

TECHNISCHE UNIVERSITÄT MÜNCHEN FAKULTÄT FÜR INFORMATIK



# **Compiler Construction I**

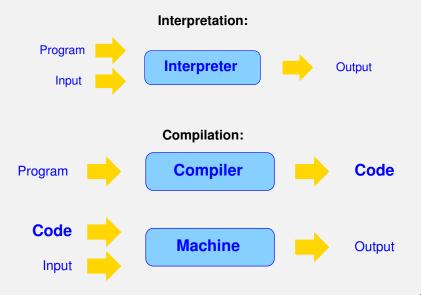
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SoSe 2019



# Introduction

#### Extremes of Program Execution



# Interpretation vs. Compilation

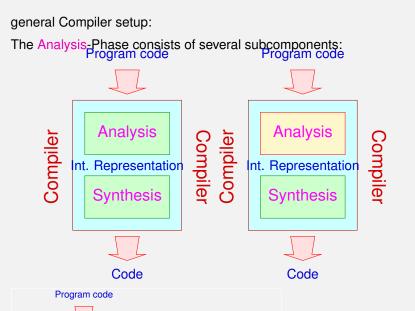
#### Interpretation

- 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

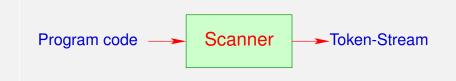
# Compiler





# Lexical Analysis

### The 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, ...

#### The Lexical Analysis - Siever

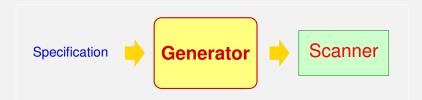
Classified tokens allow for further pre-processing:

- 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).

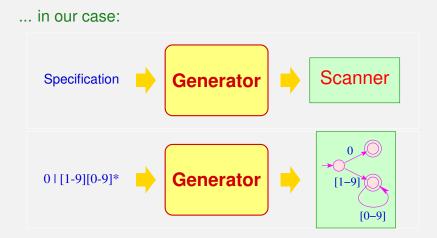
# The Lexical Analysis

# 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:



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  $\Sigma$  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.

#### **Definition** Regular Expressions

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

- $\epsilon \in \mathcal{E}$  ( $\epsilon$  a new symbol not from  $\Sigma$ );
- $a \in \mathcal{E}$  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:

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

### Attention:

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

 $* > \cdot > |$ 

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 " $\epsilon$ "

Specification needs Semantics

...Example:

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

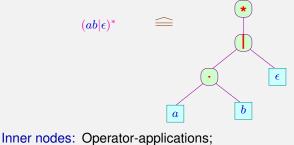
For  $e \in \mathcal{E}_{\Sigma}$  we define the specified language  $\llbracket e \rrbracket \subseteq \Sigma^*$  inductively by:

### Keep in Mind:

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

$$(L)^* = \{ w_1 \dots w_k \mid k \ge 0, w_i \in L \} L_1 \cdot L_2 = \{ w_1 w_2 \mid w_1 \in L_1, w_2 \in L_2 \}$$

• Regular expressions are internally represented as annotated ranked trees:



Leaves: particular symbols or  $\epsilon$ .

#### Example: Identifiers in Java:

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

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

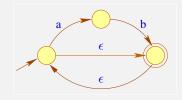
#### Remarks:

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

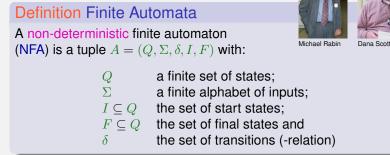
Lexical Analysis

# Chapter 2: Basics: Finite Automata

# Example:



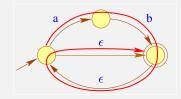
Nodes: States; Edges: Transitions; Lables: Consumed input;



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).

- 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 ...



Once again, more formally:

• We define the transitive closure  $\delta^*$  of  $\delta$  as the smallest set  $\delta'$  with:

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

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

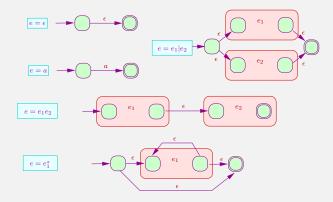
• The set of all accepting words, i.e. *A*'s accepted language can be described compactly as:

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

Lexical Analysis

# Chapter 3: Converting Regular Expressions to NFAs

# In Linear Time from Regular Expressions to NFAs



#### Thompson's Algorithm

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



# A formal approach to Thompson's Algorithm



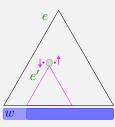
# Berry-Sethi AlgorithmGlushkov Automaton

Produces exactly n + 1 states without  $\epsilon$ -transitions Gerard Berry ViktoRAM Satisficov and demonstrates  $\rightarrow$  *Equality Systems* and  $\rightarrow$  *Attribute Grammars* 

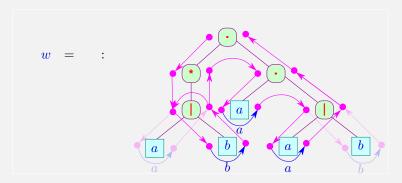
#### Idea:

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



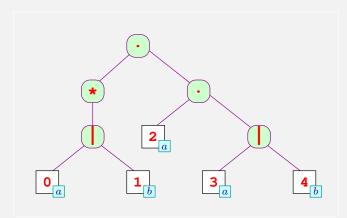
#### ... for example:



#### 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 ...

### ... for example:



#### 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		
$r_1 \mid r_2$	$(\bullet r, \epsilon, \bullet r_1)$		
	$(ullet r,\epsilon,ullet r_2)$		
	$(r_1 ullet, \epsilon, r ullet)$		
	$(r_2 \bullet, \epsilon, r \bullet)$		
$r_1 \cdot r_2$	$(ullet r,\epsilon,ullet r_1)$		
	$(r_1 ullet, \epsilon, ullet r_2)$		
	$(r_2 \bullet, \epsilon, r \bullet)$		

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

#### **Discussion:**

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

#### ⇒ Strategy for the sophisticated version: Avoid generating $\epsilon$ -transitions

#### Idea:

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

#### Necessary node-attributes:

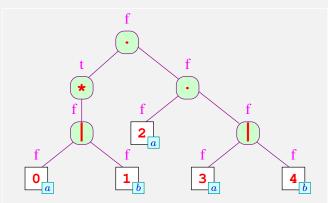
- first the set of read states below r, which may be reached first, when descending into r.
- next the set of read states, which may be reached first in the traversal after r.
- last the set of read states below r, which may be reached last when descending into r.

empty can the subexpression r consume  $\epsilon$  ?

### Berry-Sethi Approach: 1st step

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

... for example:



#### Berry-Sethi Approach: 1st step

Implementation:

DFS post-order traversal

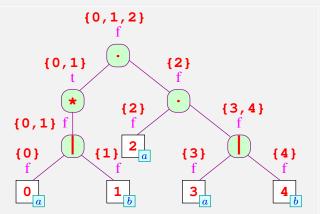
for leaves  $r \equiv [i]x$  we find  $empty[r] = (x \equiv \epsilon)$ .

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  $\epsilon$ -transitions: first $[r] = \{i \text{ in } r \mid (\bullet r, \epsilon, \bullet [i ] x]) \in \delta^*, x \neq \epsilon\}$ 

... for example:



### Berry-Sethi Approach: 2nd step

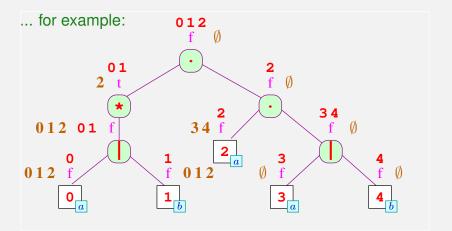
Implementation: DFS post-order traversal

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

Otherwise:

#### Berry-Sethi Approach: 3rd step

The may-set of next read states: The set of read states reached after reading r, that may be reached next via sequences of  $\epsilon$ -transitions. next $[r] = \{i \mid (r \bullet, \epsilon, \bullet \fbox{i x}) \in \delta^*, x \neq \epsilon\}$ 



Berry-Sethi Approach: 3rd step

Implementation:

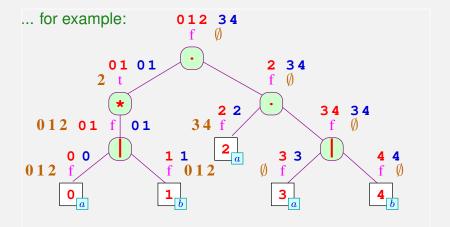
DFS pre-order traversal

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

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

#### Berry-Sethi Approach: 4th step

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  $\epsilon$ -transitions only: last[r] = {i in r | ( $\boxed{i \ x} \bullet, \epsilon, r \bullet$ )  $\in \delta^*, x \neq \epsilon$ }



## Berry-Sethi Approach: 4th step

Implementation: DFS post-order traversal

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

Otherwise:

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

Berry-Sethi Approach: (sophisticated version)

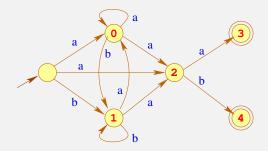
### Construction (sophisticated version):

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

We call the resulting automaton  $A_e$ .

## Berry-Sethi Approach

... for example:



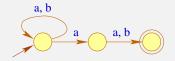
#### Remarks:

- 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:

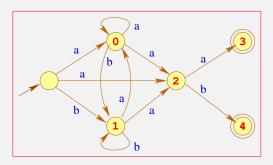


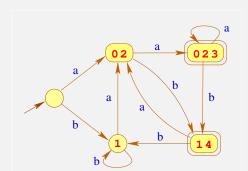
#### Remarks:

- 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

... for example:





#### Theorem:

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

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

## **Construction:**

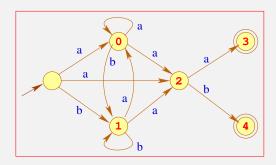
States: Powersets of Q; Start state: I; Final states:  $\{Q' \subseteq Q \mid Q' \cap F \neq \emptyset\}$ ; Transitions:  $\delta_{\mathcal{P}}(Q', a) = \{q \in Q \mid \exists p \in Q' : (p, a, q) \in \delta\}$ .

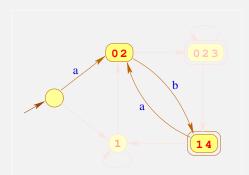
### **Observation:**

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
- 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

... for example:





#### 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

$$\mathcal{L}(A) = [\![e]\!]$$

Lexical Analysis

Chapter 5: Scanner design

#### 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.

#### Implementation:

## 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:

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

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

$$\dots$$

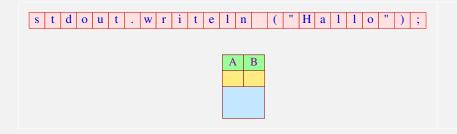
$$F_{k} = \{q \in (F \setminus (F_{1} \cup \dots \cup F_{k-1})) \mid q \cap \mathsf{last}[e_{k}] \neq \emptyset\}$$

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

### Implementation:

# 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<sub>A</sub> ∈ F was reached;
- Pointer *B* tracks the current position.

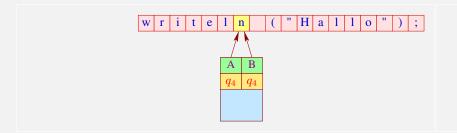


#### Implementation:

## Idea (cont'd):

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

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



#### 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<sub>i</sub>); resets the current state to state<sub>i</sub>.
- 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



- 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:



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...

#### **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





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)^*
```

... for example:

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

#### **Conventions:**

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

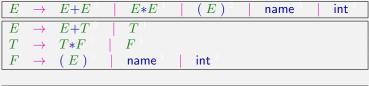
- nonterminals are:  $A, B, C, ..., \langle \exp \rangle, \langle \operatorname{stmt} \rangle, ...;$
- terminals are: *a*, *b*, *c*, ..., int, name, ...;

#### ... a practical example:

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

Both grammars describe the same language

#### Derivation

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.

... for example:  $\underbrace{\underline{E}} \rightarrow \underbrace{\underline{E}} + T \\
\rightarrow \underbrace{\underline{T}} + T \\
\rightarrow T * \underbrace{\underline{F}} + T \\
\rightarrow \underbrace{\underline{T}} * \operatorname{int} + T \\
\rightarrow \underbrace{\underline{F}} * \operatorname{int} + T \\
\rightarrow \operatorname{name} * \operatorname{int} + \underbrace{\underline{T}} \\
\rightarrow \operatorname{name} * \operatorname{int} + \underbrace{\underline{F}} \\
\rightarrow \operatorname{name} * \operatorname{int} + \operatorname{int$ 

#### Definition

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

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

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 \}
```

#### Attention:

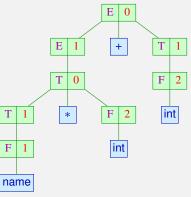
The order, in which disjunct fragments are rewritten is not relevant.

#### **Derivation Tree**

Derivations of a symbol are represented as derivation trees:

... for example:

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



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

t

## **Special Derivations**

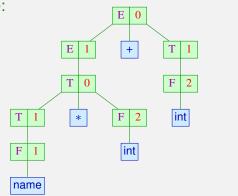
## Attention:

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

## **Special Derivations**

... for example:

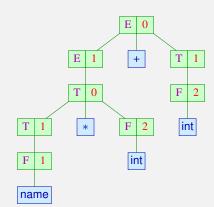


Leftmost derivation: Rightmost derivation: Reverse rightmost derivation: (E, 0) (E, 1) (T, 0) (T, 1) (F, 1) (F, 2) (T, 1) (F, 2)(E, 0) (T, 1) (F, 2) (E, 1) (T, 0) (F, 2) (T, 1) (F, 1)(F, 1) (T, 1) (F, 2) (T, 0) (E, 1) (F, 2) (T, 1) (E, 0)

## **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 <sup>3</sup>	int <sup>4</sup>
E			$T^{1}$			
T	$\rightarrow$	$T*F^{0}$	$F^1$			
F	$\rightarrow$	(E) <sup>0</sup>	name <sup>1</sup>	int <sup>2</sup>		

The first one is ambiguous, the second one is unique

## Conclusion:

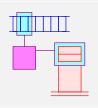
- A derivation tree represents a possible hierarchical structure of a word.
- For programming languages, only those grammars with a unique structure are of interest.
- Derivation trees are one-to-one corresponding with leftmost derivations as well as (reverse) rightmost derivations.
- Leftmost derivations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

 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

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

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

consisting of the pushdown content and the remaining input.

## Klaus Samelson





# ... for example:

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

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

A computation step is characterized by the relation  $\vdash \subseteq (Q^* \times T^*)^2$  with

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

### Remarks:

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

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

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  $\gamma_1$  a suffix of  $\gamma'_1$ , then  $x \neq x' \land x \neq \epsilon \neq x'$  is valid.

... 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)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<sup>L</sup><sub>G</sub> to build Leftmost derivations
- $M_{C}^{R}$  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):

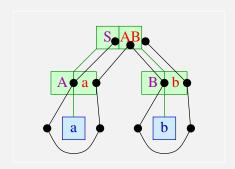
 $[A \to \alpha \bullet \beta] \;, \qquad A \to \alpha \,\beta \; \in \; {\pmb P}$ 

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

Item Pushdown Automaton – Example

Our example:

 $S \rightarrow AB \quad A \rightarrow a \quad B \rightarrow b$ 

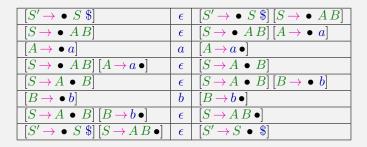


## Item Pushdown Automaton – Example

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

Start state:[\$End state:[\$Transition relations:

$$S' \to \bullet S \ \$]$$
$$S' \to S \ \bullet \ \$]$$



## Item Pushdown Automaton

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 ...

## Item Pushdown Automaton

# 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:

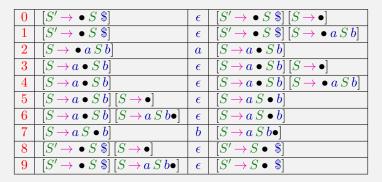
 $([A \to \alpha \bullet B \beta], w) \vdash^* ([A \to \alpha B \bullet \beta], \epsilon) \quad \text{iff} \quad B \to^* w$ 

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

## Item Pushdown Automaton

**Example:**  $S' \to S$  \$  $S \to \epsilon \mid a S b$ 

The transitions of the according Item Pushdown Automaton:



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

# **Topdown Parsing**

## Problem:

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

## Idea 1: GLL Parsing

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

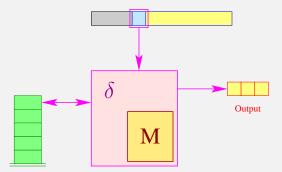
## Idea 2: Recursive Descent & Backtracking

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.

# **Topdown Parsing**

# 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

## 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:

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

# **Topdown Parsing**

Example 2:

# 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  $First_1(E) = \{id\}$  $S \rightarrow \text{if} (E) S \text{ else } S$ if (E) Swhile (E) SE; $E \rightarrow id$ 

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

## Lookahead Sets

Definition: First\_1-SetsFor a set  $L \subseteq T^*$  we define:First\_1(L) =  $\{\epsilon \mid \epsilon \in L\} \cup \{u \in T \mid \exists v \in T^* : uv \in L\}$ 

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

$First_1(S)$
$\epsilon$
a b
a a b b
a a a b b b

 $\equiv$  the yield's prefix of length 1

## Lookahead Sets

Arithmetics: First<sub>1</sub>(\_) is distributive with union and concatenation:

 $\odot_1$  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.

## Lookahead Sets

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

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

Idea: Treat  $\epsilon$  separately: First<sub>1</sub>(A) =  $F_{\epsilon}(A) \cup \{\epsilon \mid A \rightarrow^* \epsilon\}$ 

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

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

We characterize the  $\epsilon$ -free First<sub>1</sub>-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

... we obtain:

# Fast Computation of Lookahead Sets

## **Observation:**

• The form of each inequality of these systems is:

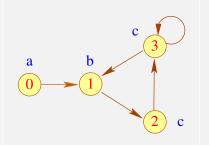
 $x \supseteq y$  resp.  $x \supseteq d$ 

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

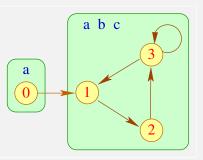
$$\begin{array}{l} x_0 \supseteq \{a\} \\ x_1 \supseteq \{b\} \\ x_2 \supseteq \{c\} \\ x_3 \supset \{c\} \\ x_3 \supset \{c\} \\ x_3 \supset x_2 \end{array} x_1 \supseteq x_1 \\ x_3 \supset x_1 \\ x_3 \supset x_2 \\ x_3 \supset x_2 \\ x_3 \supset x_3 \bigcirc x_3$$



# Fast Computation of Lookahead Sets



Frank DeRemer & Tom Pennello



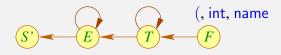
## Proceeding:

- 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

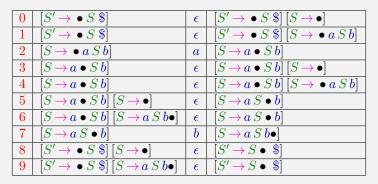
## Fast Computation of Lookahead Sets

## ... for our example grammar:

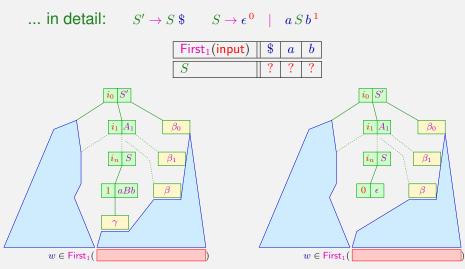
First<sub>1</sub>:

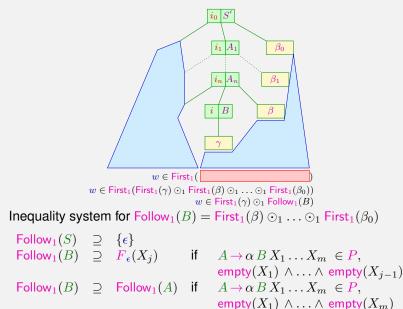


back to the example:  $S' \rightarrow S$  \$  $S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid a S b$ The transitions in the according Item Pushdown Automaton:



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





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  $B \to \gamma^i$  if  $w \in \text{First}_1(\gamma) \odot_1 \text{Follow}_1(B)$ ... for example:  $S' \to S$  \$  $S \to \epsilon^0 \mid a S b^1$  $\mathsf{First}_1(S) = \{\epsilon, a\}$   $\mathsf{Follow}_1(S) = \{b, \$\}$ S-rule 0: First<sub>1</sub>( $\epsilon$ )  $\odot_1$  Follow<sub>1</sub>(S) = {b, \$} S-rule 1: First<sub>1</sub>(aSb)  $\odot_1$  Follow<sub>1</sub>(S) = {a} \$ b a0

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



Lookahead table:



## Left Recursion

#### 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  $A \in N, \beta \in (T \cup N)^*$ 

#### Example:

... is left-recursive

# Left Recursion

#### 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

#### Assumption: G is LL(k)

```
\Rightarrow \mathsf{First}_k(\alpha \,\beta^n \,\gamma) \cap \\ \mathsf{First}_k(\alpha \,\beta^{n+1} \,\gamma) = \emptyset
```

**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  $S \rightarrow (b a)^* b$ 

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

Example: Arithmetic Expressions

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

#### Idea 1: Rewrite the rules from G to $\langle G \rangle$ :

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



## **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<sub>1</sub>(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  $\alpha$ :

```
generate(r_1...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 First<sub>1</sub>(\_) sets are not disjoint any more,
  - Solution 1: Introduce *ranked* grammars, and decide conflicting lookahead always in favour of the higher ranked alternative
    - ightarrow relation to LL parsing not so clear any more
    - $\rightarrow$  not so clear for  $\_^*$  operator how to decide
  - Solution 2: Going from *LL*(1) to *LL*(*k*) The size of the occuring sets is rapidly increasing with larger *k Unfortunately*, even *LL*(*k*) parsers are not sufficient to accept all deterministic contextfree languages. (regular lookahead → *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:

$$\begin{array}{rrrrr} S & \to & A \, B \\ A & \to & a \\ B & \to & b \end{array}$$

The pushdown automaton:

States: Start state: End state:  $q_0, f, a, b, A, B, S;$  $q_0$ f

$q_0$	a	<i>q</i> <sub>0</sub> <i>a</i>
a	$\epsilon$	A
A	b	A b
b	$\epsilon$	В
AB	$\epsilon$	S
$q_0 S$	$\epsilon$	f

#### **Construction:**

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

- $Q = T \cup N \cup \{q_0, f\}$  (q<sub>0</sub>, f fresh);
- $F = \{f\};$
- Transitions:

$$\delta = \{(q, x, qx) \mid q \in Q, x \in T\} \cup \\ \{(q\alpha, \epsilon, qA) \mid q \in Q, A \to \alpha \in P\} \cup \\ \{(q_0 S, \epsilon, f)\} \end{pmatrix}$$

Shift-transitions Reduce-transitions finish

# Example-computation:

### Observation:

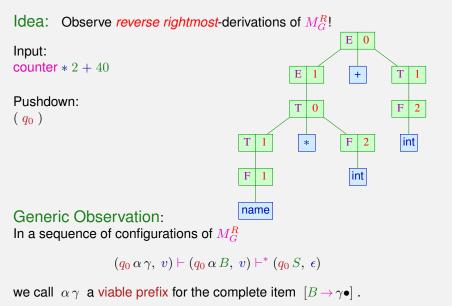
- The sequence of reductions corresponds to a reverse rightmost-derivation for the input
- To prove correctnes, we have to prove:

 $(\epsilon, w) \vdash^* (A, \epsilon) \quad \text{iff} \quad A \to^* w$ 

- 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

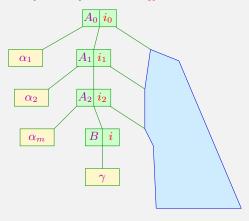


## Reverse Rightmost Derivations in Shift-Reduce-Parsers



#### Bottom-up Analysis: Viable Prefix

 $\alpha \gamma$  is viable for  $[B \rightarrow \gamma \bullet]$  iff  $S \rightarrow_B^* \alpha B v$ 

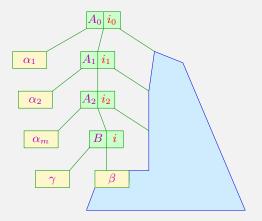


... with  $\alpha = \alpha_1 \ldots \alpha_m$ 

Conversely, for an arbitrary valid word  $\alpha'$  we can determine the set of all later on possibly matching rules ...

#### Bottom-up Analysis: Admissible Items

The item  $[B \to \gamma \bullet \beta]$  is called admissible for  $\alpha'$  iff  $S \to_R^* \alpha B v$  with  $\alpha' = \alpha \gamma$ :



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

#### **Characteristic Automaton**

#### Observation:

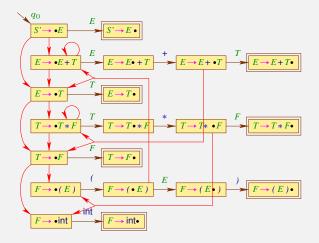
The set of viable prefixes from  $(N \cup T)^*$  for (admissible) items can be computed from the content of the shift-reduce parser's pushdown with the help of a finite automaton:

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.

#### **Characteristic Automaton**

For example:

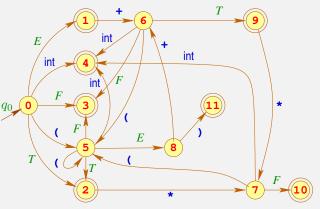


### Canonical LR(0)-Automaton

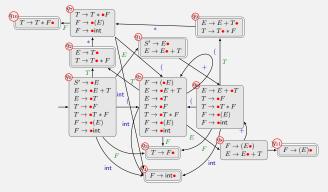
The canonical LR(0)-automaton LR(G) is created from c(G) by:

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





#### Canonical LR(0)-Automaton



# Canonical LR(0)-Automaton

# Observation:

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

Therefore we need a helper function  $\delta_{\epsilon}^*$  ( $\epsilon$ -closure)

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

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  $A \mathop{\rightarrow} \gamma$  , if  $[A \mathop{\rightarrow} \gamma \bullet]$  is admissible for  $\alpha$

#### **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.

#### ... for example:

$$q_{1} = \{ [S' \rightarrow E \bullet], \\ [E \rightarrow E \bullet + T] \}$$

$$q_{2} = \{ [E \rightarrow T \bullet], \\ [T \rightarrow T \bullet * F] \}$$

$$q_{3} = \{ [T \rightarrow F \bullet] \}$$

$$q_{10} = \{ [T \rightarrow T * F \bullet] \}$$

$$q_{4} = \{ [F \rightarrow int \bullet] \}$$

$$q_{11} = \{ [F \rightarrow (E) \bullet] \}$$

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:** Shift: (p, q, pq) if  $q = \delta(p, q) \neq \emptyset$ 

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

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:

Those states are called LR(0)-unsuited.

# Revisiting the Conflicts of the LR(0)-Automaton

What differenciates the particular Reductions and Shifts?

Input:

\*2 + 40

Pushdown:  $(q_0 T)$ 

Е 0 Т Е + 1 1 Е Т 0 F 2 ? ? F 2 int Т \* int

# LR(k)-Grammars

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:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S & \rightarrow_R^* & \alpha A w & \rightarrow & \alpha \beta w \\ S & \rightarrow_R^* & \alpha' A' w' & \rightarrow & \alpha' \beta' w' \end{array} \right\} \text{follows: } \alpha = \alpha' \land \beta = \beta' \land A = A'$$

#### 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

# LR(k)-Grammars

#### for example:

(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):

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

 $\underline{A} \ , \ \underline{B} \ , \ a^n \underline{a} \underline{A} \ b \ , \ a^n \underline{a} \underline{B} \ b \ \underline{b} \ , \ a^n \underline{0} \ , \ a^n \underline{1} \qquad (n \geq 0)$ 

(2)  $S \rightarrow a A c \qquad A \rightarrow A b b \mid b$ 

... is also not LL(k) for any k — but again LR(0):

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

 $a\underline{b}, a\underline{Abb}, \underline{aAc}$ 

# LR(k)-Grammars

### 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:

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

(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:

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

# LR(1)-Parsing

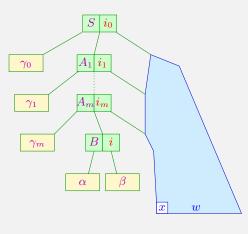
#### Idea: Let's equip items with 1-lookahead

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 item  $[B \rightarrow \alpha \bullet \beta, x]$  is *admissable* for  $\gamma \alpha$  if:

 $S \rightarrow^*_R \gamma B w$  with  $\{x\} = \operatorname{First}_1(w)$ 



... with  $\gamma_0 \ldots \gamma_m = \gamma$ 

# 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:  $[S' \rightarrow \bullet S, \epsilon]$ 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)  $([A \rightarrow \alpha \bullet B \beta, x], \epsilon, [B \rightarrow \bullet \gamma, x']), A \rightarrow \alpha B \beta, B \rightarrow \gamma \in P, x' \in \mathsf{First}_1(\beta) \odot_1 \{x\}$ 

This automaton works like c(G) — but additionally manages a 1-prefix from Follow<sub>1</sub> of the left-hand sides.

#### The Canonical LR(1)-Automaton

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

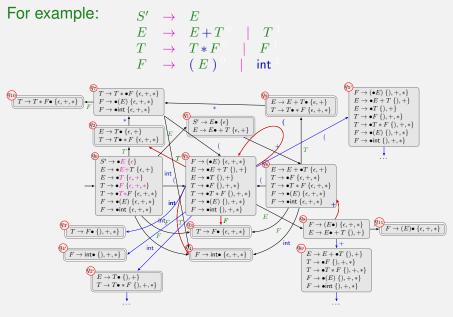
But again, it can be constructed directly from the grammar; analoguously to LR(0), we need the  $\epsilon$ -closure  $\delta^*_{\epsilon}$  as a helper function:

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

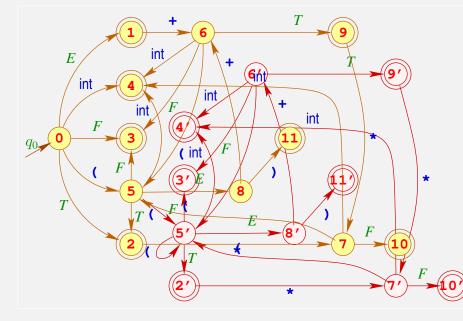
Then, we define:

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

#### Canonical LR(1)-Automaton



### The Canonical LR(1)-Automaton



# The Canonical LR(1)-Automaton

# Discussion:

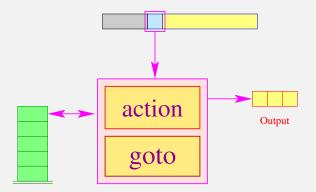
- In the example, the number of states was almost doubled
   ... and it can become even worse
- The conflicts in states q<sub>1</sub>, q<sub>2</sub>, q<sub>9</sub> are now resolved !
   e.g. we have:

$$\begin{array}{c}
 E \rightarrow E + T \bullet \{\epsilon, +\} \\
 T \rightarrow T \bullet * F \{\epsilon, +, *\}
\end{array}$$

with:

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

# 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:

 $\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{Shift:} & (p,a,p\,q) & \text{if} & q = \texttt{goto}[q,a], \\ & & \texttt{s} = \texttt{action}[p,w] \\ \textbf{Reduce:} & (p\,q_1\,\ldots\,q_{|\beta|},\epsilon,p\,q) & \text{if} & [A \to \beta \bullet] \in q_{|\beta|}, \\ & & q = \texttt{goto}(p,A), \\ & & [A \to \beta \bullet] = \texttt{action}[q_{|\beta|},w] \\ \textbf{Finish:} & (q_0\,p,\epsilon,f) & \text{if} & [S' \to S \bullet] \in p \\ \end{array}$ 

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

# The LR(1)-Parser:

Possible actions are: shift error

#### // Shift-operation **reduce** $(A \rightarrow \gamma)$ // Reduction with callback/output // Error

... for example:

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

# The Canonical LR(1)-Automaton

In general: We identify two conflicts:

#### **Reduce-Reduce-Conflict:**

 $[A \to \gamma \bullet, \, x] \,, \ [A' \to \gamma' \bullet, \, x] \ \in \ q \quad \text{with} \quad A \neq A' \lor \gamma \neq \gamma'$ 

#### Shift-Reduce-Conflict:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} A \to \gamma \bullet, \, x] \,, & [A' \to \alpha \bullet a \, \beta, \, y] \; \in \; q \\ & \text{with } a \in T \text{ und } x \in \{a\} \odot_k \operatorname{\mathsf{First}}_k(\beta) \odot_k \{y\} \,. \end{array}$$

for a state  $q \in Q$ .

Such states are now called LR(1k)-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.

# Precedences

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

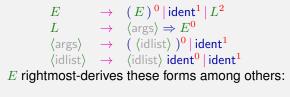
# ... for example:

$S' \rightarrow E^{0}$							
$E \rightarrow E + E^{0}$	action	\$	int	(	)	+	*
$E * E^{1}$	$q_0$	S', <b>0</b>				S	S
$(E)^{2}$	$q_1$	E, <b>3</b>			E, 3	E, 3	E, <b>3</b>
int <sup>3</sup>	$q_2$	S				S	S
Shift-/Reduce Conflict in state 8: $\begin{bmatrix} E & \rightarrow & E \bullet + E \end{bmatrix}^{0}$ $\begin{bmatrix} E & \rightarrow & E + E \bullet^{0} & \\ \end{bmatrix}$	$q_3$	S				S	S
	$q_4$	dot/expr-s	simple		S	S	S
	$q_5$	E, 2			E, 2	-E, 2	E, 2
	$q_6$	S			S	S	S
$< \gamma E + E, +\omega > \Rightarrow Associativity$	$q_7$	E, <b>1</b>			E, <b>1</b>	$\mathbf{PE}, 1$	?s
Shift-/Reduce Conflict in state 7:	$q_8$	<i>E</i> , <b>0</b>			<i>E</i> , <b>0</b>	$\mathbf{PE}, 0$	?s
	$q_9$	S			S	S	S
$\begin{bmatrix} E \rightarrow E \bullet * E^{1} \end{bmatrix}$							
$[E \rightarrow E * E \bullet^{1} , *]$							

Shift-Reduce Conflict in states alivity

# What if precedences are not enough?

Example (very simplified lambda expressions):



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

#### Naive Idea:

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

 $\Delta$  in this case obvious solution, but in general not so simple

# What if precedences are not enough?

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?



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

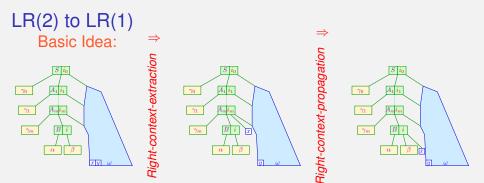
Any LR(k) grammar can be directly transformed into an equivalent LR(1) grammar.

#### ... Example:

 $S \rightarrow A b b^{0} | B b c^{1}$   $A \rightarrow a A^{0} | a^{1}$   $B \rightarrow a B^{0} | a^{1}$  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 as well as A, 0 and B, 0 under lookahead b

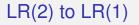


#### in the example:

Right-context is already extracted, so we only perform

Right-context-propagation:

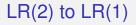
 $\begin{array}{rrrr} S & \rightarrow & A \, b \, b^0 \, | \, B \, b \, c^1 \\ A & \rightarrow & a \, A^0 \, | \, a^1 \\ B & \rightarrow & a \, B^0 \, | \, a^1 \end{array}$ 



Example cont'd:

 $\begin{array}{rrrr} S & \rightarrow & A' \, b^{\mathbf{0}} \, | \, B' \, c^{\mathbf{1}} \\ A' & \rightarrow & a \, A'^{\mathbf{0}} \, | \, a \, b^{\mathbf{1}} \\ B' & \rightarrow & a \, B'^{\mathbf{0}} \, | \, a \, b^{\mathbf{1}} \end{array} \\ S \text{ rightmost-derives one of these forms:} \end{array}$ 

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



#### Example 2:

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

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  $[S \rightarrow a \bullet ac]$ 

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

#### Example 2 cont'd:

 $[S \rightarrow a]$ 's right context is now terminal  $a \Rightarrow$  perform *Right-context-propagation* 

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

#### 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  $\alpha_i$  matches

- $\gamma A$  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  $\alpha_i$  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



# Semantic Analysis

### Semantic Analysis

Scanner and parser accept programs with correct syntax.

- not all programs that are syntactically correct make sense
- the compiler may be able to *recognize* some of these
  - these programs are rejected and reported as erroneous
  - the language definition defines what erroneous means
- semantic analyses are necessary that, for instance:
  - check that identifiers are known and where they are defined
  - check the type-correct use of variables
- 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:
  - only accesses already computed information from neighbouring nodes
  - computes new information for the current node and other neighbouring nodes

#### Definition attribute grammar

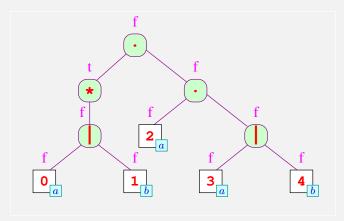
An attribute grammar is a CFG extended by

- 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  $\underbrace{\textit{sequence}}$ 

### Example: Computation of the empty[r] Attribute

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 *synthetic* attribute
- The local dependencies between the attributes are dependent on the *type* of the node

in general:

#### Definition

An attribute is called

- synthetic if its value is always propagated upwards in the tree (in the direction leaf  $\rightarrow$  root)
- inherited if its value is always propagated downwards in the tree (in the direction root  $\rightarrow$  leaf)

### 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

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

#### ... in the example:

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

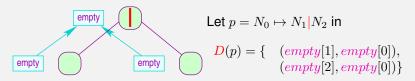
### Observations

- 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

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

 $S \rightarrow I$ 

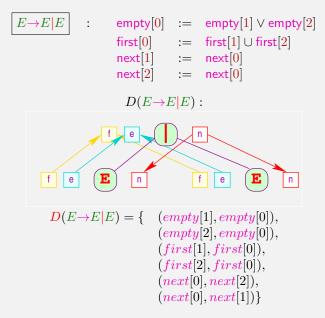
Computing empty, first, next from regular expressions:

$$D(S \rightarrow E):$$

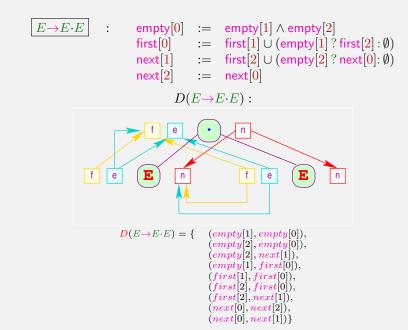
$$\begin{array}{c|c} f & e & S \\ \hline f & e & E & n \\ \hline f & e & E & n \\ \hline D(S \rightarrow E) = \{ (empty[1], empty[0]), \\ (first[1], first[0]) \} \end{array}$$

$$D(E \rightarrow x) = \{ \}$$

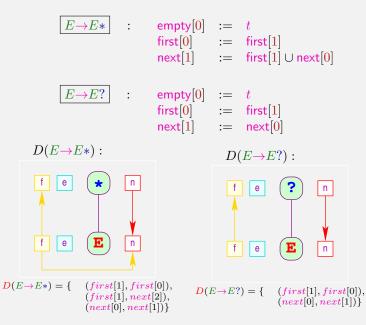
### Regular Expressions: Rules for Alternative



### Regular Expressions: Rules for Concatenation



### Regular Expressions: Kleene-Star and '?'



# 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]

#### Ideas

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

### Subclass: Strongly Acyclic Attribute Dependencies

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

### Subclass: Strongly Acyclic Attribute Dependencies

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

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

 $\pi_0$  projects only onto relations between root elements only

 $\pi_0(S) = \{ (a, b) \mid (a[0], b[0]) \in S \}$ 

root-projects the transitive closure of relations from the  $L_i$ s and D(p)

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

R maps symbols to relations (global attributes dependencies)

$$\mathcal{R}(X) = \bigcup \{ \llbracket p \rrbracket^{\sharp}(\mathcal{R}(X_1), \dots, \mathcal{R}(X_k)) \mid p : X \to X_1 \dots X_k \} \mid X \in N$$

 $\mathcal{R}(X) \supseteq \emptyset \quad \mid X \in N \qquad \land \qquad \mathcal{R}(a) = \emptyset \quad \mid a \in T$ 

#### Strongly Acyclic Grammars

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

- characterizes the class of strongly acyclic Dependencies
- has a unique least solution *R*<sup>\*</sup>(X) (as [.]<sup>♯</sup> is monotonic)

### Subclass: Strongly Acyclic Attribute Dependencies

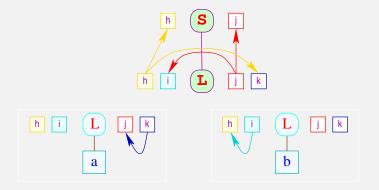
#### Strongly Acyclic Grammars

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.

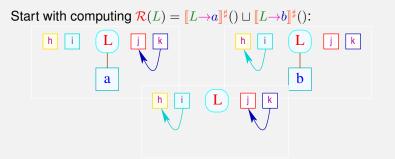
Idea: we compute the least solution  $R^{\star}(X)$  of R(X) by a fixpoint computation, starting from  $R(X) = \emptyset$ .

### Example: Strong Acyclic Test

Given grammar  $S \rightarrow L$ ,  $L \rightarrow a \mid b$ . Dependency graphs  $D_p$ :

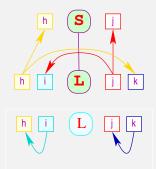


### Example: Strong Acyclic Test



- terminal symbols do not contribute dependencies 
  Check for cycles!
- 3 transitive closure of all relations in  $(D(L \rightarrow a))^+$  and  $(D(L \rightarrow b))^+$
- 3 apply  $\pi_0$

#### Example: Strong Acyclic Test Continue with $\mathcal{R}(S) = [S \rightarrow L]^{\sharp}(\mathcal{R}(L))$ :



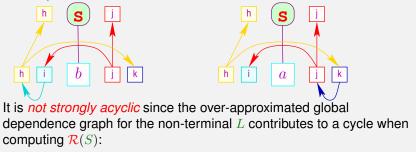
- re-decorate and embed  $\mathcal{R}(L)[1]$
- **2** transitive closure of all relations  $(D(S \rightarrow L) \cup \{(k[1], j[1])\} \cup \{(i[1], h[1])\})^+$

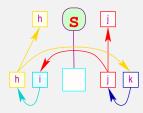
check for cycles!

apply π<sub>0</sub>
 **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:





#### From Dependencies to Evaluation Strategies Possible strategies:

- Iet the user define the evaluation order
- automatic strategy based on the dependencies:
  - use local dependencies to determine which attributes to compute
    - suppose we require n[1]
    - computing n[1] requires f[1]
    - *f*[1] depends on an attribute in the child, so descend
  - compute attributes in passes
    - compute a dependency graph between attributes (no go if cyclic)
    - traverse AST once for each attribute; here three times, once for *e*, *f*, *n*
    - compute one attribute in each pass
- consider a *fixed* strategy and only allow an attribute system that can be evaluated using this strategy



n

E

n

е

e

### Linear Order from Dependency Partial Order

Possible automatic strategies:

#### 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

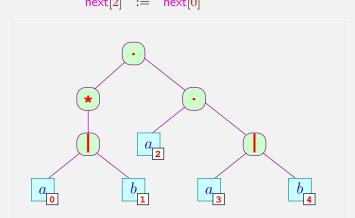
#### evaluation in passes

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



### **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

in principle:

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

### **Evaluation in Passes**

Idea: traverse the syntax tree several times; each time, evaluate all those equations  $a[i_a] = f(b[i_b], \ldots, z[i_z])$  whose arguments  $b[i_b], \ldots, z[i_z]$  are evaluated as-of-yet

#### Strongly Acyclic Attribute Systems'

attributes have to be evaluated for each production p according to  $D(p) \cup \mathcal{R}^{\star}(X_1)[1] \cup \ldots \cup \mathcal{R}^{\star}(X_k)[k]$ 

#### Implementation

- determine a sequence of child visitations such that the most number of attributes are possible to evaluate
- in each pass at least one new attribute is evaluated
  - requires at most n passes for evaluating n attributes
  - find a strategy to evaluate more attributes
     optimization problem

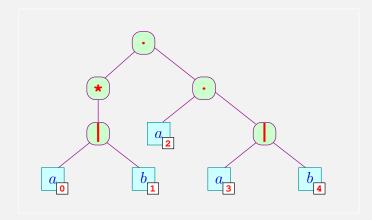
Note: evaluating attribute set  $\{a[0], \ldots, z[0]\}$  for rule  $N \to \ldots N \ldots$  may evaluate a different attribute set of its children

 $\sim 2^k - 1$  evaluation functions for N (with k as the number of attributes) ... in the example:

- empty and first can be computed together
- next must be computed in a separate pass

## **Implementing State**

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



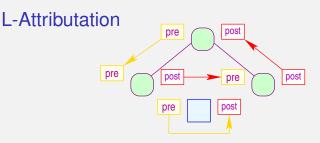
# Example: Implementing Numbering of Leafs

#### 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 (synthetic attribute)

$$\begin{array}{rcccc} {\sf root:} & {\sf pre}[0] & := & 0 \\ & {\sf pre}[1] & := & {\sf pre}[0] \\ & {\sf post}[0] & := & {\sf post}[1] \end{array} \\ \\ {\sf node:} & {\sf pre}[1] & := & {\sf pre}[0] \\ & {\sf pre}[2] & := & {\sf post}[1] \\ & {\sf post}[0] & := & {\sf post}[2] \end{array} \\ \\ {\sf leaf:} & {\sf post}[0] & := & {\sf pre}[0] + \end{array}$$

1



- 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)
  - the synthetic attributes after returning from a child node (corresponding to post-order traversal)

#### **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*-attributed grammars have a fixed evaluation strategy: a single *depth-first* traversal
  - in general: partition all attributes into A = A<sub>1</sub> ∪ ... ∪ A<sub>n</sub> such that for all attributes in A<sub>i</sub> 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  $\mathit{L}\text{-}\text{attributed sets}$

## **Practical Applications**

- symbol tables, type checking/inference, and simple code generation can all be specified using *L*-attributed grammars
- most applications <u>annotate</u> syntax trees with additional information
- the nodes in a syntax tree often have different types that depend on the non-terminal that the node represents
- the different types of non-terminals are characterised by the set of attributes with which they are decorated

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

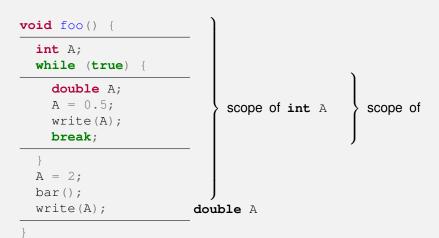
# Chapter 2: Decl-Use Analysis

# 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



administration of identifiers can be quite complicated...

# **Resolving Identifiers**

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]

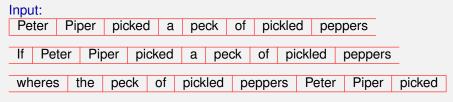
Possible generic choices for sequence types ( $\vec{x} = \langle x_0, \dots x_{r-1} \rangle$ ):

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

- 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:  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ 

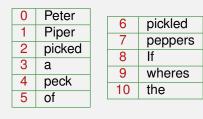
# Example: Replacing Strings with Integers

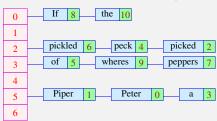


Output: 

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

# Example: A Table of Stacks

```
// Abstract locations in comments
1
2
 int a, b; // V, W
3
 b = 5;
4
5 if (b>3) {
    int a, c; // X, Y
6
    a = 3;
7
   c = a + 1;
8
   b = c;
9
  } 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	

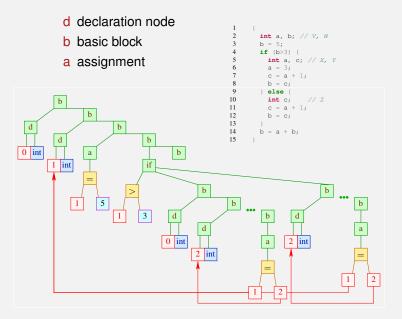






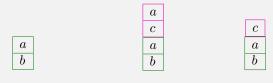
0	a	
1	b	
2	c	

## Decl-Use Analysis: Annotating the Syntax Tree



## Alternative Implementations for Symbol Tables

 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

then-branch

else-branch

- 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

# Type Definitions in C

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;
```

# Type Definitions in C

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	$\rightarrow$	(declaration-specifier) <sup>+</sup> declarator ;
declaration-specifier	$\rightarrow$	static volatiletypedef
		void char chartypename
declarator	$\rightarrow$	identifier

#### Problem:

- 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

# Type Definitions in C: Solutions

Relevant C grammar:

declaration	$\rightarrow$	(declaration-specifier) <sup>+</sup> declarator ;
declaration-specifier	$\rightarrow$	static volatiletypedef
		void char char··· typename
declarator	$\rightarrow$	identifier  ····

Solution is difficult:

try to fix the look-ahead inside the parser

 add a rule to the grammar: typename → identifier

- 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; }.

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

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*?

#### Example:

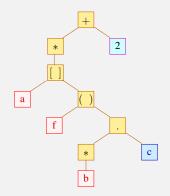
```
struct list { int info; struct list* next; };
int f(struct list* l) { return 1; };
struct { struct list* c;}* b;
int* a[11];
```

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  $\Gamma$
- 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  $\Gamma$  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:
$$\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e_{1} : t * \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{2} : int \\ \Gamma \vdash e_{1}[e_{2}] : t \end{array} \end{array}$$
Array:
$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e_{1} : t[] \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{2} : int \\ \Gamma \vdash e_{1}[e_{2}] : t \end{array} \end{array}$$
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:
$$\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e : t(t_{1}, \dots, t_{m}) \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{1} : t_{1} \ \dots \ \Gamma \vdash e_{m} : t_{m} \end{array}$$
Op  $\Box$ :
$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e : t(t_{1}, \dots, t_{m}) \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{1} : t_{1} \ \dots \ \Gamma \vdash e_{m} : t_{m} \end{array} \end{array}$$
Explicit Cast:
$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e : t_{1} \ t_{1} \ can be converted to t_{2} \end{array} \end{array}$$

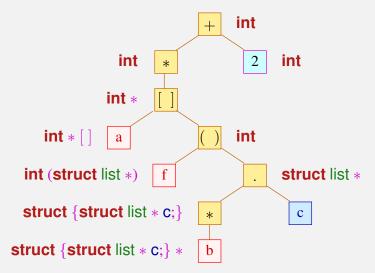
# Example: Type Checking

```
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

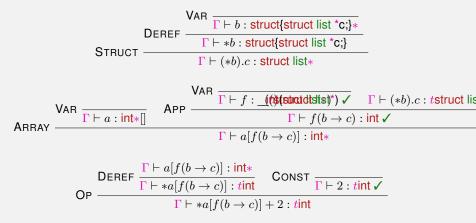
## Example: Type Checking

Given expression \*a[f(b->c)]+2:



### Example: Type Checking – More formally:

Given expression \*a[f(b->c)]+2:



# 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

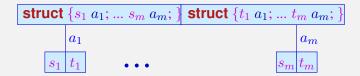
Suppose that recursive types were introduced using type definitions:

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

(we omit the  $\Gamma$ ). Then define the following rules:

# **Rules for Well-Typedness**





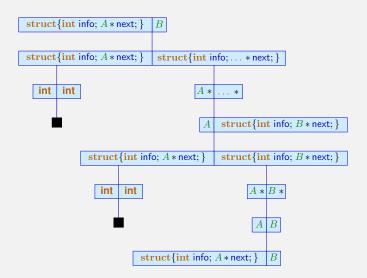
### Example:

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*

### 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.

#### Example:

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

 $egin{array}{lll} t_1 & ext{int } x; \ t_2 & ext{double } y; \ y=x; \end{array}$ 

# Example: Subtyping

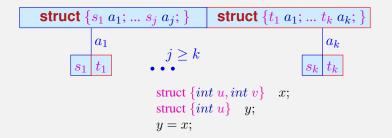
Extending the subtype relationship to more complex types, observe:

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

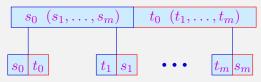
- we want extractInfo to be applicable to all argument structures that return a string typed field for accessor info
- the idea of subtyping on values is related to subclasses
- we use deduction rules to describe when  $t_1 \leq t_2$  should hold...

### Rules for Well-Typedness of Subtyping





# Rules and Examples for Subtyping



# Examples:

### Definition

Given two function types in subtype relation

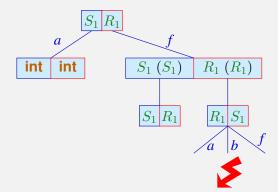
 $s_0(s_1,\ldots s_n) \leq t_0(t_1,\ldots t_n)$  then we have

- co-variance of the return type  $s_0 \le t_0$  and
- contra-variance of the arguments  $s_i \ge t_i$  für  $1 < i \le n$

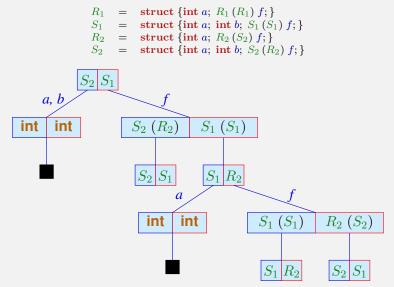
### Subtypes: Application of Rules (I)

Check if  $S_1 \leq R_1$ :

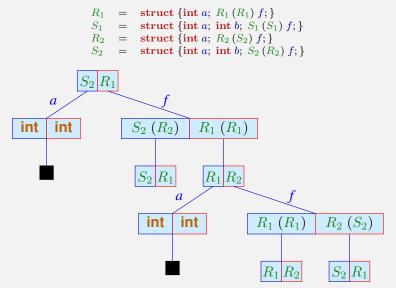
$$\begin{array}{rcl} R_1 & = & {\rm struct} \{ {\rm int} \; a; \; R_1 \left( R_1 \right) f; \} \\ S_1 & = & {\rm struct} \{ {\rm int} \; a; \; {\rm int} \; b; \; S_1 \left( S_1 \right) f; \} \\ R_2 & = & {\rm struct} \{ {\rm int} \; a; \; R_2 \left( S_2 \right) f; \} \\ S_2 & = & {\rm struct} \{ {\rm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



### 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

In order to specify the code generation, we require

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

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

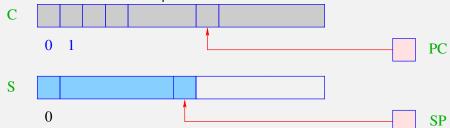
## Virtual Machines

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: (
   <sup>ˆ</sup> 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 (
   <sup>ˆ</sup> 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

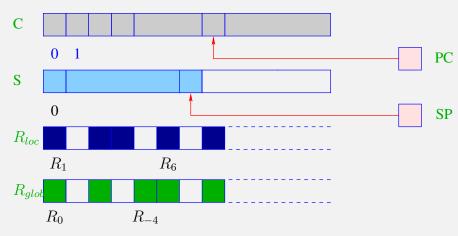
#### Idea:

- 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 Register Sets of the R-CMa

The two register sets have the following purpose:

- the *local* registers  $R_i$ 
  - save temporary results
  - store the contents of local variables of a function
  - can efficiently be stored and restored from the stack
- 2 the *global* registers  $R_i$ 
  - save the parameters of a function
  - store the result of a function

#### Note:

for now, we only use registers to store temporary computations

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 $R_i$

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:

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

Example: Translate 3 \* 4 with i = 4:

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

### 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

$$\operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} 3 \star 4 \rho = \operatorname{loadc} R_{i} 3$$
  
 $\operatorname{loadc} R_{i+1} 4$   
 $\operatorname{mul} R_{i} R_{i} R_{i+1}$ 

we obtain

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

### Semantics of Operators

The operators have the following semantics:

add  $R_i R_j R_k$   $R_i = R_j + R_k$ sub  $R_i R_j R_k$   $R_i = R_j - R_k$ div  $R_i R_j R_k$   $R_i = R_j/R_k$  $\mathbf{mul} \ R_i \ R_j \ R_k \qquad R_i = R_j \ast R_k$ 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  $R_i R_j R_k$   $R_i = \text{if } R_i < R_k$  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  $R_i R_j R_k$   $R_i = \text{if } R_j = R_k \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0$ leq  $R_i R_j R_k$   $R_i = \text{if } R_i \leq R_k \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0$  $\operatorname{geq} R_i R_j R_k$   $R_i = \operatorname{if} R_j \ge R_k$  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

Note: all registers and memory cells contain operands in  $\mathbb{Z}$ 

# Translation of Unary Operators

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

The operators have the following semantics:

not  $R_i R_j$   $R_i \leftarrow \text{if } R_j = 0$  then 1 else 0 neg  $R_i R_j$   $R_i \leftarrow -R_j$  Applying Translation Schema for Expressions Suppose the following function is given:  $void f(void) {$ 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.

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

 $\sim$  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

### About Statements and Expressions

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  $R_{a} R$ 

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:

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

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

### **Translation of Statement Sequences**

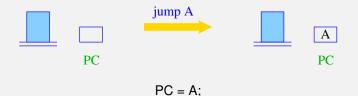
The code for a sequence of statements is the concatenation of the instructions for each statement in that sequence:

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

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

### Jumps

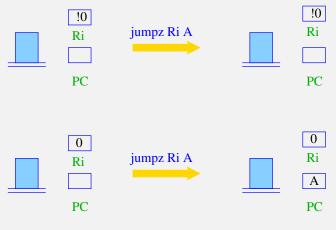
In order to diverge from the linear sequence of execution, we need *jumps*:



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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

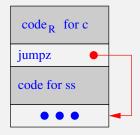
We first consider  $s \equiv if$  (c) ss.

...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

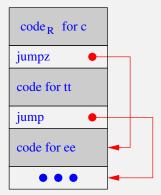
$$\operatorname{code}^{i} s \rho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} c \rho$$
$$\operatorname{jumpz} R_{i} A$$
$$\operatorname{code}^{i} s s \rho$$
$$\mathrm{A}: \ldots$$



## **General Conditional**



Translation of if ( c ) tt else ee.



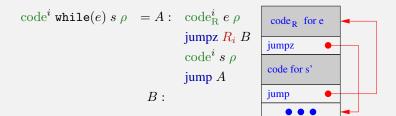
### Example for if-statement

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:

## **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:

(i)		(ii)	(4	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:

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

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

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

$$\operatorname{code}^{i} s \rho$$

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

$$\operatorname{jump} A$$

$$B$$

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



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

### **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;
}
```

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

```
code^{i} s \rho = code_{R}^{i} 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
check^{i} l u B checks if <math>l < R_{i} < u holds and jumps accordingly.
```

## Translation of the $check^i$ Macro

The macro *check<sup>i</sup>* 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:

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

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

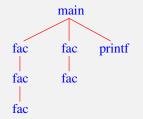
Observe:

- 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

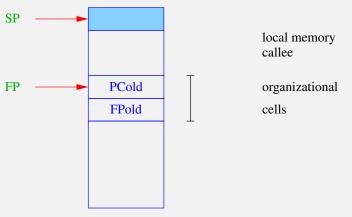
The formal parameters and the local variables of the various instances of a function must be kept separate

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



- $FP \cong$  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

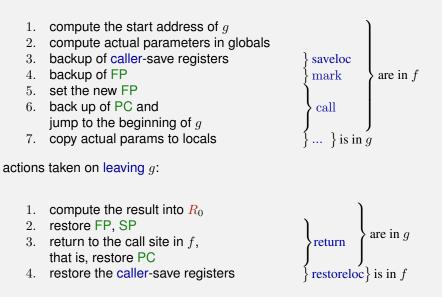
The code for managing function calls has to be split between caller and callee.

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*:



## Managing Registers during Function Calls

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

- automatic variables live in *local* registers *R<sub>i</sub>*
- intermediate results also live in *local* registers *R<sub>i</sub>*
- parameters live in *global* registers  $R_i$  (with  $i \leq 0$ )
- global variables: let's suppose there are none

convention:

- the *i* th argument of a function is passed in register  $R_{-i}$
- the result of a function is stored in R<sub>0</sub>
- local registers are saved before calling a function

#### 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<sub>i</sub>*, and *g* must restore it before returning

## Translation of Function Calls

```
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}_{\mathbf{p}}^{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
```

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:

$$\operatorname{code}^{i} \operatorname{\mathtt{return}} e \ 
ho = \operatorname{code}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} e \ 
ho$$
  
move  $R_{0} \ R_{i}$   
return

alternative without result value:

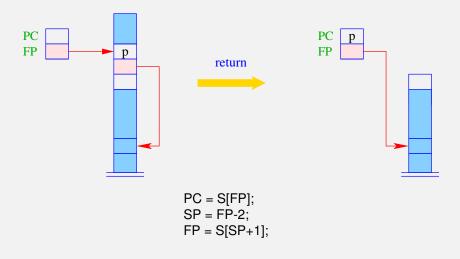
 $\operatorname{code}^i \operatorname{return} \rho = \operatorname{return}$ 

*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.



## **Translation of Functions**

The translation of a function is thus defined as follows:

```
\operatorname{code}^{1} t_{r} \mathbf{f}(args) \{ 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
```

Assumptions:

- the function has n parameters
- the local variables are stored in registers  $R_1, \ldots R_l$
- the parameters of the function are in  $R_{-1}, \ldots R_{-n}$
- $\rho'$  is obtained by extending  $\rho$  with the bindings in *decls* and the function parameters *args*
- return is not always necessary

Are the move instructions always necessary?

## **Translation of Whole Programs**

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

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

Assumptions:

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

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

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

Δ۰

#### Consider:

int fa	ac( <b>int</b> x) {	_A.					
		i = i					
<b>11</b> (>	<=0) then	i = 4					
return 1;							
else							
ret	<b>urn</b> x∗fac(x	i=3					
}							
_fac:	move $R_1 R_{-1}$	save param.					
	move $R_2 R_1$						
	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) 3 move  $R_3 R_1$  x-1 4 loadc  $R_4$  1 sub  $R_3 R_3 R_4$ 3 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