

TECHNISCHE UNIVERSITÄT MÜNCHEN FAKULTÄT FÜR INFORMATIK



Compiler Construction I

Dr. Michael Petter

SoSe 2019

Organizing

- Master or Bachelor in the 6th Semester with 5 ECTS
- Prerequisites
 - Basic Programming: Java
 - Introduction to Theory of Computation
 - Basic Principles: Operating Systems and System Software
 - Automata Theory
- Delve deeper with
 - Virtual Machines
 - Programm Optimization
 - Programming Languages
 - Labcourse Compiler Construction

Materials:

- TTT-based lecture recordings
- The slides
- Related literature list online (⇒ Wilhelm/Seidl/Hack Compiler Design)
- Tools for visualization of abstract machines (VAM)
- Tools for generating components of Compilers (JFlex/CUP)

Dates:

Lecture: Thursdays 14:15-15:45 Tutorial: Mondays 14:15-15:45, Wednesdays 8:30-10:00

Exam:

- One Exam in the summer, none in the winter
- planed date: 13.8.19 (no guarantee!)
- Successful mini seminar earns 0.3 bonus

Mini Seminars in week 30:

A 15min talk on a specific compiler related topic, e.g.



Introduction to parser combinators

Parsing Expression Grammars / Packrat Parsers

- LALR(k)
- Pager's LR(k)
- GLR / Tomita parser
- Follow-Automata
- Antimirov-Automata
- LL(*) and LL-regular grammars

Semidicision Procedures for Grammar Uniqueness

)	Island Grammars
J	Learning CFGs with LZW and Sequitur
2	General $First_k/Follow_k$ with Constraint Solvers
3	Reference Attribute Grammars with JastAdd
1	Extensible Grammars with PPG
5	Language Processing with Kiama/Scala

Preliminary content

- Regular expressions and finite automata
- Specification and implementation of scanners
- Reduced context free grammars and pushdown automata
- Top-Down/Bottom-Up syntax analysis
- Attribute systems
- Typechecking
- Codegeneration for register machines
- Register assignment
- Optional: Basic optimization

Topic:

Introduction

Extremes of Program Execution



Interpretation vs. Compilation

Interpretation

- No precomputation on program text necessary
 - ⇒ no/small startup-overhead
- More context information allows for specific aggressive optimization

Compilation

- Program components are analyzed once, during preprocessing, instead of multiple times during execution
 - ⇒ smaller runtime-overhead
- Runtime complexity of optimizations less important than in interpreter

general Compiler setup:



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The Analysis-Phase consists of several subcomponents:



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The Analysis-Phase consists of several subcomponents:



The Analysis-Phase consists of several subcomponents:



(annotated) Syntax tree



Lexical Analysis







- A Token is a sequence of characters, which together form a unit.
- Tokens are subsumed in classes. For example:
 - → Names (Identifiers) e.g. xyz, pi, ...
 - \rightarrow Constants e.g. 42, 3.14, "abc", ...
 - \rightarrow Operators e.g. +, ...
 - \rightarrow Reserved terms e.g. if, int, ...



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The Lexical Analysis - Siever

Classified tokens allow for further pre-processing:

- Dropping irrelevant fragments e.g. Spacing, Comments,...
- Collecting Pragmas, i.e. directives for the compiler, often implementation dependent, directed at the code generation process, e.g. OpenMP-Statements;
- Replacing of Tokens of particular classes with their meaning / internal representation, e.g.
 - \rightarrow Constants;
 - → Names: typically managed centrally in a Symbol-table, maybe compared to reserved terms (if not already done by the scanner) and possibly replaced with an index or internal format (⇒ Name Mangling).

Discussion:

- Scanner and Siever are often combined into a single component, mostly by providing appropriate callback actions in the event that the scanner detects a token.
- Scanners are mostly not written manually, but generated from a specification.



The Lexical Analysis - Generating:



The Lexical Analysis - Generating:



Specification of Token-classes: Regular expressions; Generated Implementation: Finite automata + X

Lexical Analysis

Chapter 1: Basics: Regular Expressions

Basics

- Program code is composed from a finite alphabet Σ of input characters, e.g. Unicode
- The sets of textfragments of a token class is in general regular.
- Regular languages can be specified by regular expressions.

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- Regular languages can be specified by regular expressions.

Definition Regular Expressions

The set \mathcal{E}_{Σ} of (non-empty) regular expressions is the smallest set \mathcal{E} with:

- $\epsilon \in \mathcal{E}$ (ϵ a new symbol not from Σ);
- $a \in \mathcal{E}$ for all $a \in \Sigma$;
- $(e_1 | e_2), (e_1 \cdot e_2), e_1^* \in \mathcal{E}$ if $e_1, e_2 \in \mathcal{E}$.



Stephen Kleene

... Example:

 $\begin{array}{l} ((a \cdot b^*) \cdot a) \\ (a \mid b) \\ ((a \cdot b) \cdot (a \cdot b)) \end{array}$

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 $\begin{array}{l} ((a \cdot b^*) \cdot a) \\ (a \mid b) \\ ((a \cdot b) \cdot (a \cdot b)) \end{array}$

Attention:

- We distinguish between characters *a*, 0, \$,... and Meta-symbols (, |,),...
- To avoid (ugly) parantheses, we make use of Operator-Precedences:

 $* > \cdot > |$

and omit "."

... Example:

 $\begin{array}{c} ((a \cdot b^*) \cdot a) \\ (a \mid b) \\ ((a \cdot b) \cdot (a \cdot b)) \end{array}$

Attention:

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and omit "."

• Real Specification-languages offer additional constructs:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} e? & \equiv & (\epsilon \mid e) \\ e^+ & \equiv & (e \cdot e^*) \end{array}$$

and omit " ϵ "

Specification needs Semantics

...Example:

Specification	Semantics
abab	$\{abab\}$
$a \mid b$	$\{a,b\}$
ab^*a	$\{ab^na \mid n \ge 0\}$

For $e \in \mathcal{E}_{\Sigma}$ we define the specified language $\llbracket e \rrbracket \subseteq \Sigma^*$ inductively by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \epsilon \end{bmatrix} &= \{ \epsilon \} \\ \begin{bmatrix} a \end{bmatrix} &= \{ a \} \\ \begin{bmatrix} e^* \end{bmatrix} &= (\llbracket e \rrbracket)^* \\ \begin{bmatrix} e_1 | e_2 \end{bmatrix} &= \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \cup \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket \\ \llbracket e_1 \cdot e_2 \rrbracket &= \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \cdot \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket$$

Keep in Mind:

• The operators $(_)^*, \cup, \cdot$ are interpreted in the context of sets of words:

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 The operators (_)*, ∪, · are interpreted in the context of sets of words:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} (L)^* & = & \{w_1 \dots w_k \mid k \geq 0, w_i \in L\} \\ L_1 \cdot L_2 & = & \{w_1 w_2 \mid w_1 \in L_1, w_2 \in L_2\} \end{array}$$

 Regular expressions are internally represented as annotated ranked trees:



Leaves: particular symbols or ϵ .

Example: Identifiers in Java:

```
le = [a-zA-Z\_\$]
di = [0-9]
Id = {le} ({le} | {di})*
```

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 $Float = \{di\} * (\. \{di\} | \{di\} \.) \{di\} * ((e|E) (\+ | \-)? \{di\} +)?$

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le = [a-zA-Z\_\$]
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```

 $Float = \{di\} * (\. \{di\} | \{di\} \.) \{di\} * ((e|E) (\+ | \-)? \{di\} +)?$

Remarks:

- "le" and "di" are token classes.
- Defined Names are enclosed in "{", "}".
- Symbols are distinguished from Meta-symbols via "\".

Lexical Analysis

Chapter 2: Basics: Finite Automata

Finite Automata

Example:


Example:



Nodes: States; Edges: Transitions; Lables: Consumed input;

Definition Finite Automata

A non-deterministic finite automaton (NFA) is a tuple $A = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, I, F)$ with:



Michael Rabin

Dana Scott

Q	a finite set of states;
Σ	a finite alphabet of inputs;
$I \subseteq Q$	the set of start states;
$F \subseteq Q$	the set of final states and
δ	the set of transitions (-relation



For an NFA, we reckon:

Definition Deterministic Finite Automata Given $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$ a function and |I| = 1, then we call the NFA *A* deterministic (DFA).

Dana Scott

- Computations are paths in the graph.
- Accepting computations lead from I to F.
- An accepted word is the sequence of lables along an accepting computation ...



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Once again, more formally:

• We define the transitive closure δ^* of δ as the smallest set δ' with:

 $\begin{array}{ll} (p,\epsilon,p)\in\delta' & \text{ and } \\ (p,xw,q)\in\delta' & \text{ if } (p,x,p_1)\in\delta & \text{ and } (p_1,w,q)\in\delta'. \end{array}$

 δ^* characterizes for a path between the states p and q the words obtained by concatenating the labels along it.

• The set of all accepting words, i.e. *A*'s accepted language can be described compactly as:

 $\mathcal{L}(A) = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid \exists i \in I, f \in F : (i, w, f) \in \delta^* \}$

Lexical Analysis

Chapter 3: Converting Regular Expressions to NFAs

In Linear Time from Regular Expressions to NFAs





Produces $\mathcal{O}(n)$ states for regular expressions of length n.



Ken Thompson

A formal approach to Thompson's Algorithm



Berry-Sethi Algorithm

Produces exactly n + 1 states without ϵ -transitions Gerard Berry Ravi Sethi and demonstrates \rightarrow *Equality Systems* and \rightarrow *Attribute Grammars*

Idea:

An automaton covering the syntax tree of a regular expression e tracks (conceptionally via markers "•"), which subexpressions e' are reachable consuming the rest of input w.

- markers contribute an entry or exit point into the automaton for this subexpression
- edges for each layer of subexpression are modelled after Thompson's automata



A formal approach to Thompson's Algorithm



Glushkov Automaton

Viktor M. Glushkov Produces exactly n+1 states without ϵ -transitions and demonstrates \rightarrow Equality Systems and \rightarrow Attribute Grammars

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An automaton covering the syntax tree of a regular expression etracks (conceptionally via markers "•"), which subexpressions e' are reachable consuming the rest of input w.

- markers contribute an entry or exit point into the automaton for this subexpression
- edges for each layer of subexpression are modelled after Thompson's automata





... for example:

 $(a|b)^*a(a|b)$















... for example:

w



... for example:

w



... for example:

w



In general:

- Input is only consumed at the leaves.
- Navigating the tree does not consume input $\rightarrow \epsilon$ -transitions
- For a formal construction we need identifiers for states.
- For a node n's identifier we take the subexpression, corresponding to the subtree dominated by n.
- There are possibly identical subexpressions in one regular expression.
 - \implies we enumerate the leaves ...







Berry-Sethi Approach (naive version)

Construction (naive version):

```
States: •r, r• with r nodes of e;
Start state: •e;
Final state: e•;
Transitions: for leaves r \equiv \boxed{i \ x} we require: (•r, x, r•).
```

The leftover transitions are:

r	Transitions
$r_1 \mid r_2$	$(ullet r,\epsilon,ullet r_1)$
	$(ullet r,\epsilon,ullet r_2)$
	$(r_1 ullet, \epsilon, rullet)$
	$(r_2 ullet, \epsilon, rullet)$
$r_1 \cdot r_2$	$(ullet r,\epsilon,ullet r_1)$
	$(r_1 ullet, \epsilon, ullet r_2)$
	$(r_2 ullet, \epsilon, rullet)$

r	Transitions
r_1^*	$(ullet r,\epsilon,rullet)$
	$(ullet r,\epsilon,ullet r_1)$
	$(r_1 ullet, \epsilon, ullet r_1)$
	$(r_1 ullet, \epsilon, r ullet)$
$r_1?$	$(ullet r,\epsilon,rullet)$
	$(ullet r,\epsilon,ullet r_1)$
	$(r_1 ullet, \epsilon, rullet)$

Discussion:

- Most transitions navigate through the expression
- The resulting automaton is in general nondeterministic

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Pre-compute helper attributes during D(epth)F(irst)S(earch)!

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⇒ Strategy for the sophisticated version: Avoid generating ϵ -transitions

Idea:

Pre-compute helper attributes during D(epth)F(irst)S(earch)!

Necessary node-attributes:

- first the set of read states below r, which may be reached first, when descending into r.
- next the set of read states, which may be reached first in the traversal after r.
- last the set of read states below r, which may be reached last when descending into r.

empty can the subexpression r consume ϵ ?

 $\mathsf{empty}[r] = t$ if and only if $\epsilon \in \llbracket r \rrbracket$



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Implementation:

DFS post-order traversal

for leaves $r \equiv [i]x$ we find $empty[r] = (x \equiv \epsilon)$.

Otherwise:

Berry-Sethi Approach: 2nd step

The may-set of first reached read states: The set of read states, that may be reached from $\bullet r$ (i.e. while descending into r) via sequences of ϵ -transitions: first $[r] = \{i \text{ in } r \mid (\bullet r, \epsilon, \bullet [i] x]) \in \delta^*, x \neq \epsilon\}$


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Implementation: DFS post-order traversal

for leaves $r \equiv [i]x$ we find first $[r] = \{i \mid x \neq \epsilon\}$.

Otherwise:











Implementation:

DFS pre-order traversal

For the root, we find: $next[e] = \emptyset$ Apart from that we distinguish, based on the context:

r		Equalities	
$r_1 \mid r_2$	$next[r_1] =$	next[r]	
	$next[r_2] =$	next[r]	
$r_1 \cdot r_2$	$next[r_1] =$	$\left\{\begin{array}{l} first[r_2] \cup next[r] \\ first[r_2] \end{array}\right.$	$ \begin{array}{ll} \text{if} & \text{empty}[r_2] = t \\ \text{if} & \text{empty}[r_2] = f \end{array} $
	$next[r_2] =$	next[r]	
r_1^*	$next[r_1] =$	$first[r_1] \cup next[r]$	
$r_1?$	$next[r_1] =$	next[r]	

The may-set of last reached read states: The set of read states, which may be reached last during the traversal of *r* connected to the root via ϵ -transitions only: last[r] = {i in r | ($\boxed{i \ x} \bullet, \epsilon, r \bullet$) $\in \delta^*, x \neq \epsilon$ }



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Implementation:

DFS post-order traversal

for leaves $r \equiv [i \mid x]$ we find $last[r] = \{i \mid x \neq \epsilon\}$.

Otherwise:

$$\begin{split} &\operatorname{last}[r_1 \mid r_2] &= \operatorname{last}[r_1] \cup \operatorname{last}[r_2] \\ &\operatorname{last}[r_1 \cdot r_2] &= \begin{cases} \operatorname{last}[r_1] \cup \operatorname{last}[r_2] & \text{if } \operatorname{empty}[r_2] = t \\ \operatorname{last}[r_2] & \text{if } \operatorname{empty}[r_2] = f \end{cases} \\ &\operatorname{last}[r_1^*] &= \operatorname{last}[r_1] \\ &\operatorname{last}[r_1^*] &= \operatorname{last}[r_1] \end{cases} \end{split}$$

Berry-Sethi Approach: (sophisticated version)

Construction (sophisticated version):

Create an automanton based on the syntax tree's new attributes:

```
States: \{\bullet e\} \cup \{i\bullet \mid i \text{ a leaf not } \epsilon\}

Start state: \bullet e

Final states: |ast[e] = f

\{\bullet e\} \cup |ast[e] \text{ otherwise}

Transitions: (\bullet e, a, i\bullet) \text{ if } i \in \text{first}[e] \text{ and } i \text{ labled with } a.

(i\bullet, a, i'\bullet) \text{ if } i' \in \text{next}[i] \text{ and } i' \text{ labled with } a.
```

We call the resulting automaton A_e .

Berry-Sethi Approach

... for example:



Remarks:

- This construction is known as Berry-Sethi- or Glushkov-construction.
- It is used for XML to define Content Models
- The result may not be, what we had in mind...

Lexical Analysis

Chapter 4: Turning NFAs deterministic

The expected outcome:



Remarks:

- ideal automaton would be even more compact (→ Antimirov automata, Follow Automata)
- but Berry-Sethi is rather directly constructed
- Anyway, we need a deterministic version

\Rightarrow Powerset-Construction





















Theorem:

For every non-deterministic automaton $A = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, I, F)$ we can compute a deterministic automaton $\mathcal{P}(A)$ with

 $\mathcal{L}(A) = \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}(A))$

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 $\mathcal{L}(A) = \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}(A))$

Construction:

States: Powersets of Q; Start state: I; Final states: $\{Q' \subseteq Q \mid Q' \cap F \neq \emptyset\}$; Transitions: $\delta_{\mathcal{P}}(Q', a) = \{q \in Q \mid \exists p \in Q' : (p, a, q) \in \delta\}$.

Observation:

There are exponentially many powersets of Q

- Idea: Consider only contributing powersets. Starting with the set $Q_{\mathcal{P}} = \{I\}$ we only add further states by need ...
- i.e., whenever we can reach them from a state in $Q_{\mathcal{P}}$
- However, the resulting automaton can become enormously huge ... which is (sort of) not happening in practice

Observation:

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- Idea: Consider only contributing powersets. Starting with the set $Q_{\mathcal{P}} = \{I\}$ we only add further states by need ...
- i.e., whenever we can reach them from a state in $Q_{\mathcal{P}}$
- However, the resulting automaton can become enormously huge ... which is (sort of) not happening in practice
- Therefore, in tools like grep a regular expression's DFA is never created!
- Instead, only the sets, directly necessary for interpreting the input are generated while processing the input

















 $\begin{array}{c|c} \mbox{... for example:} \\ \hline a & b & a & b \\ \end{array}$





Remarks:

- For an input sequence of length n, maximally $\mathcal{O}(n)$ sets are generated
- Once a set/edge of the DFA is generated, they are stored within a hash-table.
- Before generating a new transition, we check this table for already existing edges with the desired label.

Remarks:

- \bullet For an input sequence of length n , maximally $\mathcal{O}(n)$ sets are generated
- Once a set/edge of the DFA is generated, they are stored within a hash-table.
- Before generating a new transition, we check this table for already existing edges with the desired label.

Summary:

Theorem:

For each regular expression e we can compute a deterministic automaton $A=\mathcal{P}(A_e)$ with

$$\mathcal{L}(A) = \llbracket e \rrbracket$$

Lexical Analysis

Chapter 5: Scanner design
Scanner design

Input (simplified):

a set of rules:

$e_1 \\ e_2$	$\{ \texttt{action}_1 \} \\ \{ \texttt{action}_2 \}$
e_k	$\{ \texttt{action}_k \}$

Scanner design



Output: a program,

- ... reading a maximal prefix w from the input, that satisfies $e_1 \mid \ldots \mid e_k$;
- ... determining the minimal i, such that $w \in \llbracket e_i \rrbracket$;
- ... executing $action_i$ for w.

Idea:

- Create the DFA $\mathcal{P}(A_e) = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ for the expression $e = (e_1 \mid \ldots \mid e_k)$;
- Define the sets:

$$F_{1} = \{q \in F \mid q \cap \mathsf{last}[e_{1}] \neq \emptyset\}$$

$$F_{2} = \{q \in (F \setminus F_{1}) \mid q \cap \mathsf{last}[e_{2}] \neq \emptyset\}$$

$$\dots$$

$$F_{k} = \{q \in (F \setminus (F_{1} \cup \dots \cup F_{k-1})) \mid q \cap \mathsf{last}[e_{k}] \neq \emptyset\}$$

• For input w we find: $\delta^*(q_0, w) \in F_i$ iff the scanner must execute $action_i$ for w

Idea (cont'd):

- The scanner manages two pointers $\langle A, B \rangle$ and the related states $\langle q_A, q_B \rangle$...
- Pointer A points to the last position in the input, after which a state q_A ∈ F was reached;
- Pointer *B* tracks the current position.





Idea (cont'd):

- The scanner manages two pointers $\langle A, B \rangle$ and the related states $\langle q_A, q_B \rangle$...
- Pointer A points to the last position in the input, after which a state q_A ∈ F was reached;
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Idea (cont'd):

• The current state being $q_B = \emptyset$, we consume input up to position *A* and reset:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} B & := & A; & A & := & \bot; \\ q_B & := & q_0; & q_A & := & \bot \end{array}$$



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Extension: States

- Now and then, it is handy to differentiate between particular scanner states.
- In different states, we want to recognize different token classes with different precedences.
- Depending on the consumed input, the scanner state can be changed

Example: Comments

Within a comment, identifiers, constants, comments, ... are ignored

Input (generalized): a set of rules:



- The statement yybegin (state_i); resets the current state to $state_i$.
- The start state is called (e.g.flex JFlex) YYINITIAL.

... for example:

Remarks:

- "." matches all characters different from "n".
- For every state we generate the scanner respectively.
- Method yybegin (STATE); switches between different scanners.
- Comments might be directly implemented as (admittedly overly complex) token-class.
- Scanner-states are especially handy for implementing preprocessors, expanding special fragments in regular programs.



Syntactic Analysis



 Syntactic analysis tries to integrate Tokens into larger program units.



- Syntactic analysis tries to integrate Tokens into larger program units.
- Such units may possibly be:
 - \rightarrow Expressions;
 - \rightarrow Statements;
 - \rightarrow Conditional branches;
 - \rightarrow loops; ...

Discussion:

In general, parsers are not developed by hand, but generated from a specification:



Discussion:

In general, parsers are not developed by hand, but generated from a specification:



Specification of the hierarchical structure: contextfree grammars Generated implementation: Pushdown automata + X Syntactic Analysis

Chapter 1: Basics of Contextfree Grammars

Basics: Context-free Grammars

- Programs of programming languages can have arbitrary numbers of tokens, but only finitely many Token-classes.
- This is why we choose the set of Token-classes to be the finite alphabet of terminals *T*.
- The nested structure of program components can be described elegantly via context-free grammars...

Basics: Context-free Grammars

- Programs of programming languages can have arbitrary numbers of tokens, but only finitely many Token-classes.
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Definition: Context-Free Grammar

A context-free grammar (CFG) is a 4-tuple G = (N, T, P, S) with:

- N the set of nonterminals,
- T the set of terminals,
- P the set of productions or rules, and
- $S \in N$ the start symbol





Noam Chomsky

John Backus

Conventions

The rules of context-free grammars take the following form:

 $A \to \alpha$ with $A \in N$, $\alpha \in (N \cup T)^*$

Conventions

The rules of context-free grammars take the following form:

```
A \rightarrow \alpha with A \in N, \alpha \in (N \cup T)^*
```

... for example:

 $S \rightarrow a S b$ $S \rightarrow \epsilon$ Specified language: $\{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0\}$

Conventions

The rules of context-free grammars take the following form:

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... for example:

 $egin{array}{cccc} S& o&a\,S\,b\ S& o&\epsilon \end{array}$ Specified language: $\{a^nb^n\mid n\geq 0\}$

Conventions:

In examples, we specify nonterminals and terminals in general implicitely:

- nonterminals are: $A, B, C, ..., \langle \exp \rangle, \langle \mathsf{stmt} \rangle, ...;$
- terminals are: *a*, *b*, *c*, ..., int, name, ...;

... a practical example:

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More conventions:

- For every nonterminal, we collect the right hand sides of rules and list them together.
- The *j*-th rule for A can be identified via the pair (A, j) (with $j \ge 0$).

Pair of grammars:

E	\rightarrow	E + E	E * E	(E)	name	int
E	\rightarrow	E+T	T			
T	\rightarrow	T*F	F			
F	\rightarrow	(E)	name	int		

Both grammars describe the same language

Pair of grammars:

E	\rightarrow	$E + E^{0}$	$ E * E^1$	$(E)^{2}$	name ³	int ⁴
E	\rightarrow	$E+T^{0}$	T^{1}			
T	\rightarrow	$T*F^0$	F^{1}			
F	\rightarrow	(E) ⁰	name ¹	int ²		

Both grammars describe the same language

Grammars are term rewriting systems. The rules offer feasible rewriting steps. A sequence of such rewriting steps $\alpha_0 \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow \alpha_m$ is called derivation.

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 $\rightarrow \underline{T} + T$
 $\rightarrow T * \underline{F} + T$

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... for example: \underline{E}

$$\rightarrow \underline{\underline{E}} + T \rightarrow \underline{T} + T \rightarrow T * \underline{F} + T \rightarrow \underline{T} * \text{int} + T$$

T . **T**

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$$\begin{array}{ccc} \rightarrow & \underline{E} + T \\ \rightarrow & \underline{T} + T \\ \rightarrow & T * \underline{F} + T \\ \rightarrow & \underline{T} * \mathsf{int} + T \\ \rightarrow & \underline{F} * \mathsf{int} + T \end{array}$$

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 \rightarrow \underline{F} * \underline{int} + T \\
 \rightarrow name * \underline{int} + \underline{T} \\
 \rightarrow name * \underline{int} + \underline{F} \\
 \rightarrow name * \underline{int} + \underline{int}$$

Definition

The rewriting relation \rightarrow is a relation on words over $N \cup T$, with

 $\alpha \to \alpha' \quad \text{iff} \quad \alpha = \alpha_1 \; A \; \alpha_2 \; \; \land \; \; \alpha' = \alpha_1 \; \beta \; \alpha_2 \; \; \text{for an} \; \; A \to \beta \in P$
Derivation

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.. for example:

$$\underline{E} \rightarrow \underline{E} + T \\
 \rightarrow \underline{T} + T \\
 \rightarrow T * \underline{F} + T \\
 \rightarrow T * int + T \\
 \rightarrow \underline{F} * int + T \\
 \rightarrow \underline{F} * int + T \\
 \rightarrow name * int + \underline{T} \\
 \rightarrow name * int + \underline{F} \\
 \rightarrow name * int + int$$

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The reflexive and transitive closure of \rightarrow is denoted as: \rightarrow^*

Derivation

Remarks:

- The relation \rightarrow depends on the grammar
- In each step of a derivation, we may choose:
 - * a spot, determining where we will rewrite.
 - * a rule, determining how we will rewrite.
- The language, specified by G is:

 $\mathcal{L}(G) = \{ w \in T^* \mid S \to^* w \}$

Derivation

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```
\mathcal{L}(G) = \{ w \in T^* \mid S \to^* w \}
```

Attention:

The order, in which disjunct fragments are rewritten is not relevant.

Derivation Tree

Derivations of a symbol are represented as derivation trees:

... for example:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \underline{E} & \rightarrow^{0} & \underline{E}+T \\ \rightarrow^{1} & \underline{T}+T \\ \rightarrow^{0} & T * \underline{F}+T \\ \rightarrow^{2} & \underline{T} * \mathsf{int}+T \\ \rightarrow^{1} & \underline{F} * \mathsf{int}+T \\ \rightarrow^{1} & \mathsf{name} * \mathsf{int}+\underline{T} \\ \rightarrow^{1} & \mathsf{name} * \mathsf{int}+\underline{F} \\ \rightarrow^{2} & \mathsf{name} * \mathsf{int}+\mathsf{int} \end{array}$$



A derivation tree for $A \in N$: inner nodes: rule applications root: rule application for Aleaves: terminals or ϵ The successors of (B, i) correspond to right hand sides of the rule

Attention:

In contrast to arbitrary derivations, we find special ones, always rewriting the leftmost (or rather rightmost) occurance of a nonterminal.

- These are called leftmost (or rather rightmost) derivations and are denoted with the index *L* (or *R* respectively).
- Leftmost (or rightmost) derivations correspondt to a left-to-right (or right-to-left) preorder-DFS-traversal of the derivation tree.
- Reverse rightmost derivations correspond to a left-to-right postorder-DFS-traversal of the derivation tree

... for example:



... for example:



Leftmost derivation:

(E, 0) (E, 1) (T, 0) (T, 1) (F, 1) (F, 2) (T, 1) (F, 2)

... for example:



Leftmost derivation: Rightmost derivation: (E, 0) (E, 1) (T, 0) (T, 1) (F, 1) (F, 2) (T, 1) (F, 2)(E, 0) (T, 1) (F, 2) (E, 1) (T, 0) (F, 2) (T, 1) (F, 1)

... for example:



Leftmost derivation: Rightmost derivation: Reverse rightmost derivation: $\begin{array}{l} (E,0) \ (E,1) \ (T,0) \ (T,1) \ (F,1) \ (F,2) \ (T,1) \ (F,2) \\ (E,0) \ (T,1) \ (F,2) \ (E,1) \ (T,0) \ (F,2) \ (T,1) \ (F,1) \\ (F,1) \ (T,1) \ (F,2) \ (T,0) \ (E,1) \ (F,2) \ (T,1) \ (E,0) \end{array}$

Unique Grammars

... for example:

The concatenation of leaves of a derivation tree t are often called yield(t).



gives rise to the concatenation:

name * int + int .

Unique Grammars

Definition:

Grammar *G* is called unique, if for every $w \in T^*$ there is maximally one derivation tree *t* of *S* with yield(*t*) = *w*.

... in our example:

E	\rightarrow	$E + E^{0}$	$E * E^1$	$(E)^{2}$	name ³	int ⁴
E	\rightarrow	$E+T^{0}$	T^1			
T	\rightarrow	$T * F^{0}$	F^{1}			
F	\rightarrow	(E) ⁰	name ¹	int ²		

The first one is ambiguous, the second one is unique

Conclusion:

- A derivation tree represents a possible hierarchical structure of a word.
- For programming languages, only those grammars with a unique structure are of interest.
- Derivation trees are one-to-one corresponding with leftmost derivations as well as (reverse) rightmost derivations.

Conclusion:

- A derivation tree represents a possible hierarchical structure of a word.
- For programming languages, only those grammars with a unique structure are of interest.
- Derivation trees are one-to-one corresponding with leftmost derivations as well as (reverse) rightmost derivations.
- Leftmost derivations correspond to a top-down reconstruction of the syntax tree.
- Reverse rightmost derivations correspond to a bottom-up reconstruction of the syntax tree.

Syntactic Analysis

Chapter 2: Basics of Pushdown Automata

Basics of Pushdown Automata

Languages, specified by context free grammars are accepted by Pushdown Automata:



The pushdown is used e.g. to verify correct nesting of braces.

Example:

0	a	11
1	a	11
11	b	2
12	b	2

Example:

 States:
 0, 1, 2

 Start state:
 0

 Final states:
 0, 2

0	a	11
1	a	11
11	b	2
12	b	2

Conventions:

- We do not differentiate between pushdown symbols and states
- The rightmost / upper pushdown symbol represents the state
- Every transition consumes / modifies the upper part of the pushdown

Definition: Pushdown Automaton

A pushdown automaton (PDA) is a tuple $M = (Q, T, \delta, q_0, F)$ with:

- Q a finite set of states;
- T an input alphabet;
- $q_0 \in Q$ the start state;
- $F \subseteq Q$ the set of final states and
- $\delta \subseteq Q^+ \times (T \cup \{\epsilon\}) \times Q^*$ a finite set of transitions





Friedrich Bauer

Klaus Samelson

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- $\delta \subseteq Q^+ \times (T \cup \{\epsilon\}) \times Q^*$ a finite set of transitions

We define computations of pushdown automata with the help of transitions; a particular computation state (the current configuration) is a pair:

 $(\gamma,w) \in Q^* imes T^*$

consisting of the pushdown content and the remaining input.





Friedrich Bauer

Klaus Samelson

States:	0, 1, 2
Start state:	0
Final states:	0, 2

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 Start state:
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 Final states:
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 $(0, \quad a \, a \, a \, b \, b \, b)$

 States:
 0, 1, 2

 Start state:
 0

 Final states:
 0, 2

 $\begin{array}{c|cccc} 0 & a & 11 \\ \hline 1 & a & 11 \\ \hline 11 & b & 2 \\ \hline 12 & b & 2 \\ \end{array}$

$$(0, a a a b b b) \vdash (11, a a b b b)$$

0	a	11
1	a	11
11	b	2
12	b	2

$$egin{array}{rcl} (0\,,&a\,a\,a\,b\,b\,b)‐&(11\,,&a\,a\,b\,b\,b)\ ‐&(111\,,&a\,b\,b\,b)\end{array} \end{array}$$

0	a	11
1	a	11
11	b	2
12	b	2

$$egin{array}{rcl} (0\,, & a\,a\,a\,b\,b\,b) ‐ & (11\,, & a\,a\,b\,b\,b) \ dash & & (111\,, & a\,b\,b\,b) \ dash & & (1111\,, & b\,b\,b) \end{array}$$

0	a	11
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States:	0, 1, 2
Start state:	0
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States:	0, 1, 2
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A computation step is characterized by the relation $\vdash \subseteq (Q^* \times T^*)^2$ with

 $(\alpha \, \gamma, \, x \, w) \vdash (\alpha \, \gamma', \, w) \quad ext{for} \quad (\gamma, \, x, \, \gamma') \, \in \, \delta$

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Remarks:

- The relation \vdash depends on the pushdown automaton M
- The reflexive and transitive closure of ⊢ is denoted by ⊢*
- Then, the language accepted by M is

$$\mathcal{L}(M) = \{w \in T^* \mid \exists f \in F : (q_0, w) \vdash^* (f, \epsilon)\}$$

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 $\mathcal{L}(M) = \{ w \in T^* \mid \exists f \in F : (q_0, w) \vdash^* (f, \epsilon) \}$

We accept with a final state together with empty input.

Definition: Deterministic Pushdown Automaton The pushdown automaton M is deterministic, if every configuration has maximally one successor configuration.

This is exactly the case if for distinct transitions $(\gamma_1, x, \gamma_2), (\gamma'_1, x', \gamma'_2) \in \delta$ we can assume: Is γ_1 a suffix of γ'_1 , then $x \neq x' \land x \neq \epsilon \neq x'$ is valid. **Definition:** Deterministic Pushdown Automaton The pushdown automaton M is deterministic, if every configuration has maximally one successor configuration.

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... for example:

0	a	11
1	a	11
11	b	2
12	b	2

... this obviously holds

Pushdown Automata



Theorem:

For each context free grammar G = (N, T, P, S) ^{M. Schützenberger} A. Öttinger a pushdown automaton M with $\mathcal{L}(G) = \mathcal{L}(M)$ can be built.

The theorem is so important for us, that we take a look at two constructions for automata, motivated by both of the special derivations:

- M_G^L to build Leftmost derivations
- M_G^R to build reverse Rightmost derivations

Syntactic Analysis

Chapter 3: Top-down Parsing Construction: Item Pushdown Automaton M_G^L

- Reconstruct a Leftmost derivation.
- Expand nonterminals using a rule.
- Verify successively, that the chosen rule matches the input.
- → The states are now Items (= rules with a bullet):

 $[A \to \alpha \bullet \beta] , \qquad A \to \alpha \, \beta \ \in \ \mathbf{P}$

The bullet marks the spot, how far the rule is already processed

Item Pushdown Automaton – Example

Our example:

 $S \rightarrow AB \qquad A \rightarrow a \qquad B \rightarrow b$
Our example:



Our example:



Our example:



Our example:



Our example:



Our example:



Our example:



Our example:



Our example:



Our example:



We add another rule $S' \rightarrow S$ for initialising the construction:

Start state: $[S' \rightarrow \bullet S \ \$]$ End state: $[S' \rightarrow S \bullet \ \$]$ Transition relations:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} [S' \rightarrow \bullet S \$] & \epsilon & [S' \rightarrow \bullet S \$] [S \rightarrow \bullet A B] \\ \hline [S \rightarrow \bullet A B] & \epsilon & [S \rightarrow \bullet A B] [A \rightarrow \bullet a] \\ \hline [A \rightarrow \bullet a] & a & [A \rightarrow a \bullet] \\ \hline [S \rightarrow \bullet A B] [A \rightarrow a \bullet] & \epsilon & [S \rightarrow A \bullet B] \\ \hline [S \rightarrow A \bullet B] & \epsilon & [S \rightarrow A \bullet B] [B \rightarrow \bullet b] \\ \hline [B \rightarrow \bullet b] & b & [B \rightarrow b \bullet] \\ \hline [S \rightarrow A \bullet B] [B \rightarrow b \bullet] & \epsilon & [S \rightarrow A B \bullet] \\ \hline [S' \rightarrow \bullet S \$] [S \rightarrow A B \bullet] & \epsilon & [S' \rightarrow S \bullet \$] \end{array}$$

The item pushdown automaton M_G^L has three kinds of transitions:

Items of the form: $[A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet]$ are also called complete The item pushdown automaton shifts the bullet around the derivation tree ...

Discussion:

- The expansions of a computation form a leftmost derivation
- Unfortunately, the expansions are chosen nondeterministically
- For proving correctness of the construction, we show that for every Item $[A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet B \beta]$ the following holds:

 $([A \to \alpha \bullet B \beta], w) \vdash^* ([A \to \alpha B \bullet \beta], \epsilon) \quad \text{iff} \quad B \to^* w$

• LL-Parsing is based on the item pushdown automaton and tries to make the expansions deterministic ...

Example: $S' \rightarrow S$ \$ $S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid a S b$

The transitions of the according Item Pushdown Automaton:

0	$[S' \to \bullet S \$]$	ϵ	$[S' \to \bullet S \ \$] [S \to \bullet]$
1	$[S' \to \bullet S \$]$	ϵ	$[S' \to \bullet S \ \$] [S \to \bullet a S b]$
2	[S ightarrow ullet a S b]	a	$[S \rightarrow a \bullet S b]$
3	$[S \rightarrow a \bullet S b]$	ϵ	$[S \to a \bullet S b] [S \to \bullet]$
4	$[S \rightarrow a \bullet S b]$	ϵ	$[S \to a \bullet S b] [S \to \bullet a S b]$
5	$[S \rightarrow a \bullet S b] [S \rightarrow \bullet]$	ϵ	$[S \rightarrow a \ S \bullet b]$
6	$[S \to a \bullet S b] [S \to a S b \bullet]$	ϵ	$[S \rightarrow a \ S \bullet b]$
7	$[S \rightarrow a \ S \bullet b]$	b	$[S \rightarrow a \ S \ b \bullet]$
8	$[S' \to \bullet S \$] [S \to \bullet]$	ϵ	$[S' \to S \bullet \$]$
9	$[S' \to \bullet S \$] [S \to a S b \bullet]$	ϵ	$[S' \to S \bullet \$]$

Example: $S' \rightarrow S$ \$ $S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid a S b$

The transitions of the according Item Pushdown Automaton:



Conflicts arise between the transitions (0, 1) and (3, 4), resp..

Problem:

Conflicts between the transitions prohibit an implementation of the item pushdown automaton as deterministic pushdown automaton.

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For each conflict, we create a virtual copy of the complete stack and continue deriving in parallel.

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Depth-first search for an appropriate derivation.

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Idea 2: Recursive Descent & Backtracking

Depth-first search for an appropriate derivation.

Idea 3: Recursive Descent & Lookahead

Conflicts are resolved by considering a lookup of the next input symbol.

Structure of the LL(1)-Parser:



- The parser accesses a frame of length 1 of the input;
- it corresponds to an item pushdown automaton, essentially;
- table M[q, w] contains the rule of choice.

Idea:

- Emanate from the item pushdown automaton
- Consider the next input symbol to determine the appropriate rule for the next expansion
- A grammar is called *LL*(1) if a unique choice is always possible

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- Consider the next input symbol to determine the appropriate rule for the next expansion
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Definition:

A reduced grammar is called LL(1), Philip Lewis Richard Steams if for each two distinct rules $A \rightarrow \alpha$, $A \rightarrow \alpha' \in P$ and each derivation $S \rightarrow_L^* u A \beta$ with $u \in T^*$ the following is valid:

 $\operatorname{First}_1(\alpha \beta) \cap \operatorname{First}_1(\alpha' \beta) = \emptyset$

Example 1:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} S & \rightarrow & \text{if} (E) S \text{ else } S & | \\ & & \text{while} (E) S & | \\ & & E; \\ E & \rightarrow & \text{id} \end{array}$$

is LL(1), since $First_1(E) = {id}$

Example 1:

is LL(1), since $\operatorname{First}_1(E) = {\operatorname{id}}$

Example 2:

... is not LL(k) for any k > 0.

Definition: First₁-Sets For a set $L \subseteq T^*$ we define: First₁(L) = { $\epsilon \mid \epsilon \in L$ } \cup { $u \in T \mid \exists v \in T^*$: $uv \in L$ }

Example: $S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid a S b$

$First_1(S)$		
ϵ		
a b		
a a b b		
a a a b b b		

Definition: First₁-Sets For a set $L \subseteq T^*$ we define: First₁(L) = { $\epsilon \mid \epsilon \in L$ } \cup { $u \in T \mid \exists v \in T^*$: $uv \in L$ }

Example: $S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid a S b$

$First_1(S)$		
ϵ		
a b		
a a b b		
a a a b b b		

 \equiv the yield's prefix of length 1

Arithmetics: First₁(_) is distributive with union and concatenation:

 \odot_1 being 1- concatenation

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 \odot_1 being 1 - concatenation

Definition: 1-concatenation Let $L_1, L_2 \subseteq T \cup \{\epsilon\}$ with $L_1 \neq \emptyset \neq L_2$. Then: $L_1 \odot_1 L_2 = \begin{cases} L_1 & \text{if } \epsilon \notin L_1 \\ (L_1 \setminus \{\epsilon\}) \cup L_2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

If all rules of G are productive, then all sets $First_1(A)$ are non-empty.

For $\alpha \in (N \cup T)^*$ we are interested in the set:

$$\mathsf{First}_1(\alpha) = \mathsf{First}_1(\{w \in T^* \mid \alpha \to^* w\})$$

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Idea: Treat ϵ separately: $\operatorname{First}_1(A) = F_{\epsilon}(A) \cup \{\epsilon \mid A \rightarrow^* \epsilon\}$

• Let
$$empty(X) = true \text{ iff } X \to^* \epsilon$$
.

•
$$F_{\epsilon}(X_1 \dots X_m) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{j} F_{\epsilon}(X_i)$$
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Idea: Treat ϵ separately: $\operatorname{First}_1(A) = F_{\epsilon}(A) \cup \{\epsilon \mid A \rightarrow^* \epsilon\}$

• Let
$$empty(X) = true \text{ iff } X \to^* \epsilon$$

• $F_{\epsilon}(X_1...X_m) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{j} F_{\epsilon}(X_i)$ if $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{j-1} \operatorname{empty}(X_i) \land \neg \operatorname{empty}(X_j)$

We characterize the ϵ -free First₁-sets with an inequality system:

$$\begin{array}{lll} F_{\epsilon}(a) &= \{a\} & \text{if} & a \in T \\ F_{\epsilon}(A) &\supseteq & F_{\epsilon}(X_{j}) & \text{if} & A \to X_{1} \dots X_{m} \in P, \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ \end{array}$$

for example...

with empty(E) = empty(T) = empty(F) = false

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... we obtain:

Fast Computation of Lookahead Sets

Observation:

• The form of each inequality of these systems is:

 $x \supseteq y$ resp. $x \supseteq d$

for variables x, y und $d \in \mathbb{D}$.

- Such systems are called pure unification problems
- Such problems can be solved in linear space/time.

for example: $\mathbb{D} = 2^{\{a,b,c\}}$

$$\begin{array}{l} x_0 \supseteq \{a\} \\ x_1 \supseteq \{b\} \\ x_2 \supseteq \{c\} \\ x_3 \supset \{c\} \\ x_3 \supset x_2 \end{array} x_1 \supseteq x_0 \\ x_1 \supseteq x_0 \\ x_1 \supseteq x_0 \\ x_1 \supseteq x_1 \\ x_3 \supset x_2 \\ x_3 \supset x_2 \\ x_3 \supset x_3 \\ x_3 \supset x_3 \end{array}$$



Fast Computation of Lookahead Sets



Frank DeRemer & Tom Pennello



Proceeding:

• Create the Variable Dependency Graph for the inequality system.

Fast Computation of Lookahead Sets



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Fast Computation of Lookahead Sets



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Proceeding:

- Create the Variable Dependency Graph for the inequality system.
- Whithin a Strongly Connected Component (→ Tarjan) all variables have the same value
- Is there no ingoing edge for an SCC, its value is computed via the smallest upper bound of all values within the SCC
- In case of ingoing edges, their values are also to be considered for the upper bound

Fast Computation of Lookahead Sets

... for our example grammar:

First₁:



back to the example: $S' \rightarrow S$ \$ $S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid a S b$ The transitions in the according Item Pushdown Automaton:



Conflicts arise between transations (0, 1) or (3, 4) resp.









Inequality system for $\mathsf{Follow}_1(B) = \mathsf{First}_1(\beta) \odot_1 \ldots \odot_1 \mathsf{First}_1(\beta_0)$

Is G an LL(1)-grammar, we can index a lookahead-table with items and nonterminals:

LL(1)-Lookahead Table We set M[B, w] = i with $B \rightarrow \gamma^i$ if $w \in \text{First}_1(\gamma) \odot_1 \text{Follow}_1(B)$

... for example: $S' \to S$ \$ $S \to \epsilon^0 \mid a S b^1$

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For example: $S' \rightarrow S$ \$ $S \rightarrow \epsilon^0 \mid a S b^1$ The transitions of the according Item Pushdown Automaton:



Lookahead table:

Attention:

```
Many grammars are not LL(k) !
```

A reason for that is:

Definition Grammar G is called left-recursive, if

 $A \rightarrow^+ A \beta$ for an $A \in N, \beta \in (T \cup N)^*$

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Definition

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Example:

... is left-recursive

Theorem:

Let a grammar *G* be reduced and left-recursive, then *G* is not LL(k) for any *k*.

Proof:

Let wlog. $A \rightarrow A \beta \mid \alpha \in P$ and A be reachable from S

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Case 1: $\beta \to^* \epsilon$ — Contradiction !!! **Case 2:** $\beta \to^* w \neq \epsilon \Longrightarrow \operatorname{First}_k(\alpha w^k \gamma) \cap \operatorname{First}_k(\alpha w^{k+1} \gamma) \neq \emptyset$

Right-Regular Context-Free Parsing

Recurring scheme in programming languages: Lists of sth... $S \rightarrow b \mid S a b$ Alternative idea: Regular Expressions $S \rightarrow (b a)^* b$

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Definition: Right-Regular Context-Free Grammar

A right-regular context-free grammar (RR-CFG) is a 4-tuple G = (N, T, P, S) with:

- N the set of nonterminals,
- T the set of terminals,
- P the set of rules with regular expressions of symbols as rhs,
- $S \in N$ the start symbol

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Example: Arithmetic Expressions

$$\begin{array}{rcl} S & \rightarrow & E \\ E & \rightarrow & T \, (+T)^* \\ T & \rightarrow & F \, (*F)^* \\ F & \rightarrow & (E) \mid {\sf name} \mid {\sf int} \end{array}$$



... and generate the according LL(k)-Parser $M_{(G)}^L$

E

T

F

 $\begin{array}{cccccccc} A & \to & \langle \alpha \rangle & \text{if} & A \to \alpha \in P \\ \langle \alpha \rangle & \to & \alpha & \text{if} & \alpha \in N \cup T \\ \langle \epsilon \rangle & \to & \epsilon \\ \langle \alpha^* \rangle & \to & \epsilon \mid \langle \alpha \rangle \langle \alpha^* \rangle & \text{if} & \alpha \in \operatorname{Regex_{T,N}} \\ \langle \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n \rangle & \to & \langle \alpha_1 \rangle \dots \langle \alpha_n \rangle & \text{if} & \alpha_i \in \operatorname{Regex_{T,N}} \\ \langle \alpha_1 \mid \dots \mid \alpha_n \rangle & \to & \langle \alpha_1 \rangle \mid \dots \mid \langle \alpha_n \rangle & \text{if} & \alpha_i \in \operatorname{Regex_{T,N}} \\ \dots \text{ and generate the according LL(k)-Parser } M_{\langle G \rangle}^L \\ \text{Example: Arithmetic Expressions cont'd} \\ S & \to & E \end{array}$

 $\rightarrow T(+T)^*$

 $\rightarrow F(*F)^*$

 \rightarrow (E) | name | int

T

 $\begin{array}{cccc} A & \to & \langle \alpha \rangle & & \text{if} & A \to \alpha \in P \\ \langle \alpha \rangle & \to & \alpha & & \text{if} & \alpha \in N \cup T \\ \langle \epsilon \rangle & \to & \epsilon \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{ll} \langle \alpha^* \rangle & \to & \epsilon \mid \langle \alpha \rangle \langle \alpha^* \rangle & \text{if } \alpha \in \mathsf{Regex}_{\mathsf{T},\mathsf{N}} \\ \langle \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n \rangle & \to & \langle \alpha_1 \rangle \dots \langle \alpha_n \rangle & \text{if } \alpha_i \in \mathsf{Regex}_{\mathsf{T},\mathsf{N}} \end{array}$ $\langle \alpha_1 | \dots | \alpha_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle \alpha_1 \rangle | \dots | \langle \alpha_n \rangle$ if $\alpha_i \in \mathsf{Regex}_{\mathsf{T},\mathsf{N}}$... and generate the according LL(k)-Parser $M_{(G)}^L$ Example: Arithmetic Expressions cont'd S $\rightarrow E$ $E \rightarrow \langle T(+T)^* \rangle$

> $\rightarrow F(*F)^*$ $F \rightarrow (E) \mid name \mid int$ $\langle T(+T)^* \rangle \rightarrow T \langle (+T)^* \rangle$

 $\begin{array}{ccccc}
A & \rightarrow & \langle \alpha \rangle & \text{if } A \rightarrow \alpha \in P \\
\langle \alpha \rangle & \rightarrow & \alpha & \text{if } \alpha \in N \cup T \\
\langle \epsilon \rangle & \rightarrow & \epsilon \\
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\langle \alpha_1 \mid \dots \mid \alpha_n \rangle & \rightarrow & \langle \alpha_1 \rangle \mid \dots \mid \langle \alpha_n \rangle & \text{if } \alpha_i \in \text{Regex}_{\mathsf{T},\mathsf{N}} \\
\dots \text{ and generate the according LL(k)-Parser } M^L_{\langle G \rangle} \\
\text{Example: Arithmetic Expressions cont'd} \\
S & \rightarrow E
\end{array}$

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Example: Arithmetic Expressions cont'd

 $\begin{array}{rcl} S & \rightarrow & E \\ E & \rightarrow & \langle T \, (\, + \, T)^* \rangle \\ T & \rightarrow & \langle F \, (\, * \, F \,)^* \rangle \\ F & \rightarrow & (E \,) \mid \text{name} \mid \text{int} \\ \langle T \, (\, + \, T)^* \rangle & \rightarrow & T \, \langle (\, + \, T)^* \rangle \\ \langle (\, + \, T)^* \rangle & \rightarrow & \epsilon \mid \langle + \, T \rangle \langle (\, + \, T)^* \rangle \\ \langle + \, T \rangle & \rightarrow & + \, T \end{array}$

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Definition:

An RR-CFG G is called RLL(1), if the corresponding CFG $\langle G \rangle$ is an LL(1) grammar.

Reinhold Heckmann

Discussion

- directly yields the table driven parser $M_{(G)}^L$ for RLL(1) grammars
- however: mapping regular expressions to recursive productions unnessessarily strains the stack
 - \rightarrow instead directly construct automaton in the style of Berry-Sethi

Idea 2: Recursive Descent RLL Parsers:

Recursive descent RLL(1)-parsers are an alternative to table-driven parsers; apart from the usual function scan(), we generate a program frame with the lookahead function expect() and the main parsing method parse():

```
int next:
boolean expect(Set E){
     if (\{\epsilon, \texttt{next}\} \cap \texttt{E} = \emptyset)
          cerr << "Expected" << E << "found" << next;
          return false;
     }
     return true;
void parse(){
     next = scan();
     if (!expect(First_1(S))) exit(0);
     S();
     if (!expect({EOF})) exit(0);
}
```

Idea 2: Recursive Descent RLL Parsers:

```
For each A \to \alpha \in P, we introduce:
void A(){
generate(\alpha)
}
```

with the meta-program generate being defined by structural decomposition of α :

```
generate(r_1 \dots r_k) = generate(r_1)

if (!expect(First_1(r_2))) exit(0);

generate(r_2)

:

if (!expect(First_1(r_k))) exit(0);

generate(\epsilon) = ;

generate(a) = consume();

generate(A) = A();
```

Idea 2: Recursive Descent RLL Parsers:

$$generate(r^*) = while (next \in F_{\epsilon}(r)) \{ generate(r) \} \\generate(r_1 | ... | r_k) = switch(next) \{ labels(First_1(r_1)) generate(r_1) break; \\\vdots \\labels(First_1(r_k)) generate(r_k) break; \\\} \\labels(\{\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_m\}) = label(\alpha_1): ... label(\alpha_m): \\label(\alpha) = case \alpha \\label(\epsilon) = default$$
Topdown-Parsing

Discussion

- A practical implementation of an *RLL*(1)-parser via recursive descent is a straight-forward idea
- However, only a subset of the deterministic contextfree languages can be parsed this way.
- As soon as First₁(_) sets are not disjoint any more,

Topdown-Parsing

Discussion

- A practical implementation of an *RLL*(1)-parser via recursive descent is a straight-forward idea
- However, only a subset of the deterministic contextfree languages can be parsed this way.
- As soon as First₁(_) sets are not disjoint any more,
 - Solution 1: For many accessibly written grammars, the alternation between right hand sides happens too early. Keeping the common prefixes of right hand sides joined and introducing a new production for the actual diverging sentence forms often helps.
 - Solution 2: Introduce *ranked* grammars, and decide conflicting lookahead always in favour of the higher ranked alternative
 → relation to *LL* parsing not so clear any more
 - \rightarrow not so clear for $_^*$ operator how to decide
 - Solution 3: Going from LL(1) to LL(k)The size of the occuring sets is rapidly increasing with larger kUnfortunately, even LL(k) parsers are not sufficient to accept all deterministic contextfree languages. (regular lookahead $\rightarrow LL(*)$)
- In practical systems, this often motivates the implementation of k = 1 only

Syntactic Analysis

Chapter 4: Bottom-up Analysis



Idea:

Donald Knuth

We *delay* the decision whether to reduce until we know, whether the input matches the right-hand-side of a rule!

Construction: Shift-Reduce parser M_G^R

- The input is shifted successively to the pushdown.
- Is there a complete right-hand side (a handle) atop the pushdown, it is replaced (reduced) by the corresponding left-hand side

Example:

$$\begin{array}{rrrr} S & \rightarrow & A \, B \\ A & \rightarrow & a \\ B & \rightarrow & b \end{array}$$

The pushdown automaton:

States: Start state: End state:

 $q_0, f, a, b, A, B, S;$ q_0 f

q_0	a	$q_0 a$
a	ϵ	A
A	b	A b
b	ϵ	В
AB	ϵ	S
$q_0 S$	ϵ	f

Construction:

In general, we create an automaton $M_G^R = (Q, T, \delta, q_0, F)$ with:

- $Q = T \cup N \cup \{q_0, f\}$ (q₀, f fresh);
- $F = \{f\};$
- Transitions:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \delta &=& \{(q,x,q\,x) \mid q \in Q, x \in T\} \cup & // & \text{Shift-transitions} \\ && \{(\alpha,\epsilon,A) \mid A \to \alpha \in P\} \cup & // & \text{Reduce-transitions} \\ && \{(q_0 \, S,\epsilon,f)\} & // & \text{finish} \end{array}$$

Construction:

In general, we create an automaton $M_G^R = (Q, T, \delta, q_0, F)$ with:

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Example-computation:

Observation:

- The sequence of reductions corresponds to a reverse rightmost-derivation for the input
- To prove correctnes, we have to prove:

 $(\epsilon, w) \vdash^* (A, \epsilon) \qquad \text{iff} \qquad A \mathop{\rightarrow}^* w$

- The shift-reduce pushdown automaton M_G^R is in general also non-deterministic
- For a deterministic parsing-algorithm, we have to identify computation-states for reduction



Viable Prefixes and Admissable Items

Generic Agreement:

In a sequence of configurations of M_G^R

 $(q_0 \alpha \gamma, v) \vdash (q_0 \alpha B, v) \vdash^* (q_0 S, \epsilon)$

we call $\alpha \gamma$ a viable prefix for the complete item $[B \rightarrow \gamma \bullet]$.

Problem:

Find the items, for which the content of M_G^R 's stack is the viable prefix... admissable items



































Pushdown: $(q_0 E + f'_t)$



Result:

- the stack contents corresponds to sequences of symbols, produced as temporary leafs left of the *rightmost* occurance of a non-terminal during *rightmost*-derivations starting from *S*.
- we focus on the last expansion wrt. *rightmost*-derivation

Admissible Items

The item $[B \rightarrow \gamma \bullet \beta]$ is called admissible for $\alpha \gamma$ iff $S \rightarrow_R^* \alpha B v$:



... with $\alpha = \alpha_1 \ldots \alpha_m$

An automaton...

- tracing admissible items in its states
- consuming the symbols accumulated during *rightmost*-derivation

 \longrightarrow $S' \rightarrow \bullet E$

- tracing admissible items in its states
- consuming the symbols accumulated during *rightmost*-derivation



- tracing admissible items in its states
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- tracing admissible items in its states
- consuming the symbols accumulated during *rightmost*-derivation



Observation:

One can now consume the shift-reduce parser's pushdown with the characteristic automaton: If the input $(N \cup T)^*$ for the characteristic automaton corresponds to a viable prefix, its state contains the admissible items.

States: Items Start state: $[S' \rightarrow \bullet S]$ Final states: $\{[B \rightarrow \gamma \bullet] \mid B \rightarrow \gamma \in P\}$ Transitions: (1) $([A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet X \beta], X, [A \rightarrow \alpha X \bullet \beta]), X \in (N \cup T), A \rightarrow \alpha X \beta \in P;$ (2) $([A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet B \beta], \epsilon, [B \rightarrow \bullet \gamma]), A \rightarrow \alpha B \beta, B \rightarrow \gamma \in P;$

The automaton c(G) is called characteristic automaton for G.

The canonical LR(0)-automaton LR(G) is created from c(G) by:

- performing arbitrarily many
 e-transitions after every consuming transition
- erforming the powerset construction



The canonical LR(0)-automaton LR(G) is created from c(G) by:

- performing arbitrarily many
 e-transitions after every consuming transition
- erforming the powerset construction
- Idea: or rather apply characteristic automaton construction to powersets directly? 10 7 9

... for example:





























For example: $S' \rightarrow E$ $E \rightarrow E+T | T$ $T \rightarrow T*F | F$ $F \rightarrow (E) | int$



For example: $S' \rightarrow E$ $E \rightarrow E+T | T$ $T \rightarrow T*F | F$ $F \rightarrow (E) | int$



Observation:

The canonical LR(0)-automaton can be created directly from the grammar.

For this we need a helper function δ_{ϵ}^* (ϵ -closure)

$$\begin{split} \delta^*_{\epsilon}(q) &= q \cup \{ [B \to \bullet \gamma] \ | \ B \to \gamma \in P, \\ & [A \to \alpha \bullet B' \beta'] \in q, \\ & B' \to^* B \beta \} \end{split}$$

We define:

States: Sets of items; Start state: $\delta_{\epsilon}^* \{ [S' \to \bullet S] \}$ Final states: $\{q \mid [A \to \alpha \bullet] \in q \}$ Transitions: $\delta(q, X) = \delta_{\epsilon}^* \{ [A \to \alpha X \bullet \beta] \mid [A \to \alpha \bullet X \beta] \in q \}$

Idea for a parser:

- The parser manages a viable prefix $\alpha = X_1 \dots X_m$ on the pushdown and uses LR(G), to identify reduction spots.
- It can reduce with $A \rightarrow \gamma$, if $[A \rightarrow \gamma \bullet]$ is admissible for α

Optimization:

We push the states instead of the X_i in order not to process the pushdown's content with the automaton anew all the time. Reduction with $A \rightarrow \gamma$ leads to popping the uppermost $|\gamma|$ states and continue with the state on top of the stack and input A.

Attention:

This parser is only deterministic, if each final state of the canonical LR(0)-automaton is conflict free.

Example:

 $\mathsf{int} * \mathsf{int} + \mathsf{int}$



q_0

Example:

* int + int



q_4
q_0

Example:

* int + int



q_3
q_0

Example:

* int + int



q_2
q_0

Example:

 $\mathsf{int} + \mathsf{int}$



q_7
q_2
q_0

Example:

+ int



q_4
q_7
q_2
q_0
Example:

+ int



q_{10}
q_7
q_2
q_0

Example:

+ int



q_2
q_0

Example:

+ int



q_1
q_0





q_6	
q_1	
q_0	



q_4
q_6
q_1
q_0



q_3
q_6
q_1
q_0



q_9
q_6
q_1
q_0



Ģ] 1
Ģ	7 0



f



The final states q_1, q_2, q_9 contain more than one admissible item \Rightarrow non deterministic!

The construction of the LR(0)-parser:

States: $Q \cup \{f\}$ (*f* fresh) Start state: q_0 Final state: *f* **Transitions:**

 $\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{Shift:} & (p,a,p\,q) & \text{if} & q = \delta(p,a) \neq \emptyset \\ \textbf{Reduce:} & (p\,q_1\ldots q_m,\epsilon,p\,q) & \text{if} & [A \to X_1\ldots X_m\,\bullet] \in q_m, \\ & q = \delta(p,A) \\ \textbf{Finish:} & (q_0\,p,\epsilon,f) & \text{if} & [S' \to S \bullet] \in p \\ \end{array}$

with $LR(G) = (Q, T, \delta, q_0, F)$.

Correctness:

we show:

The accepting computations of an LR(0)-parser are one-to-one related to those of a shift-reduce parser M_G^R .

we conclude:

- The accepted language is exactly $\mathcal{L}(G)$
- The sequence of reductions of an accepting computation for a word $w \in T$ yields a reverse rightmost derivation of G for w

Attention:

Unfortunately, the LR(0)-parser is in general non-deterministic.

We identify two reasons:

Reduce-Reduce-Conflict:

$$\begin{pmatrix} q \\ A \to \gamma \bullet \\ A' \to \gamma' \bullet \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad A$$

with $A \neq A' \lor \gamma \neq \gamma'$

Shift-Reduce-Conflict:

$$\begin{array}{c} \hline q \\ \hline A \to \gamma \bullet \\ A' \to \alpha \bullet a \beta \end{array} \hspace{1cm} \text{with} \hspace{1cm} a \in T \end{array}$$

for a state $q \in Q$.

What differenciates the particular Reductions and Shifts?

Input:

*2 + 40

Pushdown:

 $(q_0 T)$





Idea: Matching lookahead with *right context* matters!

Input:

*****2 + 40

Pushdown: $(q_0 T)$





Idea: Consider *k*-lookahead in conflict situations.

Definition:

The reduced contextfree grammar *G* is called LR(k)-grammar, if for $\operatorname{First}_{|\alpha\beta|+k}(\alpha \beta w) = \operatorname{First}_{|\alpha\beta|+k}(\alpha' \beta' w')$ with:

$$\left. \begin{array}{cccc} S & \rightarrow_R^* & \alpha \, A \, w & \rightarrow & \alpha \, \beta \, w \\ S & \rightarrow_R^* & \alpha' \, A' \, w' & \rightarrow & \alpha' \, \beta' \, w' \end{array} \right\} \text{follows: } \alpha = \alpha' \wedge \beta = \beta' \wedge A = A'$$

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Strategy for testing Grammars for LR(k)-property

- Socus iteratively on all rightmost derivations $S \rightarrow_R^* \alpha X w \rightarrow \alpha \beta w$
- (2) Iterate over $k \ge 0$
 - For each $\gamma = \text{First}_{|\alpha\beta|+k}(\alpha \beta w)$ check if there exists a differently right-derivable $\alpha' \beta' w'$ for which $\gamma = \text{First}_{|\alpha\beta|+k}(\alpha' \beta' w')$
 - if there is none, we have found no objection against k, being enough lookahead to disambiguate αβw from other rightmost derivations

for example:

(1) $S \rightarrow A \mid B \qquad A \rightarrow a A b \mid 0 \qquad B \rightarrow a B b b \mid 1$

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Let $S \to_R^* \alpha X w \to \alpha \beta w$. Then $\alpha \underline{\beta}$ is of one of these forms:

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(1) $S \rightarrow A \mid B \quad A \rightarrow a A b \mid 0 \quad B \rightarrow a B b b \mid 1$... is not LL(k) for any k — but LR(0):

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 $a\,b^{2n}\,\underline{b}\,c\;,\;a\,b^{2n}\,\underline{b}\,b\,A\,c\;,\;\underline{a}\,A\,c$

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(3) $S \rightarrow a A c$ $A \rightarrow b b A \mid b$... is not LR(0), but LR(1): Let $S \rightarrow_R^* \alpha X w \rightarrow \alpha \beta w$ with $\{y\} = \text{First}_k(w)$ then $\alpha \beta y$ is of one of these forms:

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 $a b^{2n} \underline{b} c$, $a b^{2n} \underline{b} b A c$, $\underline{a} A c$

 $(4) \qquad S \to a \, A \, c \qquad A \to b \, A \, b \mid b$

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 $(4) \qquad S \to a A c \qquad A \to b A b \mid b$

Consider the rightmost derivations:

 $S \to_R^* a \, b^n \, A \, b^n \, c \to a \, b^n \, \underline{b} \, b^n \, c$

for example:

(3) $S \rightarrow a A c$ $A \rightarrow b b A \mid b$... is not LR(0), but LR(1): Let $S \rightarrow_R^* \alpha X w \rightarrow \alpha \beta w$ with $\{y\} = \text{First}_k(w)$ then $\alpha \beta y$ is of one of these forms:

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(4) $S \rightarrow a A c$ $A \rightarrow b A b \mid b$... is not LR(k) for any $k \ge 0$: Consider the rightmost derivations:

 $S \rightarrow^*_R a \, b^n \, A \, b^n \, c \rightarrow a \, b^n \, \underline{b} \, b^n \, c$

LR(1)-Parsing

Idea: Let's equip items with 1-lookahead

Definition LR(1)-Item An LR(1)-item is a pair $[B \rightarrow \alpha \bullet \beta, x]$ with $x \in \text{Follow}_1(B) = \bigcup \{\text{First}_1(\nu) \mid S \rightarrow^* \mu B \nu\}$

Admissible LR(1)-Items

The LR(1)-Item $[B \to \gamma \bullet \beta, x]$ is *admissable* for $\alpha \gamma$ if: $S \to_R^* \alpha B w$ with $\{x\} = \text{First}_1(w)$



... with $\alpha_0 \ldots \alpha_m = \alpha$
The Characteristic LR(1)-Automaton

The set of admissible LR(1)-items for viable prefixes is again computed with the help of the finite automaton c(G, 1).

The automaton c(G, 1):

States: LR(1)-items Start state: $[S' \rightarrow \bullet S, \$]$ Final states: $\{[B \rightarrow \gamma \bullet, x] \mid B \rightarrow \gamma \in P, x \in \mathsf{Follow}_1(B)\}$ Transitions: (1) $([A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet X \beta, x], X, [A \rightarrow \alpha X \bullet \beta, x]), X \in (N \cup T)$ (2) $([A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet B \beta, x], \epsilon, [B \rightarrow \bullet \gamma, x']), A \rightarrow \alpha B \beta, B \rightarrow \gamma \in P, x' \in \mathsf{First}_1(\beta) \odot_1 \{x\}$

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This automaton works like c(G) — but additionally manages a 1-prefix from Follow₁ of the left-hand sides.

The canonical LR(1)-automaton LR(G, 1) is created from c(G, 1), by performing arbitrarily many ϵ -transitions and then making the resulting automaton deterministic ...

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But again, it can be constructed directly from the grammar; analoguously to LR(0), we need the ϵ -closure δ^*_{ϵ} as a helper function:

$$\begin{split} \delta^*_{\epsilon}(q) &= q \cup \{ [C \to \bullet \gamma, x] \mid C \to \gamma \in P, \\ & [A \to \alpha \bullet B \, \beta', x'] \in q, \\ & B \to^* C \, \beta, \\ & x \in \mathsf{First}_1(\beta \, \beta') \odot_1 \{ x' \} \} \end{split}$$

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Then, we define:

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{States: Sets of } LR(1)\text{-items;}\\ \text{Start state: } \delta_{\epsilon}^{*}\left\{[S' \rightarrow \bullet S, \$]\right\}\\ \text{Final states: } \left\{q \mid [A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet, x] \in q\right\}\\ \text{Transitions: } \delta(q, X) = \delta_{\epsilon}^{*}\left\{[A \rightarrow \alpha X \bullet \beta, x] \mid [A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet X \beta, x] \in q\right\}\end{array}$











For example: $S' \rightarrow E$ $E \rightarrow E+T | T$ $T \rightarrow T*F | F$ $F \rightarrow (E) | \text{ int}$



For example: $S' \rightarrow E$ $E \rightarrow E+T | T$ $T \rightarrow T*F | F$ $F \rightarrow (E) | int$



For example: $S' \rightarrow E$ $E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$ $T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$ $F \rightarrow (E)$ int $T \rightarrow T * \bullet F \{\$, +, *\}$ q_{10} $T \rightarrow T * F \bullet \{\$, +, *\}$ $E \rightarrow E + T \bullet \{$ $F \rightarrow \bullet(E) \{\$, +, *\}$ $F \rightarrow \bullet int \{\$, +, *\}$ $T \rightarrow T \bullet * F \{$ *1 $S' \to E \bullet \{\$\}$ $E \rightarrow T \bullet \{\$, +\}$ $E \rightarrow E \bullet + \hat{T} \{\$, +\}$ $T \rightarrow T \bullet * F \{\$, +, *\}$ Т T^{\dagger} $S' \rightarrow \bullet E \{\$\}$ $F \rightarrow (\bullet E) \{\$, +, *\}$ $E \rightarrow \bullet E + T \{\}, +\}$ $E \rightarrow E + \bullet T \{\$, +\}$ $E \rightarrow \bullet E + T \{\$, +\}$ int $E \rightarrow \bullet T \{\$, +\}$ $E \rightarrow \bullet T \{\}, +\}$ $T \rightarrow \bullet F \{$ $T \rightarrow \bullet F \{\$, +, *\}$ $T \rightarrow \bullet F \{ \}, +, * \}$ $T\to \bullet T\ast F$ $T \rightarrow \bullet T * F \{\$, +, *\}$ $T \rightarrow \bullet T * F \{\}, +, *\}$ $F \rightarrow \bullet(E)$ $F \rightarrow \bullet(E) \{\$, +, *\}$ $F \rightarrow \bullet(E) \{ \}, +, * \}$ $F \rightarrow \bullet int$ int $F \rightarrow \bullet int \{\$, +, *\}$ $F \rightarrow \bullet int \{\}, +, *\}$ $\overbrace{F \to (E) \bullet \{\$, +, *\}}^{q_{11}}$ $F \rightarrow (E \bullet) \{\$, +, *\}$ $T \rightarrow F \bullet \{\$, +, *$ $E \rightarrow E \bullet + T \{ \}, + \}$ int int $F \rightarrow int \bullet \{\$, +, *\}$

For example: $S' \rightarrow E$ $E \rightarrow E+T \mid T$ $T \rightarrow T*F \mid F$ $F \rightarrow (E) \mid int$



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Discussion:

- In the example, the number of states was almost doubled
 ... and it can become even worse
- The conflicts in states q₁, q₂, q₉ are now resolved !
 e.g. we have:

(

$$\begin{bmatrix} E \rightarrow E + T \bullet \{\$, +\} \\ T \rightarrow T \bullet *F \{\$, +, *\} \end{bmatrix}$$

with:

 $\{\$,+\}\,\cap\,\left(\mathsf{First}_1(*\,F)\odot_1\,\{\$,+,*\}\right)\ =\ \{\$,+\}\,\cap\,\{*\}=\emptyset$

During practical parsing, we want to represent states just via an integer id. However, when the canonical LR(1)-automaton reaches a final state, we want to know *how to reduce/shift*. Thus we introduce...

The construction of the action table:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{Type: action}: Q \times T \to LR(0)\text{-Items} \cup \{\text{s, error}\}\\ \text{Reduce: action}[q,w] = [A \to \beta \bullet] & \text{if} & [A \to \beta \bullet, w] \in q\\ \text{Shift: action}[q,w] = \text{s} & \text{if} & [A \to \beta \bullet b \gamma, a] \in q,\\ & w \in \text{First}_1(b \gamma) \odot_1 \{a\}\\ \text{Error: action}[q,w] = \text{error} & \text{else} \end{array}$

The LR(1)-Parser:



• The goto-table encodes the transitions:

```
goto[q, X] = \delta(q, X) \in Q
```

• The action-table describes for every state *q* and possible lookahead *w* the necessary action.

The LR(1)-Parser:

The construction of the LR(1)-parser:

States: $Q \cup \{f\}$ (*f* fresh) Start state: q_0 Final state: *f* **Transitions:**

with $LR(G,1) = (Q,T,\delta,q_0,F)$ and the lookahead w.

The LR(1)-Parser:

Possible actions are:

shift // Shift-operation error

 $\operatorname{reduce}\left(A \to \gamma\right) \quad \H{/\!/} \quad \operatorname{Reduction \ with \ callback/output}$ // Error

... for example:

action	\$	int	()	+	*
q_1	S', 0				S	
q_2	E, 1				E, 1	S
q_2'				E, 1	E, 1	S
q_3	T, 1				T, 1	T, 1
q_3'				T, 1	T, 1	T, 1
q_4	F, 1				F, 1	F, 1
q_4'				F, 1	F, 1	F, 1
q_9	<i>E</i> , 0				E, 0	s
q_9'				E, 0	E, 0	s
q_{10}	T, 0				T, 0	T, 0
q_{10}^{\prime}				T, 0	T, 0	T, 0
q_{11}	F, 0				F, 0	F, 0
q_{11}'				F, 0	F, 0	F, 0

In general:

We identify two conflicts:

Reduce-Reduce-Conflict:



with $A \neq A' \lor \gamma \neq \gamma'$

Shift-Reduce-Conflict:



with $a \in T$ und $x \in \{a\}$.

for a state $\ q \in Q$.

Such states are now called LR(1)-unsuited

In general:

We identify two conflicts:

Reduce-Reduce-Conflict:



with $A \neq A' \lor \gamma \neq \gamma'$

Shift-Reduce-Conflict:



with
$$a \in T$$
 und $x \in \{a\} \odot_k \mathsf{First}_k(\beta) \odot_k \{y\}$.

for a state $\ q \in Q$.

Such states are now called LR(k)-unsuited

Theorem:

A reduced contextfree grammar *G* is called LR(k) iff the canonical LR(k)-automaton LR(G, k) has no LR(k)-unsuited states.

Many parser generators give the chance to fix Shift-/Reduce-Conflicts by patching the action table either by hand or with *token precedences*.

... for example:

Many parser generators give the chance to fix Shift-/Reduce-Conflicts by patching the action table either by hand or with *token precedences*.

... for example:

$$\begin{array}{rccc} S' & \rightarrow & E^{\ 0} \\ E & \rightarrow & E + E^{\ 0} \\ & & & E \ast E^{\ 1} \\ & & & (E \)^{\ 2} \\ & & & & \text{int}^{\ 3} \end{array}$$

Shift-/Reduce Conflict in state 8:

[E]	\rightarrow	$E \bullet + E^{0}$]
[E]	\rightarrow	$E + E \bullet ^{0}$,+]

 $< \gamma E + E , + \omega > \Rightarrow \textit{Associativity}$

action	\$	int	()	+	*
q_0	S', 0				S	S
q_1	E, 3			E, 3	E, 3	E, 3
q_2	S				S	S
q_3	S				S	S
q_4	S			S	S	S
q_5	E, 2			E, 2	E, 2	E, 2
q_6	S			S	S	S
q_7	E, 1			E, 1	?	?
q_8	<i>E</i> , 0			<i>E</i> , 0	?	?
q_9	S			s	S	S

Many parser generators give the chance to fix Shift-/Reduce-Conflicts by patching the action table either by hand or with *token precedences*.

... for example:

$$\begin{array}{rccc} S' & \rightarrow & E^{\ 0} \\ E & \rightarrow & E + E^{\ 0} \\ & & & E \ast E^{\ 1} \\ & & & (E \)^{\ 2} \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ \end{array}$$

Shift-/Reduce Conflict in state 8:

$$\begin{bmatrix} E & \to & E \bullet + E^{\mathbf{0}} \\ [E & \to & E + E \bullet^{\mathbf{0}} \end{bmatrix}, +$$

 $< \gamma E + E, +\omega > \Rightarrow$ Associativity

+ left associative

action	\$	int	()	+	*
q_0	S', 0				S	S
q_1	E, 3			E, 3	E, 3	E, 3
q_2	S				S	S
q_3	S				S	S
q_4	S			S	S	S
q_5	E, 2			E, 2	E, 2	E, 2
q_6	S			S	S	S
q_7	E, 1			E, 1	?	?
q_8	<i>E</i> , 0			E, 0	<i>E</i> , 0	?
q_9	S			S	S	S

Many parser generators give the chance to fix Shift-/Reduce-Conflicts by patching the action table either by hand or with *token precedences*.

... for example:

$$S' \rightarrow E^{0}$$

$$E \rightarrow E + E^{0}$$

$$| E * E^{1}$$

$$| (E)^{2}$$

$$| \text{ int }^{3}$$
Shift-/Reduce Conflict in state 7:
$$[E \rightarrow E^{0} \neq E^{1}]$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} E & \to & E \bullet * E^{-1} \\ E & \to & E * E \bullet^{-1} \end{bmatrix}, *$$

 $< \gamma E * E, * \omega > \Rightarrow$ Associativity

* right associative

action	\$	int	()	+	*
q_0	S', 0				S	S
q_1	E, 3			E, 3	E, 3	E, 3
q_2	S				S	S
q_3	S				S	S
q_4	S			S	S	S
q_5	E, 2			E, 2	E, 2	E, 2
q_6	S			S	S	S
q_7	E, 1			E, 1	?	S
q_8	<i>E</i> , 0			E, 0	<i>E</i> , 0	?
q_9	S			S	S	S

Many parser generators give the chance to fix Shift-/Reduce-Conflicts by patching the action table either by hand or with *token precedences*.

... for example:

Shift-/Reduce Conflict in states 8, 7:

[E]	\rightarrow	$E \bullet * E^1$]
[E]	\rightarrow	$E + E \bullet ^{0}$,*]
$< \gamma l$	E * E	$,+\omega >$	
[E]	\rightarrow	$E \bullet + E^{0}$	
[E	\rightarrow	$E * E \bullet ^1$,+
$< \sqrt{1}$	$\Sigma \perp B$		

action	\$	int	()	+	*
q_0	S', 0				S	S
q_1	E, 3			E, 3	E, 3	E, 3
q_2	S				S	S
q_3	S				S	S
q_4	S			S	S	S
q_5	E, 2			E, 2	E, 2	E, 2
q_6	S			S	S	S
q_7	<i>E</i> , 1			E, 1	?	S
q_8	E, 0			E, 0	<i>E</i> , 0	?
q_9	S			S	S	S

Many parser generators give the chance to fix Shift-/Reduce-Conflicts by patching the action table either by hand or with *token precedences*.

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Shift-/Reduce Conflict in states 8, 7:

$$\begin{bmatrix} E & \rightarrow & E \bullet * E^{1} \\ [E & \rightarrow & E + E \bullet^{0} \\ \gamma E * E , + \omega > \\ [E & \rightarrow & E \bullet + E^{0} \\ [E & \rightarrow & E * E \bullet^{1} \\ \end{bmatrix} , +$$

 $<\gamma E + E$, * $\omega >$

- * higher precedence
- + lower precedence

action	\$	int	()	+	*
q_0	S', 0				S	S
q_1	E, 3			E, 3	E, 3	E, 3
q_2	S				S	S
q_3	S				S	S
q_4	S			S	S	S
q_5	E, 2			E, 2	E, 2	E, 2
q_6	S			S	S	S
q_7	E, 1			E, 1	E, 1	S
q_8	<i>E</i> , 0			<i>E</i> , 0	<i>E</i> , 0	S
q_9	S			S	S	S

Example (very simplified lambda expressions):

$$\begin{array}{lll} E & \rightarrow & (E)^{0} \, | \, \mathsf{ident}^{1} \, | \, L^{2} \\ L & \rightarrow & \langle \mathsf{args} \rangle \Rightarrow E^{0} \\ \langle \mathsf{args} \rangle & \rightarrow & (\langle \, \mathsf{idlist} \rangle \,)^{0} \, | \, \mathsf{ident}^{1} \\ \langle \, \mathsf{idlist} \rangle & \rightarrow & \langle \, \mathsf{idlist} \rangle \, \mathsf{ident}^{0} \, | \, \mathsf{ident}^{1} \end{array}$$

Example (very simplified lambda expressions):

$$\begin{array}{cccc} E & \to & (E)^{0} | \operatorname{ident}^{1} | L^{2} \\ L & \to & \langle \operatorname{args} \rangle \Rightarrow E^{0} \\ \langle \operatorname{args} \rangle & \to & (\langle \operatorname{idlist} \rangle)^{0} | \operatorname{ident}^{1} \\ \langle \operatorname{idlist} \rangle & \to & \langle \operatorname{idlist} \rangle \operatorname{ident}^{0} | \operatorname{ident}^{1} \end{array}$$

$$E \text{ rightmost-derives these forms among others:}$$

 $(\underline{ident}), (\underline{ident}) \Rightarrow ident, \dots \Rightarrow at least LR(2)$

Naive Idea:

poor man's LR(2) by combining the tokens) and \Rightarrow during lexical analysis into a single token $)\Rightarrow$.

Example (very simplified lambda expressions):

$$\begin{array}{rcl} E & \rightarrow & (E)^{0} | \operatorname{ident}^{1} | L^{2} \\ L & \rightarrow & \langle \operatorname{args} \rangle \Rightarrow E^{0} \\ \langle \operatorname{args} \rangle & \rightarrow & (\langle \operatorname{idlist} \rangle)^{0} | \operatorname{ident}^{1} \\ \langle \operatorname{idlist} \rangle & \rightarrow & \langle \operatorname{idlist} \rangle \operatorname{ident}^{0} | \operatorname{ident}^{1} \\ E \text{ rightmost-derives these forms among others:} \end{array}$$

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Naive Idea:

poor man's LR(2) by combining the tokens) and \Rightarrow during lexical analysis into a single token $)\Rightarrow$.

 Δ in this case obvious solution, but in general not so simple

In practice, LR(k)-parser generators working with the lookahead sets of sizes larger then k = 1 are not common, since computing lookahead sets with k > 1 blows up exponentially. However,

- there exist several practical *LR(k)* grammars of *k* > 1, e.g. Java 1.6+ (*LR*(2)), ANSI C, etc.
- In the second second
- should we really give up, whenever we are confronted with a Shift-/Reduce-Conflict?

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Theorem: LR(k)-to-LR(1)

Any LR(k) grammar can be directly transformed into an equivalent LR(1) grammar.

LR(2) to LR(1)

... Example:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} S & \rightarrow & A \, b \, b^0 \, | \, B \, b \, c^1 \\ A & \rightarrow & a \, A^0 \, | \, a^1 \\ B & \rightarrow & a \, B^0 \, | \, a^1 \end{array}$$

LR(2) to LR(1)

... Example:

 $\begin{array}{rcccc} S & \rightarrow & A \, b \, b^0 \, | \, B \, b \, c^1 \\ A & \rightarrow & a \, A^0 \, | \, a^1 \\ B & \rightarrow & a \, B^0 \, | \, a^1 \end{array}$

 \boldsymbol{S} rightmost-derives one of these forms:

 $a^{n}\underline{a}bb$, $a^{n}\underline{a}bc$, $a^{n}\underline{a}\underline{A}bb$, $a^{n}\underline{a}\underline{B}bc$, $\underline{A}bb$, $\underline{B}bc \Rightarrow LR(2)$

in LR(1), you will have Reduce-/Reduce-Conflicts between the productions A, 1 and B, 1 under lookahead b



in the example:

Right-context is already extracted, so we only perform

Right-context-propagation:

$$S \rightarrow A b b^{0} | B b c^{1}$$

$$A \rightarrow a A^{0} | a^{1}$$

$$B \rightarrow a B^{0} | a^{1}$$


Right-context is already extracted, so we only perform

Right-context-propagation:

 $S \longrightarrow \langle A b \rangle b^0 | \langle B b \rangle c^1$



Right-context is already extracted, so we only perform

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$$\begin{array}{rrrr} S & \rightarrow & A \, b \, b^0 \, | \, B \, b \, c^1 \\ A & \rightarrow & a \, A^0 \, | \, a^1 \\ B & \rightarrow & a \, B^0 \, | \, a^1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} S & \to & \langle A \, b \rangle \, b^{\mathbf{0}} \, | \, \langle B \, b \rangle \, c^{\mathbf{1}} \\ \langle A \, b \rangle & \to & a \, \langle A \, b \rangle^{\mathbf{0}} \, | \, a \, b^{\mathbf{1}} \end{array}$$



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$$\begin{array}{rcl} S & \rightarrow & \langle A \, b \rangle \, b^{0} \, | \, \langle B \, b \rangle \, c^{1} \\ \langle A \, b \rangle & \rightarrow & a \, \langle A \, b \rangle^{0} \, | \, a \, b^{1} \\ \langle B \, b \rangle & \rightarrow & a \, \langle B \, b \rangle^{0} \, | \, a \, b^{1} \end{array}$$



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$$S \rightarrow A b b^{0} | B b c^{1}$$

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$$\begin{array}{rcl} S & \rightarrow & \langle A \, b \rangle \, b^0 \, | \, \langle B \, b \rangle \, c^1 \\ \langle A \, b \rangle & \rightarrow & a \, \langle A \, b \rangle^0 \, | \, a \, b^1 \\ \langle B \, b \rangle & \rightarrow & a \, \langle B \, b \rangle^0 \, | \, a \, b^1 \\ A & \rightarrow & a \, A^0 \, | \, a^1 \\ B & \rightarrow & a \, B^0 \, | \, a^1 \end{array}$$

 $xy \omega$

LR(2) to LR(1)

 γ_0

 γ_1

 α

Right-context is already extracted, so we only perform Right-context-propagation:

 $\rightarrow A b b^0 | B b c^1$ S $A \rightarrow a A^0 | a^1$ $B \rightarrow a B^0 | a^1$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} S & \rightarrow & \langle A \, b \rangle \, b^{0} \, | \, \langle B \, b \rangle \, c^{1} \\ \langle A \, b \rangle & \rightarrow & a \, \langle A \, b \rangle^{0} \, | \, a \, b^{1} \\ \langle B \, b \rangle & \rightarrow & a \, \langle B \, b \rangle^{0} \, | \, a \, b^{1} \end{array}$$

unreachable







Right-context-propagation



Example cont'd:

$$\begin{array}{rrrr} S & \rightarrow & A' \, b^{\mathbf{0}} \, | \, B' \, c^{\mathbf{1}} \\ A' & \rightarrow & a \, A'^{\mathbf{0}} \, | \, a \, b^{\mathbf{1}} \\ B' & \rightarrow & a \, B'^{\mathbf{0}} \, | \, a \, b^{\mathbf{1}} \end{array}$$



Example cont'd:

 $a^{n}\underline{a}\,\underline{b}b$, $a^{n}\underline{a}\,\underline{b}c$, $a^{n}\underline{a}\,\underline{A'}b$, $a^{n}\underline{a}\,\underline{B'}c$, $\underline{A'}b$, $\underline{B'}c$ \Rightarrow LR(1)





 ${\it S}$ rightmost-derives these forms among others:

<u>bSS</u>, bSa, bSaac, baac, $baaca, baaca, baacac, baacaac, ... <math>\Rightarrow$ min. LR(2)

in LR(1), you will have (at least) Shift-/Reduce-Conflicts between the items $[S \rightarrow a \bullet, a]$ and $[S \rightarrow a \bullet ac]$

$$\begin{array}{cccc} S & \to & b \, S \, S \, {}^{0} \\ & | & a \, 1 \\ & | & a \, a \, c \, {}^{2} \end{array} \quad \Rightarrow \quad$$



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 $[S \rightarrow a]$'s right context is a nonterminal \Rightarrow perform *Right-context-extraction*



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$$egin{array}{cccc} S & o & b\,S\,S^{\,m 0} \ & & | & a^{\,m 1} \ & & | & a\,a\,c^{\,m 2} \end{array}$$

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Example 2 cont'd:

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$$S \rightarrow bSa\langle a/S \rangle^{0} \\ | bSb\langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a^{1}|aac^{2} \Rightarrow \\ \langle a/S \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon^{0}|ac^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \rightarrow Sa\langle a/S \rangle^{0}|Sb\langle b/S \rangle^{0'}$$

Example 2 cont'd:

$$S \longrightarrow b S a \langle a/S \rangle^{0} \qquad | b S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \\ | b S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \qquad | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \Rightarrow \langle b/S \rangle \qquad \rightarrow \epsilon^{0} | a c^{1} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \Rightarrow \langle b/S \rangle \qquad \rightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \Rightarrow \langle b/S \rangle \qquad \rightarrow \delta^{0} | a b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'}$$

Example 2 cont'd:

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$$S \longrightarrow b S a \langle a/S \rangle^{0} \qquad | b S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \\ | b S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \Rightarrow \langle a/S \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon^{0} | a c^{1} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \Rightarrow \langle b/S \rangle \rightarrow \delta^{0} | S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ \langle a/S \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \rightarrow S a \langle a/S \rangle^{0} | S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \Rightarrow \langle b/S \rangle \rightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \rightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \rightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \rightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle aa^{1} | a a ca^{2} \\ \langle a/S \rangle a \rangle \rightarrow a^{0} | a ca^{1} \\ \end{vmatrix}$$

Example 2 cont'd:

$$S \longrightarrow b S a \langle a/S \rangle^{0} \qquad | b S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \\ | b S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \\ \langle a/S \rangle \longrightarrow \epsilon^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \longrightarrow S a \langle a/S \rangle^{0} | S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \longrightarrow S a \langle a/S \rangle^{0} | S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a a^{1} | a a c a^{2} \\ \langle a/S \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle a/S \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c a^{1} | a a c a^{2} \\ \langle a/S \rangle a \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c a^{1} \\ \langle a/S \rangle a \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c a^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle a \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c a^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle a \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a b S b \langle b/S \rangle a^{0'}$$

Example 2 cont'd:

$$S \longrightarrow b S a \langle a/S \rangle^{0} \qquad | b S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \\ | b S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \\ \langle a/S \rangle \longrightarrow \epsilon^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \longrightarrow S a \langle a/S \rangle^{0} | S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a^{1} | a a c^{2} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c^{1} \\ \langle a/S \rangle^{0} | S b \langle b/S \rangle^{0'} \\ | a a^{1} | a a c a^{2} \\ \langle a/S \rangle a \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c a^{1} \\ \langle a/S \rangle a \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c a^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle a \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a c a^{1} \\ \langle b/S \rangle a \rangle \longrightarrow \delta^{0} | a b S b \langle b/S \rangle a \rangle^{0'}$$

Example 2 finished:

With fresh nonterminals we get the final grammar

$$\begin{array}{cccc} S & \rightarrow & b \, S \, S^{\,0} \\ & | & a^{\,1} \\ & | & a \, a \, c^{\,2} \end{array} \quad \Rightarrow \quad$$

$$S \rightarrow bCA,^{0} | bSbB,^{1} | a^{2} | aac^{3}$$

$$A \rightarrow \epsilon^{0} | ac^{1}$$

$$B \rightarrow CA^{0} | SbB^{1}$$

$$C \rightarrow bCD^{0} | bSbE^{1} | aa^{2} | aaca^{3}$$

$$D \rightarrow a^{0} | aca^{1}$$

$$E \rightarrow CD^{0} | SbE^{1}$$

Algorithm:

For a Rule $A \rightarrow \alpha$, which is *reduce-conflicting* under terminal x

- $B \rightarrow \beta A$ is also considered *reduce-conflicting* under terminal x
- $B \rightarrow \beta A C \gamma$ is transformed by *right-context-extraction* on *C*:

$$B \to \beta \, A \, C \, \gamma \quad \Rightarrow \quad B \to \beta \, A \, x \, \langle x/C \rangle \, \gamma \quad \Big|_{y \in \mathsf{First}_1(C) \backslash x} \quad \beta \, A \, y \, \langle y/C \rangle \, \gamma$$

if $\epsilon \in \operatorname{First}_1(C)$ then consider $B \to \beta A \gamma$ for r.-c.-extraction

• $B \rightarrow \beta A x \gamma$ is transformed by *right-context-propagation* on A:

$$B \to \beta A x \gamma \quad \Rightarrow \quad B \to \beta \langle A x \rangle \gamma$$

• The appropriate rules, created from introducing $\langle Ax \rangle \rightarrow \delta$ and $\langle x/B \rangle \rightarrow \eta$ are added to the grammar

Right-Context-Propagation Algorithm:

For $\langle Ax \rangle$ with $A \rightarrow \alpha_1 \mid \ldots \mid \alpha_k$, if α_i matches

- γA for some $\gamma \in (N \cup T)^*$, then $\langle Ax \rangle \rightarrow \gamma \langle Ax \rangle$ is added
- else $\langle Ax \rangle \rightarrow \alpha_i x$ is added

Right-Context-Extraction Algorithm:

For $\langle x/B \rangle$ with $B \rightarrow \alpha_1 | \dots | \alpha_k$, if α_i matches

- $C \gamma$ for some $\gamma \in (N \cup T)^*$, then $\langle x/B \rangle \rightarrow \langle x/C \rangle \gamma$ is added
- $x \gamma$ for some $\gamma \in (N \cup T)^*$, then $\langle x/B \rangle \rightarrow \gamma$ is added
- $y \gamma$ for some $\gamma \in (N \cup T)^*$ and $y \neq x$, then nothing is added

Syntactic Analysis

Chapter 5: Summary

Special LR(k)-Subclasses

Discussion:

- Our examples mostly were LR(1) or could be transformed to LR(1)
- In general, the canonical LR(k)-automaton has much more states then LR(G) = LR(G, 0)
- Therefore in practice, subclasses of LR(k)-grammars are often considered, which only use LR(G) ...

Discussion:

- Our examples mostly were LR(1) or could be transformed to LR(1)
- In general, the canonical LR(k)-automaton has much more states then LR(G) = LR(G, 0)
- Therefore in practice, subclasses of LR(k)-grammars are often considered, which only use LR(G) ...
- For resolving conflicts, the items are assigned special lookahead-sets:
 - independently on the state itself
 - ependent on the state itself

 $\implies Simple LR(k) \\ \implies LALR(k)$

Parsing Methods



Parsing Methods



Discussion:

- All contextfree languages, that can be parsed with a deterministic pushdown automaton, can be characterized with an LR(1)-grammar.
- LR(0)-grammars describe all prefixfree deterministic contextfree languages
- The language-classes of LL(k)-grammars form a hierarchy within the deterministic contextfree languages.

Concept of specification and implementation:





From Regular Expressions to Finite Automata

From Finite Automata to Scanners





Computation of lookahead sets:



From Item-Pushdown Automata to LL(1)-Parsers:









From characteristic to canonical Automata:

From Shift-Reduce-Parsers to LR(1)-Parsers:





Scanner and parser accept programs with correct syntax.

• not all programs that are syntactically correct make sense

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- semantic analyses are also useful to
 - find possibilities to "optimize" the program
 - warn about possibly incorrect programs
- \rightsquigarrow a semantic analysis annotates the syntax tree with attributes

Semantic Analysis

Chapter 1: Attribute Grammars

Attribute Grammars

- many computations of the semantic analysis as well as the code generation operate on the syntax tree
- what is computed at a given node only depends on the type of that node (which is usually a non-terminal)
- we call this a *local* computation:
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Definition attribute grammar

An attribute grammar is a CFG extended by

- a set of attributes for each non-terminal and terminal
- local attribute equations

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Definition attribute grammar

An attribute grammar is a CFG extended by

- a set of attributes for each non-terminal and terminal
- local attribute equations
- in order to be able to evaluate the attribute equations, all attributes mentioned in that equation have to be evaluated already

 \rightsquigarrow the nodes of the syntax tree need to be visited in a certain $\underbrace{\textit{sequence}}$









Consider the syntax tree of the regular expression (a|b)*a(a|b):



 \sim equations for empty[r] are computed from bottom to top (aka bottom-up)

Implementation Strategy

- attach an attribute empty to every node of the syntax tree
- compute the attributes in a *depth-first* post-order traversal:
 - at a leaf, we can compute the value of empty without considering other nodes
 - the attribute of an inner node only depends on the attribute of its children
- the empty attribute is a *synthesized* attribute
- The local dependencies between the attributes are dependent on the *type* of the node

Implementation Strategy

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in general:

Definition

An attribute at N is called

- inherited if its value is defined in terms of attributes of N's parent, siblings and/or N itself (root → leaves)
- synthesized if its value is defined in terms of attributes of N's children and/or N itself (leaves → root)

Attribute Equations for empty

In order to compute an attribute *locally*, we need to specify attribute equations for each node. These equations depend on the *type* of the node:

for leaves: $r \equiv \boxed{i \ x}$ we define $empty[r] = (x \equiv \epsilon)$. otherwise: $empty[r_1 \mid r_2] = empty[r_1] \lor empty[r_2]$ $empty[r_1 \cdot r_2] = empty[r_1] \land empty[r_2]$ $empty[r_1^*] = t$ $empty[r_1?] = t$

Specification of General Attribute Systems

General Attribute Systems

In general, for establishing attribute systems we need a flexible way to *refer to parents and children*:

 $\rightsquigarrow\,$ We use consecutive indices to refer to neighbouring attributes

$attribute_k[0]$:
$attribute_k[i]$:

the attribute of the current root node the attribute of the *i*-th child (i > 0)

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attribute _k [0] :	the attribute of the current roo	t node
$attribute_{k}[i]$:	the attribute of the <i>i</i> -th child	(<i>i</i> > 0)

... in the example:

x	:	empty[0]	:=	$(x \equiv \epsilon)$
	:	empty[0]	:=	$empty[1] \lor empty[2]$
•	:	empty[0]	:=	$empty[1] \land empty[2]$
*	:	empty[0]	:=	t
?	:	empty[0]	:=	t

Observations

- the *local* attribute equations need to be evaluated using a *global* algorithm that knows about the dependencies of the equations
- in order to construct this algorithm, we need
 - a sequence in which the nodes of the tree are visited
 - a sequence within each node in which the equations are evaluated
- this evaluation strategy has to be compatible with the dependencies between attributes

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- the *local* attribute equations need to be evaluated using a *global* algorithm that knows about the dependencies of the equations
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- this evaluation strategy has to be compatible with the dependencies between attributes

We visualize the attribute dependencies D(p) of a production p in a *Local Dependency Graph*:



 \rightsquigarrow arrows point in the direction of information flow

Observations

- in order to infer an evaluation strategy, it is not enough to consider the *local* attribute dependencies at each node
- the evaluation strategy must also depend on the *global* dependencies, that is, on the information flow between nodes
- the global dependencies thus change with each new syntax tree
- in the example, the parent node is always depending on children only

 \rightsquigarrow a depth-first post-order traversal is possible

• in general, variable dependencies can be much more complex

Simultaneous Computation of Multiple Attributes

Computing empty, first, next from regular expressions:



Regular Expressions: Rules for Alternative



Regular Expressions: Rules for Concatenation



Regular Expressions: Kleene-Star and '?'



 $D(E \rightarrow E^*) = \{ (first[1], first[0]), \}$ (first[1], next[2]),(next[0], next[1])}

f

f

Challenges for General Attribute Systems

Static evaluation

Is there a static evaluation strategy, which is generally applicable?

- an evaluation strategy can only exist, if for *any* derivation tree the dependencies between attributes are acyclic
- it is *DEXPTIME*-complete to check for cyclic dependencies [Jazayeri, Odgen, Rounds, 1975]

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Ideas

- Let the User specify the strategy
- Oetermine the strategy dynamically
- Automate subclasses only

Idea: For all nonterminals X compute a set $\mathcal{R}(X)$ of relations between its attributes, as an *overapproximation of the global dependencies* between root attributes of every production for X.

Describe $\mathcal{R}(X)$ s as sets of relations, similar to D(p) by

- setting up each production $X \mapsto X_1 \dots X_k$'s effect on the relations of $\mathcal{R}(X)$
- compute effect on all so far accumulated evaluations of each rhs X_i 's $\mathcal{R}(X_i)$
- iterate until stable

The 2-ary operator L[i] re-decorates relations from L

 $L[i] = \{ (a[i], b[i]) \mid (a, b) \in L \}$



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 $[p]^{\sharp}(L_1,\ldots,L_k) = \pi_0((D(p) \cup L_1[1] \cup \ldots \cup L_k[k])^+)$



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 $\mathcal{R}(X) \supseteq \left(\bigcup \{ \left[p \right]^{\sharp} (\mathcal{R}(X_1), \dots, \mathcal{R}(X_k)) \mid p : X \to X_1 \dots X_k \} \right)^+ \mid p \in P$

 $\mathcal{R}(X) \supseteq \emptyset \quad \mid X \in (N \cup T)$

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Strongly Acyclic Grammars

The system of inequalities $\mathcal{R}(X)$

- characterizes the class of strongly acyclic Dependencies
- has a unique least solution *R*^{*}(X) (as [.][♯] is monotonic)

Strongly Acyclic Grammars

If all $D(p) \cup \mathcal{R}^{\star}(X_1)[1] \cup \ldots \cup \mathcal{R}^{\star}(X_k)[k]$ are acyclic for all $p \in G$, G is strongly acyclic.

Idea: we compute the least solution $\mathcal{R}^{\star}(X)$ of $\mathcal{R}(X)$ by a fixpoint computation, starting from $\mathcal{R}(X) = \emptyset$.
Given grammar $S \rightarrow L$, $L \rightarrow a \mid b$. Dependency graphs D_p :



Start with computing $\mathcal{R}(L) = \llbracket L \rightarrow a \rrbracket^{\sharp}() \sqcup \llbracket L \rightarrow b \rrbracket^{\sharp}()$:



terminal symbols do not contribute dependencies

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- terminal symbols do not contribute dependencies check for cycles!
- 3 transitive closure of all relations in $(D(L \rightarrow a))^+$ and $(D(L \rightarrow b))^+$

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Continue with $\mathcal{R}(S) = [\![S \rightarrow L]\!]^{\sharp}(\mathcal{R}(L))$:



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- 3 apply π_0

$$\mathbf{\mathcal{R}}(S) = \{\}$$

Strong Acyclic and Acyclic

The grammar $S \rightarrow L$, $L \rightarrow a \mid b$ has only two derivation trees which are both *acyclic*:



It is *not strongly acyclic* since the over-approximated global dependence graph for the non-terminal L contributes to a cycle when computing $\mathcal{R}(S)$:



From Dependencies to Evaluation Strategies

Possible strategies:

Iet the user define the evaluation order

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- Iet the user define the evaluation order
- automatic strategy based on the dependencies

From Dependencies to Evaluation Strategies

Possible strategies:

- Iet the user define the evaluation order
- automatic strategy based on the dependencies
- consider a *fixed* strategy and only allow an attribute system that can be evaluated using this strategy

Linear Order from Dependency Partial Order

Possible *automatic* strategies:

Linear Order from Dependency Partial Order

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demand-driven evaluation

- start with the evaluation of any required attribute
- if the equation for this attribute relies on as-of-yet unevaluated attributes, evaluate these recursively

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evaluation in passes

for each pass, pre-compute a global strategy to visit the *nodes* together with a local strategy for evaluation *within each node* type

→ *minimize* the number of *visits* to each node

Example: Demand-Driven Evaluation

Compute next at leaves a_2 , a_3 and b_4 in the expression $(a|b)^*a(a|b)$:

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} & & next[1] & := & next[0] \\ & & next[2] & := & next[0] \end{array} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} & & \\ & & \\ \hline \end{array} & & \\ & &$$



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Demand-Driven Evaluation

Observations

- each node must contain a pointer to its parent
- only required attributes are evaluated
- the evaluation sequence depends in general on the actual syntax tree
- the algorithm must track which attributes it has already evaluated
- the algorithm may visit nodes more often than necessary
- \rightsquigarrow the algorithm is not local

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- evaluation strategy is dynamic: difficult to debug
- usually all attributes in all nodes are required
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in principle:

- evaluation strategy is dynamic: difficult to debug
- usually all attributes in all nodes are required
- \rightsquigarrow computation of all attributes is often cheaper
- → perform evaluation in *passes*

Implementing State

Problem: In many cases some sort of state is required. Example: numbering the leafs of a syntax tree



Example: Implementing Numbering of Leafs

Idea:

- use helper attributes pre and post
- in pre we pass the value for the first leaf down (inherited attribute)
- in post we pass the value of the last leaf up (synthesized attribute)

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mbox{root:} & \mbox{pre}[0] & := & 0 \\ & \mbox{pre}[1] & := & \mbox{pre}[0] \\ & \mbox{post}[0] & := & \mbox{post}[1] \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mbox{node:} & \mbox{pre}[1] & := & \mbox{pre}[0] \\ & \mbox{pre}[2] & := & \mbox{post}[1] \\ & \mbox{post}[0] & := & \mbox{post}[2] \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mbox{leaf:} & \mbox{post}[0] & := & \mbox{pre}[0] + 1 \end{array}$$



• the attribute system is apparently strongly acyclic



- the attribute system is apparently strongly acyclic
- each node computes
 - the inherited attributes before descending into a child node (corresponding to a pre-order traversal)
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L-Attributation pre post pre post pre post

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Definition L-Attributed Grammars

An attribute system is *L*-attributed, if for all productions $S \rightarrow S_1 \dots S_n$ every inherited attribute of S_j where $1 \le j \le n$ only depends on

• the attributes of $S_1, S_2, \ldots S_{j-1}$ and

2 the inherited attributes of S.

L-Attributation

Background:

- the attributes of an *L*-attributed grammar can be evaluated during parsing
- important if no syntax tree is required or if error messages should be emitted while parsing
- example: pocket calculator

L-Attributation

Background:

- the attributes of an *L*-attributed grammar can be evaluated during parsing
- important if no syntax tree is required or if error messages should be emitted while parsing
- example: pocket calculator
- *L*-attributed grammars have a fixed evaluation strategy: a single *depth-first* traversal
 - in general: partition all attributes into A = A₁ ∪ ... ∪ A_n such that for all attributes in A_i the attribute system is L-attributed
 - perform a depth-first traversal for each attribute set A_i
- \rightsquigarrow craft attribute system in a way that they can be partitioned into few $\mathit{L}\text{-}\text{attributed sets}$

 symbol tables, type checking/inference, and simple code generation can all be specified using *L*-attributed grammars

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- the nodes in a syntax tree usually have different *types* that depend on the non-terminal that the node represents
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Example: a statement may have two attributes containing valid identifiers: one ingoing (inherited) set and one outgoing (synthesised) set; in contrast, an expression only has an ingoing set

Implementation of Attribute Systems via a Visitor

- class with a method for every non-terminal in the grammar
 public abstract class Regex {
 public abstract void accept(Visitor v);
 }
- attribute-evaluation works via pre-order / post-order callbacks

```
public interface Visitor {
    default void pre(OrEx re) {}
    default void pre(AndEx re) {}
    . . .
    default void post(OrEx re) {}
    default void post (AndEx re) { }

    we pre-define a depth-first traversal of the syntax tree

 public class OrEx extends Regex {
    Regex l,r;
    public void accept (Visitor v) {
       v.pre(this); l.accept(v); v.inter(this);
       r.accept(v); v.post(this);
```

Example: Leaf Numbering

```
public abstract class AbstractVisitor
        implements Visitor {
  public void pre(OrEx re) { pr(re); }
  public void pre(AndEx re) { pr(re); }
  . . .
  public void post(OrEx re) { po(re); }
  public void post(AndEx re) { po(re); }
  abstract void po(BinEx re);
  abstract void in (BinEx re);
  abstract void pr(BinEx re);
public class LeafNum extends AbstractVisitor {
  public LeafNum(Regex r) { n.put(r,0);r.accept(this);}
  public Map<Regex,Integer> n = new HashMap<>();
  public void pr(Const r) { n.put(r, n.get(r)+1); }
  public void pr(BinEx r) { n.put(r.l,n.get(r)); }
  public void in(BinEx r) { n.put(r.r,n.get(r.l)); }
  public void po(BinEx r) { n.put(r,n.get(r.r)); }
```
Semantic Analysis

Chapter 2: Decl-Use Analysis

Symbol Tables

```
Consider the following Java code:
void foo() {
  int A;
  while(true) {
    double A:
    A = 0.5;
    write(A);
    break;
  A = 2;
  bar();
  write(A);
```

- within the body of the loop, the definition of A is shadowed by the *local definition*
- each *declaration* of a variable v requires allocating memory for v
- accessing v requires finding the declaration the access is *bound* to
- a binding is not *visible* when a local declaration of the same name is in scope

Scope of Identifiers

void foo() { int A; while (true) { double A; A = 0.5;write(A); break; A = 2;bar(); write(A);

scope of int A

Scope of Identifiers

bar();
write(A);

<pre>void foo() {</pre>	
<pre>int A; while (true) {</pre>	_
double A;	
A = 0.5;	
write(A);	Scope of double A
break;	
}	_ /
A = 2;	

Scope of Identifiers



administration of identifiers can be quite complicated...

Resolving Identifiers

Observation: each identifier in the AST must be translated into a memory access

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Problem: for each identifier, find out what memory needs to be accessed by providing *rapid* access to its *declaration*

Idea:

rapid access: replace every identifier by a *unique* integer
 → integers as keys: comparisons of integers is faster

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Observation: each identifier in the AST must be translated into a memory access

Problem: for each identifier, find out what memory needs to be accessed by providing *rapid* access to its *declaration*

Idea:

- rapid access: replace every identifier by a unique integer → integers as keys: comparisons of integers is faster
- Iink each usage of a variable to the declaration of that variable
 - $\rightarrow\,$ for languages without explicit declarations, create declarations when a variable is first encountered

Rapid Access: Replace Strings with Integers

Idea for Algorithm:

- Input: a sequence of strings
- Output:

 sequence of numbers
 - table that allows to retrieve the string that corresponds to a number

Apply this algorithm on each identifier during scanning.

Implementation approach:

- count the number of new-found identifiers in int count
- maintain a *hashtable* $S : \mathbf{String} \to \mathbf{int}$ to remember numbers for known identifiers

We thus define the function:

```
int indexForldentifier(String w) {
    if (S(w) = undefined) {
        S = S \oplus {w \mapsto count};
        return count++;
    } else return S(w);
}
```

Implementation: Hashtables for Strings

- **()** allocate an array M of sufficient size m
- ② choose a *hash function* H: **String** \rightarrow [0, m-1] with:
 - H(w) is cheap to compute
 - H distributes the occurring words equally over [0, m-1]

Possible generic choices for sequence types ($\vec{x} = \langle x_0, \dots x_{r-1} \rangle$):

$$\begin{aligned} H_0(\vec{x}) &= (x_0 + x_{r-1}) \% m \\ H_1(\vec{x}) &= (\sum_{i=0}^{r-1} x_i \cdot p^i) \% m \\ &= (x_0 + p \cdot (x_1 + p \cdot (\dots + p \cdot x_{r-1} \cdots))) \% m \\ & \text{for some prime number } p \text{ (e.g. 31)} \end{aligned}$$

- X The hash value of *w* may not be unique!
 - \rightarrow Append (w, i) to a linked list located at M[H(w)]
 - Finding the index for w, we compare w with all x for which H(w) = H(x)
- ✓ access on average:

insert: $\mathcal{O}(1)$ lookup: $\mathcal{O}(1)$

Example: Replacing Strings with Integers

Inpu	it:														
Pe	ter	Pip	ber	pic	ked	а	pe	ck	of	pic	kled	pe	opers		
	_						1								-
lt	Pet	ter	Pip	ber	pick	ed	а	ре	CK	of	ріс	kled	peppe	ers	_
wh	eres	i t	he	pe	CK	Dt 1	pick	led	pe	eppe	rs	Peter	Pipe	er	picked

Output:

Example: Replacing Strings with Integers

Input:										
Peter	Piper	picked	a	pec	k c	of pic	kled	l pep	pers	
									<u>.</u>	
If Pete	r Pij	oer pic	ked	а	peck	c of	pic	kled	peppers	_
wheres	the	peck	of	pickle	ed	peppe	rs	Peter	Piper	picked
				-						

Output:



Example: Replacing Strings with Integers

Input: Piper of Peter picked а peck pickled peppers lf Peter Piper picked а peck of pickled peppers of picked wheres the peck pickled Peter Piper peppers

Output:



and

Hashtable with m = 7 and H_0 :





Refer Uses to Declarations: Symbol Tables

Check for the correct usage of variables:

- Traverse the syntax tree in a suitable sequence, such that
 - each declaration is visited before its use
 - the currently visible declaration is the last one visited
 - → perfect for an L-attributed grammar
 - equation system for basic block must add and remove identifiers
- for each identifier, we manage a stack of declarations

if we visit a *declaration*, we push it onto the stack of its identifier
 upon leaving the *scope*, we remove it from the stack

- if we visit a *usage* of an identifier, we pick the top-most declaration from its stack
- if the stack of the identifier is empty, we have found an undeclared identifier

```
// Abstract locations in comments
1
2
  int a, b; // V, W
3
_{4} b = 5;
5 if (b>3) {
6 int a, c; // X, Y
   a = 3;
7
s = a + 1;
b = c;
  } else {
10
   int c; // Z
11
   c = a + 1;
12
    b = c;
13
   }
14
  b = a + b;
15
16
```



0	a
1	b
2	c

0	a
1	b
2	с

0	a
1	b
2	c

```
// Abstract locations in comments
1
2
    int a, b; // V, W
3
 b = 5;
4
5 if (b>3) {
6 int a, c; // X, Y
    a = 3;
7
s = a + 1;
   b = c;
9
  } else {
10
    int c; // Z
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   c = a + 1;
12
    b = c;
13
    }
14
  b = a + b;
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16
```





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1	b
2	c

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b

c

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	\overline{Y}





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Decl-Use Analysis: Annotating the Syntax Tree



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 when using a list to store the symbol table, storing a marker indicating the old head of the list is sufficient



in front of if-statement

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in front of if-statement

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- instead of lists of symbols, it is possible to use a list of hash tables → more efficient in large, shallow programs
- an even more elegant solution: *persistent trees* (updates return fresh trees with references to the old tree where possible)
 - → a persistent tree t can be passed down into a basic block where new elements may be added, yielding a t'; after examining the basic block, the analysis proceeds with the unchanged old t

A type definition is a *synonym* for a type expression. In C they are introduced using the **typedef** keyword. Type definitions are useful

as abbreviation:

```
typedef struct { int x; int y; } point_t;
```

more readable:

to construct recursive types:

```
Possible declaration in C:
```

```
struct list {
    int info;
    struct list* next;
}
struct list* head;
```

```
typedef struct list list_t;
struct list {
    int info;
    list_t* next;
}
list_t* head;
```

The C grammar distinguishes typedef-name and identifier. Consider the following declarations:

```
typedef struct { int x,y } point_t;
point_t origin;
```

Relevant C grammar:

declaration

declarator

 \rightarrow (declaration-specifier)⁺ declarator; declaration-specifier \rightarrow static volatile...typedef

```
|void|char|char...typename
\rightarrow identifier |...
```

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point t origin;
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declarator

- parser adds point t to the table of types when the declaration is reduced
- parser state has at least one look-ahead token
- the scanner has already read point_t in line two as identifier

Relevant C grammar:

declaration	\rightarrow	$(\mbox{declaration-specifier})^+$ declarator ;
declaration-specifier	\rightarrow	static volatile ··· typedef
		void char char··· typename
declarator	\rightarrow	identifier ···

Solution is difficult:

Relevant C grammar:

declaration	\rightarrow	(declaration-specifier) ⁺ declarator ;
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- register type name earlier
 - separate rule for typedef production
Type Definitions in C: Solutions

Relevant C grammar:

declaration	\rightarrow	(declaration-specifier) ⁺ declarator ;
declaration-specifier	\rightarrow	static volatile ··· typedef
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declarator	\rightarrow	identifier ···

Solution is difficult:

- try to fix the look-ahead inside the parser
- add a rule to the grammar: typename → identifier
 S/R- & R/R- Conflicts!!
- register type name earlier
 - separate rule for typedef production
 - call alternative declarator production that registers <code>identifier</code> as type name

Semantic Analysis

Chapter 3: Type Checking

Goal of Type Checking

In most mainstream (imperative / object oriented / functional) programming languages, variables and functions have a fixed type. for example: int, void*, struct { int x; int y; }.

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- manage memory
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Types are useful to

- manage memory
- to avoid certain run-time errors

In imperative and object-oriented programming languages a declaration has to specify a type. The compiler then checks for a type correct use of the declared entity.

Type Expressions

Types are given using type-*expressions*. The set of type expressions T contains:

- base types: int, char, float, void, ...
- type constructors that can be applied to other types

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example for type constructors in C:

- structures: struct { $t_1 a_1; \ldots t_k a_k;$ }
- o pointers: t *
- arrays: t []
 - the size of an array can be specified
 - the variable to be declared is written between t and [n]
- functions: $t(t_1, \ldots, t_k)$
 - the variable to be declared is written between t and (t_1, \ldots, t_k)
 - in ML function types are written as: $t_1 * \ldots * t_k \rightarrow t$

Type Checking

Problem:

Given: A set of type declarations $\Gamma = \{t_1 \ x_1; \dots t_m \ x_m; \}$ **Check:** Can an expression *e* be given the type *t*? Type Checking

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Example:

```
struct list { int info; struct list* next; };
int f(struct list* l) { return 1; };
struct { struct list* c;}* b;
int* a[11];
```

Consider the expression:

*a[f(b->c)]+2;

Type Checking using the Syntax Tree

Check the expression *a[f(b->c)]+2:



Idea:

- traverse the syntax tree bottom-up
- for each identifier, we lookup its type in Γ
- constants such as 2 or 0.5 have a fixed type
- the types of the inner nodes of the tree are deduced using *typing rules*

Type Systems

Formally: consider *judgements* of the form:

 $\Gamma \vdash e \ : \ t$

// (in the type environment Γ the expression e has type t)

Axioms:

Rules:

Ref:
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : t}{\Gamma \vdash \& e : t*}$$
 Deref: $\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : t*}{\Gamma \vdash *e : t}$

Type Systems for C-like Languages

More rules for typing an expression:

Array:
$$\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e_{1} : t * & \Gamma \vdash e_{2} : int \\ \Gamma \vdash e_{1}[e_{2}] : t \end{array} \end{array}$$
Array:
$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e_{1} : t[] & \Gamma \vdash e_{2} : int \\ \Gamma \vdash e_{1}[e_{2}] : t \end{array} \end{array}$$
Struct:
$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e : struct \{t_{1} a_{1}; \dots t_{m} a_{m};\} \\ \Gamma \vdash e.a_{i} : t_{i} \end{array} \end{array}$$
App:
$$\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e : t(t_{1}, \dots, t_{m}) & \Gamma \vdash e_{1} : t_{1} & \dots & \Gamma \vdash e_{m} : t_{m} \end{array}$$
Op \Box :
$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e : t(t_{1}, \dots, t_{m}) & \Gamma \vdash e_{1} : t_{1} & \dots & \Gamma \vdash e_{m} : t_{m} \end{array} \end{array}$$
Explicit Cast:
$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e : t_{1} & t_{1} \text{ can be converted to } t_{2} \end{array} \end{array}$$

Example: Type Checking

```
Given expression *a[f(b->c)]+2 and
\Gamma = \{
  struct list { int info; struct list* next; };
  int f(struct list* l);
  struct { struct list* c; }* b;
  int* a[11];
                                        +
}
                                                2
                                 *
                         a
                                 f
                                                 .
                                         *
                                         b
```

с

Example: Type Checking



$$\mathsf{OP} \; \frac{\mathsf{D}\mathsf{EREF}}{\frac{\Gamma \vdash a[f(b \to c)]:}{\Gamma \vdash *a[f(b \to c)]:t}} \; \underset{\Gamma \vdash *a[f(b \to c)] + 2:t}{\mathsf{Const}} \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash 2:t}$$





















Equality of Types

Summary of Type Checking

- Choosing which rule to apply at an AST node is determined by the type of the child nodes
- determining the rule requires a check for ~> equality of types

type equality in C:

```
• struct A { } and struct B { } are considered to be different
```

- ~ the compiler could re-order the fields of A and B independently
 (not allowed in C)
- to extend an record A with more fields, it has to be embedded into another record:

```
struct B {
    struct A;
    int field_of_B;
} extension_of_A;
```

• after issuing typedef int C; the types C and int are the same

Structural Type Equality

Alternative interpretation of type equality (does not hold in C):

semantically, two types t_1, t_2 can be considered as *equal* if they accept the same set of access paths.

```
Example:
    struct list {
        int info;
        struct list* next;
        int info;
        struct list* next;
        int info;
        struct list1* next;
        }* next;
}
Consider declarations struct list* l and struct list1* l.
Both allow
```

l->info l->next->info

but the two declarations of 1 have unequal types in C.

Algorithm for Testing Structural Equality

Idea:

- track a set of equivalence queries of type expressions
- if two types are syntactically equal, we stop and report success
- otherwise, reduce the equivalence query to a several equivalence queries on (hopefully) simpler type expressions

Suppose that recursive types were introduced using type definitions:

$\texttt{typedef}\;A\;t$

(we omit the Γ). Then define the following rules:

Rules for Well-Typedness





Example:

typedefstruct {int info; A * next;}Atypedefstruct {int info; struct {int info; B * next;} * next;}BWe ask, for instance, if the following equality holds:

```
struct {int info; A * next; } = B
```

We construct the following deduction tree:

Proof for the Example:

typedefstruct {int info; A * next;}Atypedefstruct {int info; struct {int info; B * next;} * next;}B



Implementation

We implement a function that implements the equivalence query for two types by applying the deduction rules:

- if no deduction rule applies, then the two types are not equal
- if the deduction rule for expanding a type definition applies, the function is called recursively with a *potentially larger* type
- in case an equivalence query appears a second time, the types are *equal by definition*

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- in case an equivalence query appears a second time, the types are *equal by definition*

Termination

- the set *D* of all declared types is finite
- there are no more than $|D|^2$ different equivalence queries
- repeated queries for the same inputs are automatically satisfied
- \rightsquigarrow termination is ensured

Subtypes

On the arithmetic basic types **char**, **int**, **long**, etc. there exists a rich *subtype* hierarchy

Subtypes

- $t_1 \leq t_2$, means that the values of type t_1
 - form a subset of the values of type t_2 ;
 - 2 can be converted into a value of type t_2 ;
 - I fulfill the requirements of type t_2 ;
 - are assignable to variables of type t2.

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Example:

assign smaller type (fewer values) to larger type (more values)

 $\begin{array}{ll} t_1 & x;\\ t_2 & y;\\ y = x; \end{array}$

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Example:

assign smaller type (fewer values) to larger type (more values)

int x; double y; y = x;
Example: Subtyping

Extending the subtype relationship to more complex types, observe:

```
string extractInfo( struct { string info; } x) {
  return x.info;
}
```

- we want extractInfo to be applicable to all argument structures that return a string typed field for accessor info
- the idea of subtyping on values is related to subclasses
- we use deduction rules to describe when $t_1 \leq t_2$ should hold...

Rules for Well-Typedness of Subtyping



struct $\{s_1 \ a_1; \ s_j \ a_j; \}$	struct $\{t_1 \ a_1; \ t_k \ a_k; \}$
$\begin{array}{c} a_1 \\ s_1 \ t_1 \end{array} \qquad j \ge k$	$egin{array}{c c} a_k \ \hline s_k & t_k \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{l} \text{struct } \{in \\ \text{struct } \{in \\ y = x; \end{array}$	$egin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$

Rules and Examples for Subtyping



Examples:

struct {int a; int b; }
int (int)
int (float)

struct {float a; }
float (float)
float (int)

Rules and Examples for Subtyping



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struct {int a; int b; }
int (int)
int (float)

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float (int)

Definition

Given two function types in subtype relation

 $s_0(s_1,\ldots s_n) \leq t_0(t_1,\ldots t_n)$ then we have

- co-variance of the return type $s_0 \le t_0$ and
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Rules and Examples for Subtyping



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Subtypes: Application of Rules (I)

Check if $S_1 \leq R_1$:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} R_1 & = & {\rm struct} \{ {\rm int} \; a; \; R_1 \left(R_1 \right) f; \} \\ S_1 & = & {\rm struct} \{ {\rm int} \; a; \; {\rm int} \; b; \; S_1 \left(S_1 \right) f; \} \\ R_2 & = & {\rm struct} \{ {\rm int} \; a; \; R_2 \left(S_2 \right) f; \} \\ S_2 & = & {\rm struct} \{ {\rm int} \; a; \; {\rm int} \; b; \; S_2 \left(R_2 \right) f; \} \end{array}$$



Subtypes: Application of Rules (II) Check if $S_2 \le S_1$:



Subtypes: Application of Rules (III) Check if $S_2 \leq R_1$:



Discussion

- for presentational purposes, proof trees are often abbreviated by omitting deductions within the tree
- structural sub-types are very powerful and can be quite intricate to understand
- Java generalizes structs to objects/classes where a sub-class A inheriting form base class O is a subtype $A \leq O$
- subtype relations between classes must be explicitly declared



Code Synthesis

Generating Code: Overview

We inductively generate instructions from the AST:

- there is a rule stating how to generate code for each non-terminal of the grammar
- the code is merely another attribute in the syntax tree
- code generation makes use of the already computed attributes

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- a semantics of the language we are compiling (here: C standard)
- a semantics of the machine instructions

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- a semantics of the machine instructions
- \rightsquigarrow we commence by specifying machine instruction semantics

Code Synthesis

Chapter 1: The Register C-Machine

The Register C-Machine (R-CMa)

We generate Code for the Register C-Machine. The Register C-Machine is a virtual machine (VM).

- there exists no processor that can execute its instructions
- ... but we can build an interpreter for it
- we provide a visualization environment for the R-CMa
- the R-CMa has no double, float, char, short or long types
- the R-CMa has no instructions to communicate with the operating system
- the R-CMa has an unlimited supply of registers

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The R-CMa is more realistic than it may seem:

- the mentioned restrictions can easily be lifted
- the Dalvik VM or the LLVM are similar to the R-CMa
- an interpreter of R-CMa can run on any platform

Virtual Machines

A virtual machine has the following ingredients:

- any virtual machine provides a set of instructions
- instructions are executed on virtual hardware
- the virtual hardware is a collection of data structures that is accessed and modified by the VM instructions
- ... and also by other components of the run-time system, namely functions that go beyond the instruction semantics
- the interpreter is part of the run-time system

Components of a Virtual Machine

Consider Java as an example:



A virtual machine such as the Dalvik VM has the following structure:

- S: the data store a memory region in which cells can be stored in LIFO order → stack.
- SP: (
 ^ˆ stack pointer) pointer to the last used cell in S
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- SP: (
 ^ˆ stack pointer) pointer to the last used cell in S
- beyond S follows the memory containing the heap
- C is the memory storing code
 - each cell of C holds exactly one virtual instruction
 - C can only be read
- PC (
 ^ˆ program counter) address of the instruction that is to be executed next
- PC contains 0 initially

Executing a Program

- the machine loads an instruction from C[PC] into the instruction register IR in order to execute it
- before evaluating the instruction, the PC is incremented by one

```
while (true) {
    IR = C[PC]; PC++;
    execute (IR);
}
```

- node: the PC must be incremented before the execution, since an instruction may modify the PC
- the loop is exited by evaluating a halt instruction that returns directly to the operating system

Code Synthesis

Chapter 2: Generating Code for the Register C-Machine

Simple Expressions and Assignments in R-CMa

Task: evaluate the expression (1 + 7) * 3 that is, generate an instruction sequence that

- computes the value of the expression and
- keeps its value accessible in a reproducable way

Simple Expressions and Assignments in R-CMa

Task: evaluate the expression (1 + 7) * 3 that is, generate an instruction sequence that

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Idea:

- first compute the value of the sub-expressions
- store the intermediate result in a temporary register
- apply the operator
- loop

Principles of the R-CMa

The R-CMa is composed of a stack, heap and a code segment, just like the JVM; it additionally has register sets:

- *local* registers are $R_1, R_2, \ldots R_i, \ldots$
- *global* register are $R_0, R_{-1}, \ldots R_j, \ldots$



The two register sets have the following purpose:

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 - can efficiently be stored and restored from the stack

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Idea for the translation: use a register counter *i*:

- registers R_j with j < i are *in use*
- registers R_j with $j \ge i$ are *available*

Translation of Simple Expressions

Using variables stored in registers; loading constants:

instruction	semantics	intuition
loadc $R_i c$	$R_i = c$	load constant
move $R_i R_j$	$R_i = R_j$	copy R_j to R_i

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instruction	semantics	intuition
loadc $R_i c$	$R_i = c$	load constant
move $R_i R_j$	$R_i = R_j$	copy R_j to R_i

We define the following translation schema (with $\rho x = a$):

$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} c \rho = \operatorname{loadc} R_{i} c$$
$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} x \rho = \operatorname{move} R_{i} R_{a}$$
$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} x = e \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e \rho$$
$$\operatorname{move} R_{a} R_{i}$$

Translation of Expressions

Let $op = \{add, sub, div, mul, mod, le, gr, eq, leq, geq, and, or\}$. The R-CMa provides an instruction for each operator op.

op $R_i R_j R_k$

where R_i is the target register, R_j the first and R_k the second argument.

Correspondingly, we generate code as follows:

$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e_{1} \operatorname{op} e_{2} \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e_{1} \rho$$
$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i+1} e_{2} \rho$$
$$\operatorname{op} R_{i} R_{i} R_{i+1}$$

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Example: Translate 3 * 4 with i = 4:

$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{4} 3 \star 4 \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{4} 3 \rho$$
$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{5} 4 \rho$$
$$\operatorname{mul} R_{4} R_{4} R_{5}$$

Translation of Expressions

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$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i+1} e_{2} \rho$$
$$\operatorname{op} R_{i} R_{i} R_{i+1}$$

Example: Translate 3 * 4 with i = 4:

$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{4} 3 \star 4 \rho = \operatorname{loadc} R_{4} 3$$

loadc $R_{5} 4$
mul $R_{4} R_{4} R_{5}$

Managing Temporary Registers

Observe that temporary registers are re-used: translate 3 * 4 + 3 * 4 with t = 4:

$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{4} 3 \star 4 + 3 \star 4 \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{4} 3 \star 4 \rho$$
$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{5} 3 \star 4 \rho$$
$$\operatorname{add} R_{4} R_{4} R_{5}$$

where

$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathbb{R}}^{i} 3 \star 4 \rho = \operatorname{loadc} R_{i} 3$$

loadc $R_{i+1} 4$
mul $R_{i} R_{i} R_{i+1}$

we obtain

$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{4}$$
 3*4+3*4 ρ =

Managing Temporary Registers

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where

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mul $R_{i} R_{i} R_{i+1}$

we obtain

$$\operatorname{code}_{R}^{4} 3 \star 4 + 3 \star 4 \rho = \operatorname{loadc} R_{4} 3$$
$$\operatorname{loadc} R_{5} 4$$
$$\operatorname{mul} R_{4} R_{4} R_{5}$$
$$\operatorname{loadc} R_{5} 3$$
$$\operatorname{loadc} R_{6} 4$$
$$\operatorname{mul} R_{5} R_{5} R_{6}$$
$$\operatorname{add} R_{4} R_{4} R_{5}$$

Semantics of Operators

The operators have the following semantics:

add $R_i R_j R_k$ $R_i = R_i + R_k$ $\operatorname{sub} R_i R_j R_k \qquad R_i = R_j - R_k$ div $R_i R_j R_k$ $R_i = R_j/R_k$ $\operatorname{mul} R_i R_j R_k \qquad R_i = R_i * R_k$

mod $R_i R_j R_k$ $R_i = signum(R_k) \cdot k$ with $|R_i| = n \cdot |R_k| + k \wedge n > 0, 0 < k < |R_k|$ le $R_i R_i R_k$ $R_i = \text{if } R_i < R_k$ then 1 else 0 gr $R_i R_j R_k$ $R_i = \text{if } R_j > R_k \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0$ eq $R_i R_i R_k$ $R_i = \text{if } R_i = R_k \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0$ leq $R_i R_j R_k$ $R_i = \text{if } R_i \leq R_k \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0$ geq $R_i R_j R_k$ $R_i = \text{if } R_j \ge R_k$ then 1 else 0 and $R_i R_j R_k$ $R_i = R_j \& R_k$ // bit-wise and or $R_i R_j R_k$ $R_i = R_i | R_k$ // bit-wise or
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Note: all registers and memory cells contain operands in \mathbb{Z}

Unary operators $op = \{neg, not\}$ take only two registers:

 $\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} \operatorname{op} e \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e \rho$ op $R_{i} R_{i}$

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```
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```

Note: We use the same register.

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op R_{i} R_{i}
```

Note: We use the same register.

```
Example: Translate -4 into R_5:

\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^5 - 4 \ \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^5 4 \ \rho
neg R_5 R_5
```

Unary operators $op = \{neg, not\}$ take only two registers:

```
\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} \operatorname{op} e \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e \rho
op R_{i} R_{i}
```

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Example: Translate -4 into R_5 : $\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^5$ -4 ρ = loadc R_5 4 neg $R_5 R_5$

Unary operators $op = \{neg, not\}$ take only two registers:

```
\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} \operatorname{op} e \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e \rho
op R_{i} R_{i}
```

Note: We use the same register.

```
Example: Translate -4 into R_5:

\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^5 -4 \rho = loadc R_5 4

\operatorname{neg} R_5 R_5
```

The operators have the following semantics:

```
not R_i R_j R_i \leftarrow \text{if } R_j = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0
neg R_i R_j R_i \leftarrow -R_j
```

Applying Translation Schema for Expressions Suppose the following function void f(void) { is given: int x, y, z; x = y+z*3;

- Let $\rho = \{x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto 2, z \mapsto 3\}$ be the address environment.
- Let R_4 be the first free register, that is, i = 4.

$$\operatorname{code}^4 x=y+z*3 \rho = \operatorname{code}^4_R y+z*3 \rho$$

move $R_1 R_4$

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- Let R_4 be the first free register, that is, i = 4.

$$\operatorname{code}^{4} x = y + z * 3 \rho = \operatorname{code}^{4}_{R} y + z * 3 \rho$$

$$\operatorname{move} R_{1} R_{4}$$

$$\operatorname{code}^{4}_{R} y + z * 3 \rho = \operatorname{move} R_{4} R_{2}$$

$$\operatorname{code}^{5}_{R} z * 3 \rho$$

$$\operatorname{add} R_{4} R_{4} R_{5}$$

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$$\operatorname{code}^{4} x = y + z * 3 \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{4} y + z * 3 \rho$$
$$\operatorname{move} R_{1} R_{4}$$
$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{4} y + z * 3 \rho = \operatorname{move} R_{4} R_{2}$$
$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{5} z * 3 \rho$$
$$\operatorname{add} R_{4} R_{4} R_{5}$$
$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{5} z * 3 \rho = \operatorname{move} R_{5} R_{3}$$
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$$\operatorname{mul} R_{5} R_{5} R_{6}$$

Applying Translation Schema for Expressions Suppose the following function is given: $void f(void) {$ int x,y,z; x = y+z*3;

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$$\operatorname{code}^{4} x = y + z * 3 \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{4} y + z * 3 \rho$$
$$\operatorname{move} R_{1} R_{4}$$
$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{4} y + z * 3 \rho = \operatorname{move} R_{4} R_{2}$$
$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{5} z * 3 \rho$$
$$\operatorname{add} R_{4} R_{4} R_{5}$$
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$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{6} \exists \rho = \operatorname{loadc} R_{6} \exists$$

Applying Translation Schema for Expressions Suppose the following function void f(void) { is given: int x,y,z; x = y+z*3;

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$$\operatorname{code}^{4} x = y + z * 3 \rho = \operatorname{code}^{4}_{R} y + z * 3 \rho$$
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$$\operatorname{code}^{6}_{R} 3 \rho$$
$$\operatorname{mul} R_{5} R_{5} R_{6}$$
$$\operatorname{code}^{6}_{R} 3 \rho = \operatorname{loadc} R_{6} 3$$

 \sim the assignment x=y+z*3 is translated as move R_4 R_2 ; move R_5 R_3 ; loadc R_6 3; mul R_5 R_5 R_6 ; add R_4 R_4 R_5 ; move R_1 R_4 Code Synthesis

Chapter 3: Statements and Control Structures

General idea for translation:

- $\operatorname{code}^i s \rho$: generate code for statement s
- $\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e \rho$: generate code for expression e into R_{i}

Throughout: i, i + 1, ... are free (unused) registers

General idea for translation:

 $\operatorname{code}^{i} s \rho$: generate code for statement s $\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e \rho$: generate code for expression e into R_{i} Throughout: $i, i + 1, \ldots$ are free (unused) registers

For an *expression* x = e with $\rho x = a$ we defined:

$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} x = e \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e \rho$$

move $R_{a} R_{a}$

However, x = e; is also an *expression statement*:

General idea for translation:

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However, x = e; is also an *expression statement*:

Define:

$$\operatorname{code}^{i} e_{1} = e_{2}; \ \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e_{1} = e_{2} \ \rho$$

The temporary register R_i is ignored here. More general:

$$\operatorname{code}^{i} e; \ \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathbf{R}}^{i} e \ \rho$$

General idea for translation:

 $\operatorname{code}^{i} s \rho$: generate code for statement s $\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e \rho$: generate code for expression e into R_{i} Throughout: $i, i + 1, \ldots$ are free (unused) registers

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The temporary register R_i is ignored here. More general:

$$\operatorname{code}^i e; \ \rho = \operatorname{code}^i_{\mathrm{R}} e \ \rho$$

• Observation: the assignment to e_1 is a side effect of the evaluating the expression $e_1 = e_2$.

Translation of Statement Sequences

The code for a sequence of statements is the concatenation of the instructions for each statement in that sequence:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \operatorname{code}^{i} & (s\,ss) \,\rho & = & \operatorname{code}^{i} \,s \,\rho \\ & & \operatorname{code}^{i} \,ss \,\rho \\ \operatorname{code}^{i} \,\varepsilon \,\rho & = & // & empty \ sequence \ of \ instructions \end{array}$$

Note here: *s* is a statement, *ss* is a sequence of statements

Jumps

In order to diverge from the linear sequence of execution, we need *jumps*:



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Conditional Jumps

A conditional jump branches depending on the value in R_i :



if $(R_i == 0) PC = A;$

Simple Conditional

We first consider $s \equiv if$ (c) ss.

...and present a translation without basic blocks.

Idea:

- emit the code of c and ss in sequence
- insert a jump instruction in-between, so that correct control flow is ensured

$$\operatorname{code}^{i} s \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} c \rho$$
$$\operatorname{jumpz} R_{i} A$$
$$\operatorname{code}^{i} s s \rho$$
$$\mathrm{A}: \ldots$$



General Conditional



Translation of if (c) tt else ee.

 $\operatorname{code}^{i} \operatorname{if}(c) tt \operatorname{else} ee \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} c \rho$ $\operatorname{jumpz} R_{i} A$ $\operatorname{code}^{i} tt \rho$ $\operatorname{jump} B$ $A: \operatorname{code}^{i} ee \rho$ B:



Example for if-statement

Let $\rho = \{x \mapsto 4, y \mapsto 7\}$ and let s be the statement if $(x>y) \{ /* (i) */$ x = x - y; /* (ii) */ $\}$ else { y = y - x; /* (iii) */ $\}$

Then $code^i s \rho$ yields:

Example for if-statement

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Then $code^i s \rho$ yields:

Iterating Statements

We only consider the loop $s \equiv$ while (e) s'. For this statement we define:



Example: Translation of Loops

Let $\rho = \{a \mapsto 7, b \mapsto 8, c \mapsto 9\}$ and let *s* be the statement: while (a>0) { /* (i) */ c = c + 1; /* (ii) */ a = a - b; /* (iii) */ }

Then $code^i s \rho$ evaluates to:

Example: Translation of Loops

Let $\rho = \{a \mapsto 7, b \mapsto 8, c \mapsto 9\}$ and let *s* be the statement: while (a>0) { /* (i) */ c = c + 1; /* (ii) */ a = a - b; /* (iii) */ }

Then $code^i s \rho$ evaluates to:

(i)		(ii)	((iii)	
A:	move $R_i R_7$		move $R_i R_9$		move $R_i R_7$
	loadc R_{i+1} 0		loadc R_{i+1} 1		move $R_{i+1} R_8$
	$\operatorname{gr} R_i \ R_i \ R_{i+1}$		add $R_i R_i R_{i+1}$		sub $R_i R_i R_{i+1}$
	jumpz $R_i B$		move $R_9 R_i$		move $R_7 R_i$

B:

jump A

for-Loops

The for-loop $s \equiv$ for $(e_1; e_2; e_3) s'$ is equivalent to the statement sequence e_1 ; while $(e_2) \{s' e_3;\}$ – as long as s' does not contain a continue statement.

Thus, we translate:

$$\operatorname{code}^{i} \operatorname{for}(e_{1}; e_{2}; e_{3}) s \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e_{1} \rho$$

$$A : \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e_{2} \rho$$

$$\operatorname{jumpz} \frac{R_{i}}{R} B$$

$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e_{3} \rho$$

$$\operatorname{jump} A$$

$$B :$$

The switch-Statement

Idea:

- Suppose choosing from multiple options in *constant time* if possible
- use a *jump table* that, at the *i*th position, holds a jump to the *i*th alternative
- in order to realize this idea, we need an *indirect jump* instruction

The switch-Statement

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- Suppose choosing from multiple options in *constant time* if possible
- use a *jump table* that, at the *i*th position, holds a jump to the *i*th alternative
- in order to realize this idea, we need an *indirect jump* instruction



 $\mathsf{PC} = \mathsf{A} + R_i;$

Consecutive Alternatives

Let **switch** s be given with k consecutive **case** alternatives:

```
switch (e) {
  case 0: s_0; break;
  :
  case k-1: s_{k-1}; break;
  default: s_k; break;
}
```

Consecutive Alternatives

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```
switch (e) {
   case 0: s_0; break;
   :
   case k-1: s_{k-1}; break;
   default: s_k; break;
}
```

Define codeⁱ $s \rho$ as follows: $code^{i} s \rho = code^{i}_{R} e \rho$ $check^{i} 0 k B \qquad B: jump A_{0}$ $A_{0}: code^{i} s_{0} \rho \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots$ $jump C \qquad jump A_{k}$ $\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad C:$ $A_{k}: code^{i} s_{k} \rho$ jump C

Consecutive Alternatives

Let **switch** s be given with k consecutive **case** alternatives:

```
switch (e) {
   case 0: s_0; break;
   :
   case k-1: s_{k-1}; break;
   default: s_k; break;
}
```

Define $code^i s \rho$ as follows:

```
\begin{array}{rcl} \operatorname{code}^{i} s \ \rho & = & \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e \ \rho \\ & & & check^{i} \ 0 \ k \ B & & B: \ \operatorname{jump} A_{0} \\ & & A_{0}: & \operatorname{code}^{i} s_{0} \ \rho & & \vdots & \vdots \\ & & & & \operatorname{jump} C & & & \\ & & & \vdots & & C: \\ & & & & A_{k}: & \operatorname{code}^{i} s_{k} \ \rho & & & \\ & & & & & \operatorname{jump} C \\ & & & & & \operatorname{check}^{i} \ l \ u \ B \ \text{checks if} \ l \le R_{i} < u \ \text{holds and jumps accordingly.} \end{array}
```

Translation of the $check^i$ Macro

The macro *checkⁱ* $l \ u \ B$ checks if $l \leq \frac{R_i}{l} < u$. Let k = u - l.

- if $l \leq \mathbf{R}_i < u$ it jumps to $B + \mathbf{R}_i l$
- if $R_i < l$ or $R_i \ge u$ it jumps to A_k



Translation of the $check^i$ Macro

The macro *checkⁱ* l u B checks if $l \leq \mathbf{R}_i < u$. Let k = u - l.

• if $l \leq \mathbf{R}_i < u$ it jumps to $B + \mathbf{R}_i - l$

• if
$$R_i < l$$
 or $R_i \ge u$ it jumps to A_k

we define:

$$check^{i} \ l \ u \ B = loadc \ R_{i+1} \ l$$

$$geq \ R_{i+2} \ R_{i} \ R_{i+1}$$

$$jumpz \ R_{i+2} \ E \qquad B : jump \ A_{0}$$

$$sub \ R_{i} \ R_{i} \ R_{i+1} \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$loadc \ R_{i+1} \ u$$

$$geq \ R_{i+2} \ R_{i} \ R_{i+1}$$

$$jumpz \ R_{i+2} \ D \qquad C :$$

$$E : loadc \ R_{i} \ u - l$$

$$D : jumpi \ R_{i} \ B$$

Translation of the $check^i$ Macro

The macro *checkⁱ* l u B checks if $l \leq R_i < u$. Let k = u - l.

• if $l \leq \mathbf{R}_i < u$ it jumps to $B + \mathbf{R}_i - l$

• if
$$R_i < l$$
 or $R_i \ge u$ it jumps to A_k

we define:

$$check^{i} \ l \ u \ B = 0 adc \ R_{i+1} \ l geq \ R_{i+2} \ R_{i} \ R_{i+1} jumpz \ R_{i+2} \ E B : jump \ A_{0} sub \ R_{i} \ R_{i} \ R_{i+1} : : i loadc \ R_{i+1} \ u geq \ R_{i+2} \ R_{i} \ R_{i+1} jump \ A_{k} jumpz \ R_{i+2} \ D C : E : 0 adc \ R_{i} \ u - l D : jumpi \ R_{i} \ B$$

Note: a jump jumpi $R_i B$ with $R_i = u$ winds up at B + u, the default case

Improvements for Jump Tables

This translation is only suitable for *certain* **switch**-statement.

- In case the table starts with 0 instead of *u* we don't need to subtract it from *e* before we use it as index
- if the value of *e* is guaranteed to be in the interval [*l*, *u*], we can omit *check*
General translation of switch-Statements

In general, the values of the various cases may be far apart:

- generate an if-ladder, that is, a sequence of if-statements
- for n cases, an if-cascade (tree of conditionals) can be generated → O(log n) tests
- if the sequence of numbers has small gaps (≤ 3), a jump table may be smaller and faster
- one could generate several jump tables, one for each sets of consecutive cases
- an if cascade can be re-arranged by using information from profiling, so that paths executed more frequently require fewer tests

Code Synthesis

Chapter 4: Functions

Ingredients of a Function

The definition of a function consists of

- a name with which it can be called;
- a specification of its formal parameters;
- possibly a result type;
- a sequence of statements.

In C we have:

 $\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} f \rho = \operatorname{loadc} R_{i} f$ with f starting address of f

Observe:

- function names must have an address assigned to them
- since the size of functions is unknown before they are translated, the addresses of forward-declared functions must be inserted later

Memory Management in Functions

```
int fac(int x) {
    if (x<=0) return 1;
    else return x*fac(x-1);
    }
    int main(void) {
        int n;
        n = fac(2) + fac(1);
        printf("%d", n);
    }
}</pre>
```

At run-time several instances may be active, that is, the function has been called but has not yet returned. The recursion tree in the example:



Memory Management in Function Variables

The formal parameters and the local variables of the various instances of a function must be kept separate

Idea for implementing functions:

- set up a region of memory each time it is called
- in sequential programs this memory region can be allocated on the stack
- thus, each instance of a function has its own region on the stack
- these regions are called stack frames

Organization of a Stack Frame

- stack representation: grows upwards
- SP points to the last used stack cell





organizational

cells

Organization of a Stack Frame

- stack representation: grows upwards
- SP points to the last used stack cell



• $FP \cong$ frame pointer: points to the last organizational cell

• used to recover the previously active stack frame

Split of Obligations

Definition

Let f be the current function that calls a function g.

- f is dubbed caller
- g is dubbed callee

The code for managing function calls has to be split between caller and callee.

This split cannot be done arbitrarily since some information is only known in that caller or only in the callee.

Observation:

The space requirement for parameters is only know by the caller: Example: printf

Principle of Function Call and Return actions taken on entering *g*:



The two register sets (global and local) are used as follows:

- automatic variables live in *local* registers *R_i*
- intermediate results also live in *local* registers R_i
- parameters live in *global* registers R_i (with $i \leq 0$)
- global variables:

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convention:

- the *i* th argument of a function is passed in register R_{-i}
- the result of a function is stored in R_0
- local registers are saved before calling a function

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Definition

Let f be a function that calls g. A register R_i is called

- *caller-saved* if f backs up R_i and g may overwrite it
- callee-saved if f does not back up R_i, and g must restore it before returning

A function call $g(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$ is translated as follows: $\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{B}}^{i} \mathbf{g}(e_{1}, \ldots e_{n}) \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{B}}^{i} \mathbf{g} \rho$ $\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i+1} e_1 \rho$ $\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i+n} e_n \rho$ move R_{-1} R_{i+1} : move $R_{-n} R_{i+n}$ saveloc $R_1 R_{i-1}$ mark call R_i restoreloc $R_1 R_{i-1}$ move $R_i R_0$

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New instructions:

- saveloc $R_i R_j$ pushes the registers $R_i, R_{i+1} \dots R_j$ onto the stack
- mark backs up the organizational cells
- call R_i calls the function at the address in R_i
- restoreloc $R_i R_j$ pops $R_j, R_{j-1}, \ldots R_i$ off the stack

Rescuing the FP

The instruction mark allocates stack space for the return value and the organizational cells and backs up FP.



Calling a Function

The instruction call rescues the value of PC+1 onto the stack and sets FP and PC.



SP = SP+1; S[SP] = PC; FP = SP; PC = Ri;

Result of a Function

The global register set is also used to communicate the result value of a function:

$$\operatorname{code}^{i} \operatorname{return} e \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathbb{R}}^{i} e \rho$$

move $R_0 R_i$
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```
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```

global registers are otherwise not used inside a function body:

- advantage: at any point in the body another function can be called without backing up *global* registers
- disadvantage: on entering a function, all *global* registers must be saved

Return from a Function

The instruction return relinquishes control of the current stack frame, that is, it restores PC and FP.



The translation of a function is thus defined as follows:

 $\operatorname{code}^{1} t_{r} \mathbf{f}(\operatorname{args}) \{\operatorname{decls} ss\} \rho = \operatorname{move} \frac{R_{l+1}}{R_{-1}} R_{-1}$ \vdots $\operatorname{move} \frac{R_{l+n}}{R_{l+n}} R_{-n}$ $\operatorname{code}^{l+n+1} ss \rho'$ return

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Assumptions:

• the function has n parameters

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Are the move instructions always necessary?

Translation of Whole Programs

A program $P = F_1; \ldots F_n$ must have a single main function.

 $\operatorname{code}^{1} P \rho = \operatorname{loadc} R_{1} \operatorname{main} \\ \operatorname{mark} \\ \operatorname{call} R_{1} \\ \operatorname{halt} \\ f_{1} : \operatorname{code}^{1} F_{1} \rho \oplus \rho_{f_{1}} \\ \vdots \\ f_{n} : \operatorname{code}^{1} F_{n} \rho \oplus \rho_{f_{n}} \\ \end{array}$

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- $\rho = \emptyset$ assuming that we have no global variables
- \rho_{f_i}

 p_{f_i}

•
$$\rho_1 \oplus \rho_2 = \lambda x \cdot \begin{cases} \rho_2(x) & \text{if } x \in \operatorname{dom}(\rho_2) \\ \rho_1(x) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Translation of the ${\tt fac}\xspace$ -function

Δ۰

Consider:

int fa	<pre>ic(int x) {</pre>	$\underline{i} = 3$
if (x	<=0) then	i - 4
return 1; $i = 4$		
else	i - 2	
<pre>return x*fac(x-1);</pre>		-1); $i = 3$
}		
_fac:	move $R_1 R_{-1}$	save param.
i = 2	move $R_2 R_1$	if (x<=0)
	loadc R_3 0	
	leq $R_2 R_2 R_3$	
	jumpz $R_2 _A$	to else
	loadc R_2 1	return 1
	move $R_0 R_2$	
	return	B
	jump _B	code is dead

move $R_2 R_1$ x*fac(x-1) move $R_3 R_1$ x-1 loadc R_4 1 sub $R_3 R_3 R_4$ move $R_{-1} R_3$ fac(x-1) loadc R_3 fac saveloc $R_1 R_2$ mark call R_3 restoreloc $R_1 R_2$ move $R_3 R_0$ mul $R_2 R_2 R_3$ move $R_0 R_2$ return x*... return return