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Compilation Principle 编译原理

第4讲：语法分析(1)

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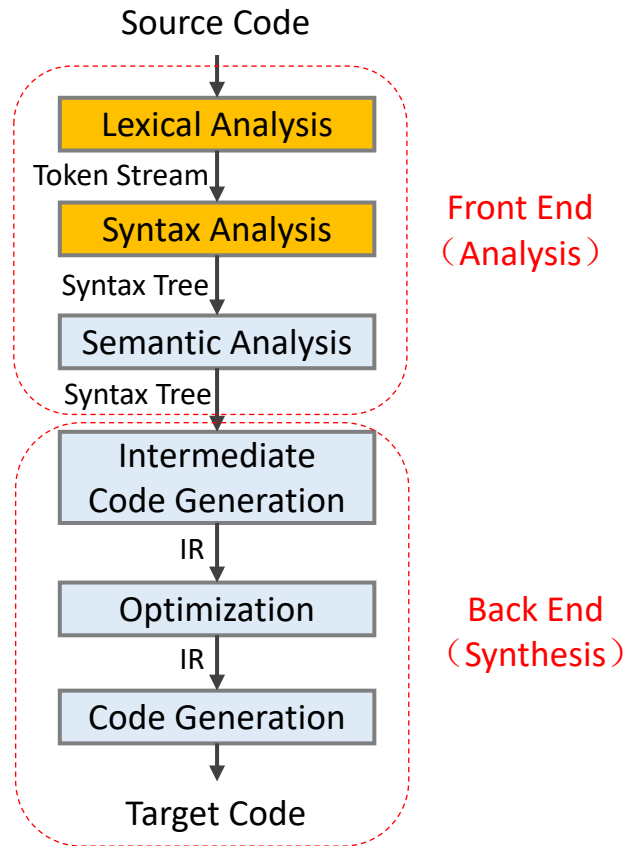
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Compilation Phases[编译阶段]



Syntax Analysis[语法分析]

- Second phase of compilation[第二阶段]
 - Also called as **parser**
- Parser obtains a string of tokens from the lexical analyzer
 - **Lexical analyzer** reads the chars of the source program, groups them into lexically meaningful units called **lexemes**
 - and produces as output **tokens** representing these lexemes
 - Token: <token name, attribute value>
 - Token names are used by parser for syntax analysis
 - tokens → parse tree/AST
- Parse tree[分析树]
 - Graphically represent the syntax structure of the token stream

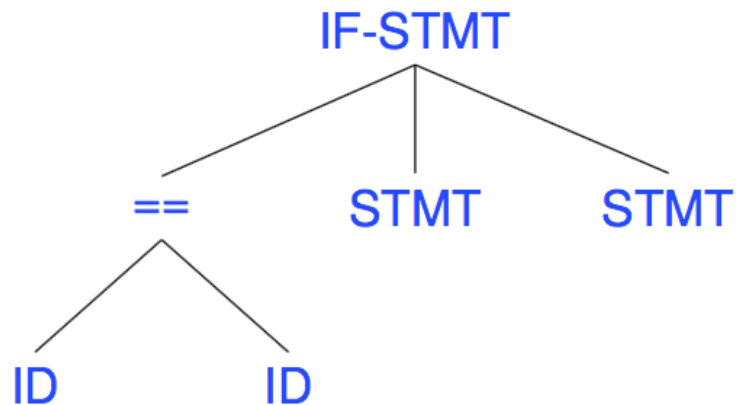
Parsing Example

- Input: `if(x==y) ... else ...`[源程序输入]

- Parser input (Lexical output)[语法分析输入]

`KEY(IF) '(' ID(x) OP('==') ID(y) ')' ... KEY(ELSE) ...`

- Parser output[语法分析输出]



Parsing Example (cont.)

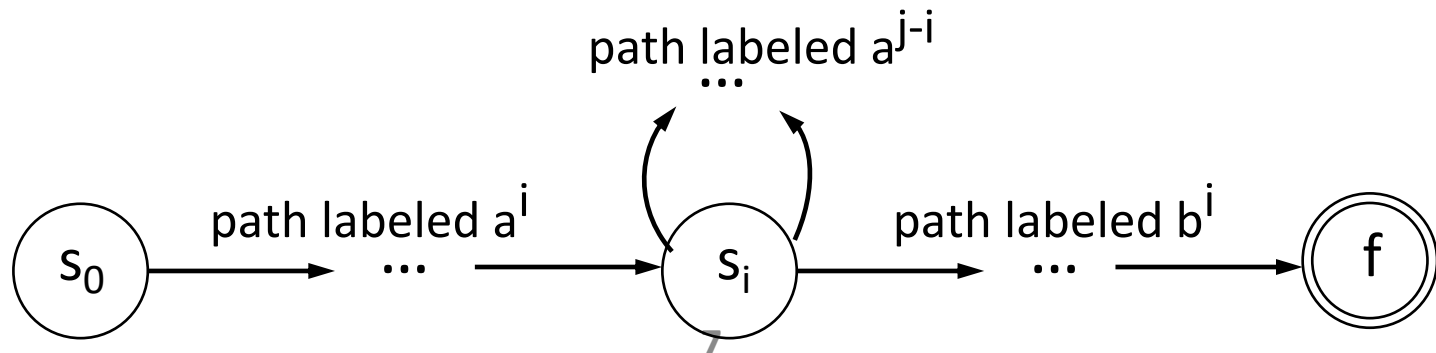
- Example: `<id, x> <op, *> <op, %>`
 - Is it a valid token stream in C language? **YES**
 - Is it a valid statement in C language (`x *% ;`)? **NO**
- Not every string of tokens are valid
 - Parser must distinguish between valid and invalid token strings
- We need a method to describe what is valid string?
 - To specify the syntax of a programming language

How to Specify Syntax?

- How can we specify a syntax with nested structures?
 - Is it possible to use RE/FA?
 - $L(\text{Regular Expression}) \equiv L(\text{Finite Automata})$
- RE/FA is **not powerful enough**
- Example: matching parenthesis: # of '(' == # of ')'
 - $(x+y)^*z$ ✓
 - $((x+y)+y)^*z$ ✓
 - $(\dots(((x+y)+y)+y)\dots)$ ✓
 - $((x+y)+y)+y)^*z$ ✗

RE/FA is NOT Powerful Enough

- $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 1\}$ is NOT a Regular Language
 - Suppose L were the language defined by regular expression
 - Then we could construct a DFD D with k states to accept L
 - Since D has only k states, for an input beginning with more than k a 's, D must enter some state twice, say s_i
 - Suppose that the path from s_i back to itself is labeled with a^{j-i}
 - Since $a^i b^i$ is in L , there must be a path labeled b^i from s_i to an accepting state f
 - But, there is also a path from s_0 through s_i to f labelled $a^j b^i$
 - Thus, D also accepts $a^j b^i$, which is not in L , contradicting the assumption that L is the language accepted by D



RE/FA is NOT Powerful Enough(cont.)

- $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 1\}$ is not a Regular Language
 - Proof \rightarrow Pumping Lemma (泵引理)
 - FA does not have any memory (FA cannot count)
 - The above L requires to keep count of a's before seeing b's
- Matching parenthesis is not a RL
- Any language with nested structure is not a RL
 - if ... if ... else ... else
- Regular Languages
 - Weakest formal languages that are widely used

What Language Do We Need?

- C-language syntax: **Context Free Language (CFL)**[上下文无关语言]
 - A broader category of languages that includes languages with nested structures
- Before discussing CFL, we need to learn a more general way of specifying languages than RE, called **Grammars**[文法]
 - Can specify both RL and CFL
 - and more ...
- Everything that can be described by a regular expression can also be described by a grammar
 - Grammars are most useful for describing nested structures

Concepts

- **Language**[语言]
 - Set of strings over alphabet
 - *String*: finite sequence of symbols
 - *Alphabet*: finite set of symbols
- **Grammar**[文法]
 - To systematically describe the syntax of programming language constructs like expressions and statements
- **Syntax**[语法]
 - Describes the proper form of the programs
 - Specified by grammar

Grammar[文法]

- Formal definition[形式化定义]: 4 components $\{T, N, s, \delta\}$
- T : set of terminal symbols[终结符]
 - Basic symbols from which strings are formed
 - Essentially tokens - leaves in the parse tree
- N : set of non-terminal symbols[非终结符]
 - Each represents a set of strings of terminals – internal nodes
 - E.g.: declaration, statement, loop, ...
- s : start symbol[开始符号]
 - One of the non-terminals
- σ : set of productions[产生式]
 - Specify the manner in which the terminals and non-terminals can be combined to form strings
 - “LHS \rightarrow RHS”: left-hand-side produces right-hand-side

Grammar (cont.)

- Usually, we can only write the σ [简写]
- Merge rules sharing the same LHS[规则合并]
 - $\alpha \rightarrow \beta_1, \alpha \rightarrow \beta_2, \dots, \alpha \rightarrow \beta_n$
 - $\alpha \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid \beta_2 \mid \dots \mid \beta_n$

$G = (\{id, +, *, (,)\}, \{E\}, E, P)$
 $P = \{ E \rightarrow E + E,$
 $E \rightarrow E * E,$
 $E \rightarrow (E),$
 $E \rightarrow id \}$

$G: E \rightarrow E + E,$
 $E \rightarrow E * E,$
 $E \rightarrow (E),$
 $E \rightarrow id \}$

$E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$

Production Rule and Derivation[推导]

- **Production rule:** $LHS \rightarrow RHS$
 - Aliases: $LHS \equiv \text{head}$, $RHS \equiv \text{body}$
 - Meaning: LHS can be constructed (or replaced) with RHS
- **Derivation:** a series of applications of production rules
 - Corresponds to the construction of a parse tree
- $\beta \Rightarrow \alpha$
 - Meaning: string α is derived from β
 - $\beta \Rightarrow \alpha$: derives one step
 - $\beta \Rightarrow^* \alpha$: derives in zero or more steps
 - $\beta \Rightarrow^+ \alpha$: derives in one or more steps
- Example: $A \Rightarrow 0A \Rightarrow 00B \Rightarrow 000$
 - $A \Rightarrow^* 000$
 - $A \Rightarrow^+ 000$

Derivation[推导]

- If $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha$, where S is the start symbol of grammar G
- α : **sentential form** of G [句型]
 - A sentential form may contain both terminals and non-terminals (and can be empty)
- α : **sentence** of G [句子]
 - A sentential form with no non-terminals
- **Language**[语言] generated by a grammar
 - $L(G) = \{w: S \Rightarrow^* w, w \in V_T^*\}$
 - A string of terminal w is in $L(G)$, **iff** w is a sentence of G (or $S \Rightarrow^* w$)

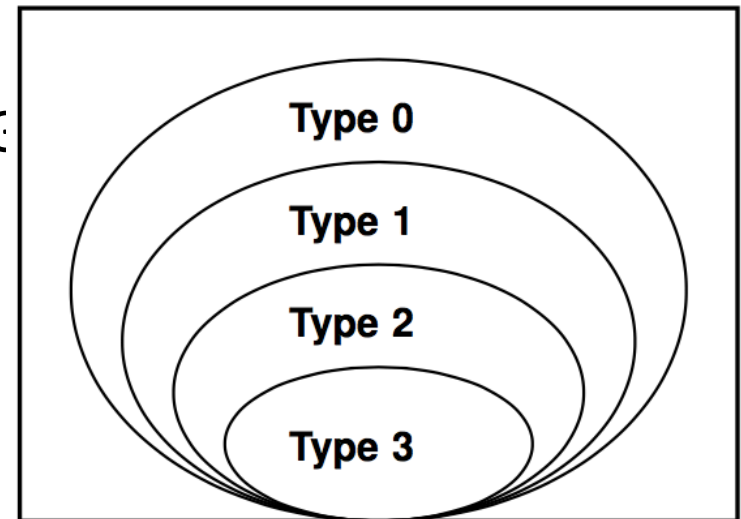
Example

- Grammar $G = \{T, N, s, \delta\}$
 - $T = \{0, 1\}$
 - $N = \{A, B\}$
 - $s = A$
 - $\delta = \{ A \rightarrow 0A \mid 1A \mid 0B, B \rightarrow 0 \}$
- Derivation: from grammar to language
 - $A \Rightarrow 0A \Rightarrow 00B \Rightarrow 000$
 - $A \Rightarrow 1A \Rightarrow 10B \Rightarrow 100$
 - $A \Rightarrow 0A \Rightarrow 00A \Rightarrow 000B \Rightarrow 0000$
 - $A \Rightarrow 0A \Rightarrow 01A \Rightarrow \dots$
 -

Language Classification: Chomsky

- **Language classification** based on form of grammar rules
- Four types of grammars:

- Type 0 — unrestricted grammar
 - 0型文法 – 无限制文法
- Type 1 — context sensitive grammar (CSG)
 - 1型文法 – 上下文有关文法
- Type 2 — context free grammar (CFG)
 - 2型文法 – 上下文无关文法
- Type 3 — regular grammar
 - 3型文法 – 正则文法



- Regular Grammar \subseteq CFG \subseteq CSG \subseteq Unrestricted Grammar

Type 0: Unrestricted Grammar

- Form of rules $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$
 - where $\alpha \in (N \cup T)^+$, $\beta \in (N \cup T)^*$
- Implied restrictions:
 - LHS: no ε allowed
- Example:
 - $aB \rightarrow aCD$: LHS is shorter than RHS
 - $aAB \rightarrow aB$: LHS is longer than RHS
 - $A \rightarrow \varepsilon$: ε -productions are allowed
- Computational complexity: unbounded
 - Derivation strings may contract and expand repeatedly (Since LHS may be longer or shorter than RHS)
 - Unbounded number of productions before target string

Type 1: Context Sensitive Grammar

- Form of rules: $\alpha A \beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$
 - where $A \in N$, $\alpha, \beta \in (N \cup T)^*$, $\gamma \in (N \cup T)^+$
- Replace A by γ only if found in the context of α and β
- Implied restrictions:
 - LHS: shorter or equal to RHS
 - RHS: no ϵ allowed
- Example:
 - $aAB \rightarrow aCB$: replace A with C when in between a and B
 - $A \rightarrow C$: replace A with C regardless of context
- Computational complexity: likely NP-Complete
 - Derivation strings may only expand
 - Bounded number of derivations before target string

Type 2: Context Free Grammar

- Form of rules: $A \rightarrow \gamma$
 - where $A \in N, \gamma \in (N \cup T)^+$
- Replace A by γ (no context can be specified)
- Implied restrictions:
 - LHS: a single non-terminal
 - RHS: no ϵ allowed
 - Sometimes relaxed to simplify grammar but rules can always be rewritten to exclude ϵ -productions
- Example:
 - $A \rightarrow aBc$: replace A with aBc regardless of context
- Computational complexity:
 - Polynomial $O(n^{2.3728639})$, but most real world CFGs are $O(n)$

Type 3: Regular Grammar

- Form of rules $A \rightarrow \alpha$, or $A \rightarrow \alpha B$
 - where $A, B \in N$, $\alpha \in T$
- In terms of FA: Move from state A to state B on input α
- Implied restrictions:
 - LHS: a single non-terminal
 - RHS: a terminal or a terminal followed by a non-terminal
- Example: $A \rightarrow 1A \mid 0$
- Computational complexity:
 - Linear $O(n)$
 - Derivation string length increases by 1 at each step

In Practice[实际中]

- Every regular language is a context-free language
- If PLs are context-sensitive, why use CFGs for parsing?
 - CSG parsers are provably inefficient
 - Most PL constructs are context-free
 - if-stmt, declarations
 - The remaining context-sensitive constructs can be analyzed at the semantic analysis stage
 - e.g. def-before-use, matching formal/actual parameters
- In PLs
 - Regular language for lexical analysis
 - Context-free language for syntax analysis

Grammar and Derivation

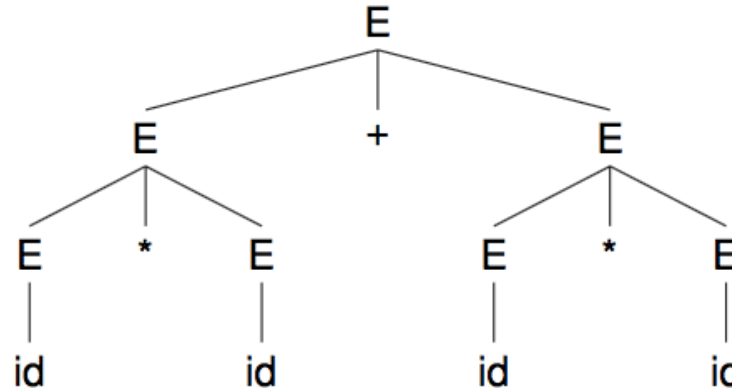
- **Grammar** is used to derive string or construct parser
- A **derivation** is a sequence of applications of rules
 - Starting from the **start symbol**
 - $S \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow$ (sentence)
- **Leftmost** and **Rightmost** derivations[最左和最右推导]
 - At each derivation step, **leftmost** derivation always replaces the leftmost non-terminal symbol
 - **Rightmost** derivation always replaces the rightmost one

Example

- Two derivations of string “id * id + id * id” using grammar:
 $E \rightarrow E * E \mid E + E \mid (E) \mid id$
- Leftmost derivation
 - $E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow E * E + E \Rightarrow id * E + E \Rightarrow id * id + E \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow id * id + id * id$
- Rightmost derivation
 - $E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow E + E * E \Rightarrow E + E * id \Rightarrow E + id * id \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow id * id + id * id$
- Derivations can be summarized as a parse tree

Parse Trees[分析树]

- Both previous derivations result in the same parse tree:



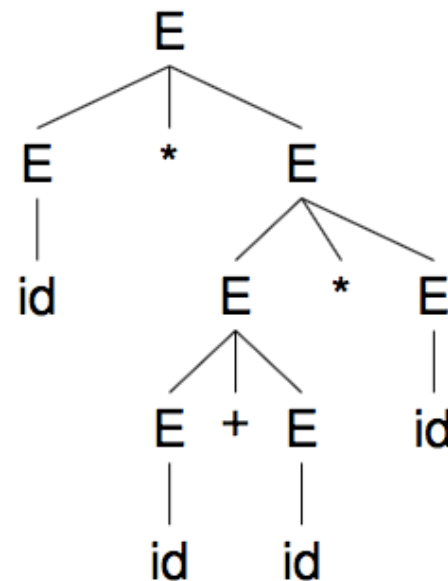
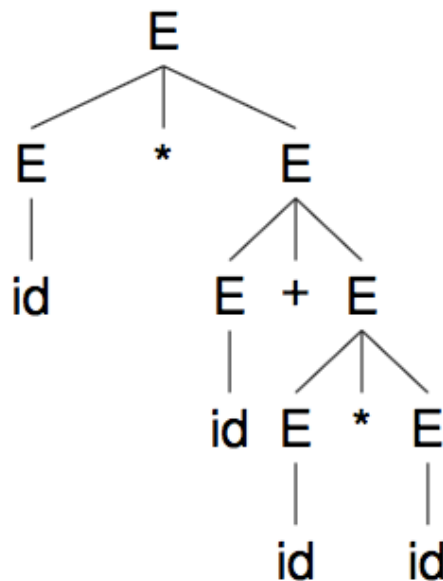
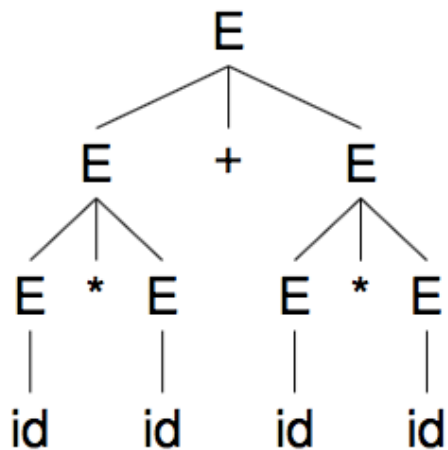
- A **parse tree** is a graphical representation of a derivation
 - But filters out the order in which productions are applied to replace non-terminals
 - Each **interior node** represents the application of a production
 - Labeled with the non-terminal in the LHS of production
 - Leaves** are labeled by terminals or non-terminals
 - Constitutes a sentential form (read from left to right)
 - Called the **yield**[产出] or **frontier**[边缘] of the tree

Parse Trees (cont.)

- Derivations and parse trees: **many-to-one** relationship
 - Leftmost derivation order: builds tree left to right
 - Rightmost derivation order: builds tree right to left
 - Different parser implementations choose different orders
 - **One-to-one** relationships between parse trees and either leftmost or rightmost derivations[最左或最右推导与分析树具有一对一对应关系]
- Program structure does not depend on order of rule application, instead it depends on what production rules are applied
 - Grammar must define **unambiguously** set of rules applied

Different Parse Trees

- Grammar $E \rightarrow E * E \mid E + E \mid (E) \mid id$ is ambiguous
 - String $id * id + id * id$ can result in 3 parse trees (and more)



- Grammar can apply different rules to derive same string
 - Meaning of parse tree 1: $(id * id) + (id * id)$
 - Meaning of parse tree 2: $id * (id + (id * id))$
 - Meaning of parse tree 3: $id * ((id + id) * id)$

Ambiguity[二义性]

- grammar G is **ambiguous** if
 - It produces **more than one parse tree** some sentence
 - i.e., there exist a string $str \in L(G)$ such that
 - more than one parse tree derives str
 - \equiv more than one leftmost derivation derives str
 - \equiv more than one rightmost derivation derives str
- Unambiguous grammars are preferred for most parsers
 - If not, we cannot uniquely determine which parse tree to select for a sentence
 - In minor cases, it is convenient to use carefully chosen ambiguous grammars, together with disambiguating rules that “throw away” undesirable parse trees, leaving only one tree for each sentence