr + Term$
- $\rightarrow Expr + Factor$
- $\rightarrow Expr + name$
- $\rightarrow Expr Term + name$
- $\rightarrow Expr Factor + name$
- $\rightarrow Expr$  name + name
- $\rightarrow Term$  name + name
- $\rightarrow$  *Factor* name + name
- $\rightarrow$  name name + name



### Types of Parsers

#### Top-down

Starts with the root and grows the tree toward the leaves

#### Bottom-up

Starts with the leaves and grow the tree toward the root

#### Universal

More general algorithms, but inefficient to use in production compilers

## **Error Handling**

- The scanner cannot deal with all errors
- Common source of programming errors
  - Lexical errors
    - For e.g., illegal characters, missing quotes around strings
  - Syntactic errors
    - For e.g., misspelled keywords, misplaced semicolons or extra or missing braces
  - Semantic errors
    - For e.g., type mismatches between operators and operands, undeclared variables
  - Logical errors

## Handling Errors

#### Panic-mode recovery

- Parser discards input symbols one at a time until a synchronizing token is found
- Synchronizing tokens are usually delimiters (for e.g., ; or })

#### Phrase-level recovery

- Perform local correction on the remaining input
- Can go into an infinite loop because of wrong correction, or the error may have occurred before it is detected

## Handling Errors

#### Error productions

- Augment the grammar with productions that generate erroneous constructs
- Works only for common mistakes, complicates the grammar

#### Global correction

• Given an incorrect input string x and grammar G, find a parse tree for a related string y such that the number of modifications (insertions, deletions, and changes) of tokens required to transform x into y is as small as possible

### Context-Free vs Regular Grammar

- CFGs are more powerful than REs
  - Every regular language is context-free, but not vice versa
  - We can create a CFG for every NFA that simulates some RE

Language that can be described by a CFG but not by a RE

$$L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 1\}$$

## Limitations of Syntax Analysis

- Cannot determine whether
  - A variable has been declared before use
  - A variable has been initialized
  - Variables are of types on which operations are allowed
  - Number of formal and actual arguments of a function match

These limitations are handled during semantic analysis

#### References

- A. Aho et al. Compilers: Principles, Techniques, and Tools, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Chapters 2 and 4.
- K. Cooper and L. Torczon. Engineering a Compiler, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Chapter 3.