Compilerbau

Stephan Schulz

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Scanner
Parser
AST
Semantik
Optimierung
Code-Generierung
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| Lecture 3                         |
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| Symbol Tables                     |
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| Exercise 6: Typechecking Nanolang |
| Lecture 8                         |
| Exercise 7: Basic Code Generation |
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| Exercise 8: Completing the Compiler |
Introduction

- Stephan Schulz
  - Dipl.-Inform., U. Kaiserslautern, 1995
  - Dr. rer. nat., TU München, 2000
  - Visiting professor, U. Miami, 2002
  - Visiting professor, U. West Indies, 2005
  - Visiting lecturer (Hildesheim, Offenburg, ...) since 2009
  - Industry experience: Building Air Traffic Control systems
    - System engineer, 2005
    - Project manager, 2007
    - Product Manager, 2013
  - Professor, DHBW Stuttgart, 2014

Research: Logic & Deduction
This Course in Context

- **Formal languages and automata**
  - Basic theory - languages and automata
  - General grammars
  - Abstract parsing
  - Computability

  Focus on foundations

- **Compiler construction**
  - Advanced theory - parsers and languages
  - Tools and their use
  - Writing parsers and scanners
  - Code generation and run time environment

  Focus on practical applications
Lecture time: Wednesdays, 12:30-17:00
  - Lecture (with exercises): roughly 12:30-14:45
  - Lab: roughly 14:45-17:00
  - ... but schedule will be flexible
  - Breaks as needed
  - No lecture on March 28th (Second Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Theorem Proving)

Grading:
  - Lecture Compilerbau: Written Exam, grade averaged with Formal Languages & Automata for module grade
  - Lab: Pass/Fail based on success in exercises
For practical exercises, you will need a complete Linux/UNIX environment. If you do not run one natively, there are several options:

- You can install VirtualBox (https://www.virtualbox.org) and then install e.g. Ubuntu (http://www.ubuntu.com/) on a virtual machine. Make sure to install the Guest Additions.


- For MacOS, you can install fink (http://www.finkproject.org/) or MacPorts (https://www.macports.org/) and the necessary tools.

- You will need at least flex, bison, gcc, grep, sed, AWK, make, and a good text editor.
Resources

► Course web page

► Literature
  ► Alfred V. Aho, Monica S. Lam, Ravi Sethi, Jeffrey D. Ullman: *Compilers: Principles, Techniques, and Tools*
  ► Kenneth C. Louden: *Compiler Construction - Principles and Practice*
  ► Ulrich Hedtstück: *Einführung in die theoretische Informatik*
Exercise: Programming Languages

- Name and describe several modern programming languages!
Desirable properties of high-level languages

- Expressive and flexible
  - Close to application domains
  - Good abstractions
  - Powerful constructs
  - Readable

- Compact
  - Programmer productivity depends on code length (!)

- Machine independent
  - Code should run on many platforms
  - Code should run on evolving platforms

- Strong error-checking
  - Static
  - Dynamic

- Efficiently executable
Classification Criteria

- High-level vs. low level
- Type system
  - Statically typed (C, Pascal) vs. dynamically typed (Python, LISP)
  - Strongly typed (Pascal) vs. weakly typed (C, AWK)
  - Declaration of types (C++) vs. type inference (Haskell)
- Programming paradigm
  - Imperative vs. functional vs. logical
  - Unstructured (Basic) vs. procedural (Pascal, C) vs. object-oriented (Java, C++)
- Execution style
  - Interpreted (Basic, Logo, Scheme)
  - Compiled to abstract machine (Java, Prolog)
  - Compiled to native code (C, Modula-2)

Examples are typical, not strict
- Scheme can be compiled
- C can be interpreted
- Python can be used imperatively and has functional features
- ...
Low-Level Code

- Machine code
  - Binary
  - Machine-specific
  - Operations (and operands) encoded in instruction words
  - Basic operations only
  - Manipulates finite number of registers
  - Direct access to memory locations
  - Flow control via conditional and unconditional jumps (think goto)
  - Basic data types (bytes, words)

  Directly executable by processor

- Assembly languages
  - Textual representation of machine code
  - Symbolic names for operations and operands
  - Labels for addresses (code and data)

  Direct one-to-one mapping to machine code
Exercise: Low-Level Code – Minimal C

- Predefined global variables
  - Integers R0, R1, R2, R3, R4
  - Integer array mem[MAXMEM]
  - No new variables allowed

- No parameters (or return with value) for functions

- Flow control: Only if and goto (not while, for, ...)
  - No blocks after if (only one command allowed)

- Arithmetic only between R0, R1, R2, R3, R4
  - Result must be stored in one of R0, R1, R2, R3, R4
  - Operands: Only R0, R1, R2, R3, R4 allowed (no nested sub-expressions)
  - Unary increment/decrement is ok (R0++)
  - R0, R1, R2, R3, R4 can be stored in/loaded from mem, indexed with a fixed address or one of the variables.
/* Compute sum from 0 to R0, return result in R1 */

void user_code(void)
{
    /* R0 is the input value and limit */
    R1 = 0;    /* Sum, value returned */
    R2 = 0;    /* Loop counter */
    R3 = 1;    /* For increments */

    loop:
        if (R2 > R0)
            goto end;
        R1 = R1+R2;
        R2 = R2+R3;
        goto loop;
    end:
        return;
}
Exercise: Low-Level Code

- Write (in Minimal C) the following functions:
  - A program computing the factorial of R0
  - A program computing the Fibonacci-number of R0 iteratively
  - A program computing the Fibonacci-number of R0 recursively
- You can find a frame for your code at the course web page, [http://wwwlehere.dhbw-stuttgart.de/~sschulz/cb2018.html](http://wwwlehere.dhbw-stuttgart.de/~sschulz/cb2018.html)
Surprise!

Computers don't execute high-level languages (directly)!
Execution of high-level programs

Compiled languages

Program \rightarrow Compiler \rightarrow Executable

Interpreted languages

Program \rightarrow Interpreter \rightarrow Results
Compilers translate high-level languages into low-level code!
Most computer languages are mostly context-free

- Regular understory: vocabulary
  - Keywords, operators, identifiers
  - Described by regular expressions or regular grammar
  - Handled by (generated or hand-written) scanner/tokenizer/lexer

- Context-free: program structure
  - Matching parenthesis, block structure, algebraic expressions, . . .
  - Described by context-free grammar
  - Handled by (generated or hand-written) parser

- Context-sensitive: e.g. declarations
  - Described by human-readable constraints
  - Handled in an ad-hoc fashion (e.g. symbol table)
High-Level Architecture of a Compiler

Source handler

Sequence of characters:
i, n, t, =, a, b, ;, a =, b, +, 1, ;

Lexical analysis (tokenizer)

Sequence of tokens:
(id, "int"), (id, "a"), (id, "b"), (semicolon), (id, "a"), (eq), (id, "b"), (plus), (int, "1"), (semicolon)

Syntactic analysis (parser)

e.g. Abstract syntax tree

Semantic analysis

e.g. AST+symbol table

Code generation (several optimisation passes)

e.g. assembler code

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ld a, b
ld c, 1
add c
...
Source Handler

- Handles input files
- Provides character-by-character access
- May maintain file/line/column (for error messages)
- May provide look-ahead
- May provide preprocessing (e.g. include)

**Result:** Sequence of characters (with positions)

- Nowadays often integrated with scanner
Lexical Analysis/Scanning

- Breaks program into token
- Typical tokens:
  - Reserved word (if, while)
  - Identifier (i, counter, database)
  - Numbers (12, 0x23, 1.2e17)
  - Symbols ({}, (), +, -,...)

Result: Sequence of tokens
Exercise: Lexical Analysis

```c
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
{
    R0 = 0;
    R1 = 0;
    R2 = 0;
    R3 = 1;
    R4 = 1;
    for (int i = 0; i < MAXMEM; i++)
    {
        mem[i] = 0;
    }

    user_code();

    return 0;
}
```
Automatisation with Flex

**Sequence of characters:**
i, n, t, →, a, , , b, , ;, a, =, b, +, 1, ;

**Sequence of tokens:**
(id, "int"), (id, "a"), (id, "b"), (semicolon), (id, "a"), (eq), (id, "b"), (plus), (int, "1"), (semicolon)

**Example:**
```
ld a, b
ld c, 1
add c
...
```

**Source handler**
Lexical analysis (tokeniser)
Syntactic analysis (parser)
Semantic analysis
code generation (several optimisation passes)
e.g. assembler code

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Syntactical Analysis/Parsing

- Description of the language with a context-free grammar
- Parsing:
  - Try to build a parse tree/abstract syntax tree (AST)
  - Parse tree unambiguously describes structure of a program
  - AST reflects abstract syntax (can e.g. drop parenthesis)
- Methods:
  - Manual recursive descent parser
  - Automatic with a table-driven bottom-up parser

**Result:** Abstract Syntax Tree
Automatisation with Bison

**Flex**

- **Source handler**
- **Lexical analysis (tokeniser)**
  - Sequence of characters: `i,n,t, ←, a,,, b, ;, a, =, b, +, 1, ;`
  - Sequence of tokens: `(id, "int"), (id, "a"), (id, "b"), (semicolon), (id, "a"), (eq), (id, "b"), (plus), (int, "1"), (semicolon)`

**Bison**

- **Syntactic analysis (parser)**
  - e.g. Abstract syntax tree
- **Semantic analysis**
  - e.g. AST+symbol table
- **Code generation (several optimisation passes)**
  - e.g. assembler code

**Variable Type**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example Code**

```assembly
ld a, b
ld c, 1
add c
...```

**Example Diagram**

- Abstract syntax tree
- Symbol table
- Assembler code
Semantic Analysis

- Analyze static properties of the program
  - Which variable has which type?
  - Are all expressions well-typed?
  - Which names are defined?
  - Which names are referenced?

- Core tool: Symbol table

**Result:** Annotated AST
Optimization

- Transform Abstract Syntax Tree to generate better code
  - Smaller
  - Faster
  - Both
- Mechanisms
  - Common sub-expression elimination
  - Loop unrolling
  - Dead code/data elimination
  - ...

Result: Optimized AST
Code Generation

- Convert optimized AST into low-level code
- Target languages:
  - Assembly code
  - Machine code
  - VM code (z.B. JAVA byte-code, p-Code)
  - C (as a “portable assembler”)
  - ...
- Also includes low-level/target-language dependent optimizations

**Result:** Program in target language
Refresher: Flex
Flex Overview

- **Flex** is a scanner generator
- **Input**: Specification of a regular language and what to do with it
  - Definitions - named regular expressions
  - Rules - patterns + actions
  - (miscellaneous support code)
- **Output**: Source code of **scanner**
  - Scans input for patterns
  - Executes associated actions
  - Default action: Copy input to output
  - Interface for higher-level processing: `yylex()` function
Flex Overview

Development time

Definitions
Rules
Miscellaneous code

flex+gcc

Execution time

Input

scanner

Tokenized/processed output
Flex Example Task

- (Artificial) goal: Sum up all numbers in a file, separately for ints and floats
- Given: A file with numbers and commands
  - Ints: Non-empty sequences of digits
  - Floats: Non-empty sequences of digits, followed by decimal dot, followed by (potentially empty) sequence of digits
  - Command `print`: Print current sums
  - Command `reset`: Reset sums to 0.
- At end of file, print sums
Flex Example Output

**Input**

12 3.1415
0.33333
print reset
2 11
1.5 2.5 print
1
print 1.0

**Output**

int: 12 ("12")
float: 3.141500 ("3.1415")
float: 0.333330 ("0.33333")
Current: 12 : 3.474830
Reset
int: 2 ("2")
int: 11 ("11")
float: 1.500000 ("1.5")
float: 2.500000 ("2.5")
Current: 13 : 4.000000
int: 1 ("1")
Current: 14 : 4.000000
float: 1.000000 ("1.0")
Final 14 : 5.000000
Basic Structure of Flex Files

- Flex files have 3 sections:
  - Definitions
  - Rules
  - User Code
- Sections are separated by `%%`
- Flex files traditionally use the suffix `.l`
%option noyywrap

DIGIT [0-9]

%
 int intval = 0;
 double floatval = 0.0;
%

%%
Example Code (rule section)

```
{DIGIT}+    {        
    printf( "int: %d ("%s")\n", atoi(yytext), yytext );
    intval += atoi(yytext);
}

{DIGIT}+."{DIGIT}*    {        
    printf( "float: %f ("%s")\n", atof(yytext),yytext );
    floatval += atof(yytext);
}

reset {        
    intval = 0;
    floatval = 0;
    printf("Reset\n");
}

print {        
    printf("Current: %d : %f\n", intval, floatval);
}

\n|. {        
    /* Skip */
}
```
Example Code (user code section)

```c
int main( int argc, char **argv )
{
    ++argv, --argc; /* skip over program name */
    if ( argc > 0 )
        yyin = fopen( argv[0], "r" );
    else
        yyin = stdin;

    yylex();

    printf("Final %d : %f\n", intval, floatval);
}
```
Generating a scanner

> flex -t numbers.l > numbers.c
> gcc -c -o numbers.o numbers.c
> gcc numbers.o -o scan_numbers
> ./scan_numbers Numbers.txt

int:  12 ("12")
float: 3.141500 ("3.1415")
float: 0.333330 ("0.33333")
Current: 12 : 3.474830
Reset
int:   2 ("2")
int:  11 ("11")
float: 1.500000 ("1.5")
float: 2.500000 ("2.5")
...
Flexing in detail

> flex -tv numbers.l > numbers.c

scanner options: -tvI8 -Cem

37/2000 NFA states

18/1000 DFA states (50 words)

5 rules

Compressed tables always back-up

1/40 start conditions

20 epsilon states, 11 double epsilon states

6/100 character classes needed 31/500 words of storage, 0 reused

36 state/nextstate pairs created

24/12 unique/duplicate transitions

...
Exercise: Building a Scanner

- Download the `flex` example and input from http://www.lehre.dhbw-stuttgart.de/~sschulz/cb2018.html
- Build and execute the program:
  - Generate the scanner with `flex`
  - Compile/link the C code with `gcc`
  - Execute the resulting program in the input file
Definition Section

- Can contain `flex` options
- Can contain (C) initialization code
  - Typically `#include()` directives
  - Global variable definitions
  - Macros and type definitions
  - Initialization code is embedded in `%{` and `%}`
- Can contain definitions of regular expressions
  - Format: `NAME RE`
  - Defined NAMES can be referenced later
%%option noyywrap

DIGIT     [0-9]

{%
    int    intval   = 0;
    double floatval = 0.0;
%

%%
This is the core of the scanner!

Rules have the form PATTERN ACTION

Patterns are regular expressions
  - Typically use previous definitions

THERE IS WHITE SPACE BETWEEN PATTERN AND ACTION!

Actions are C code
  - Can be embedded in { and }
  - Can be simple C statements
  - For a token-by-token scanner, must include return statement
  - Inside the action, the variable yytext contains the text matched by the pattern
  - Otherwise: Full input file is processed
Example Code (rule section) (revisited)

```c
{DIGIT}+ { 
    printf("int: %d ("%s")\n", atoi(yytext), yytext );
    intval += atoi(yytext);
}

{DIGIT}+"."{DIGIT}* { 
    printf("float: %f ("%s")\n", atof(yytext),yytext );
    floatval += atof(yytext);
}

reset { 
    intval = 0;
    floatval = 0;
    printf("Reset\n");
}

print { 
    printf("Current: %d : %f\n", intval, floatval);
}

\n|. { 
    /* Skip */
}
```
User code section

- Can contain all kinds of code
- For stand-alone scanner: must include `main()`
- In `main()`, the function `yylex()` will invoke the scanner
- `yylex()` will read data from the file pointer `yyin` (so `main()` must set it up reasonably)
int main( int argc, char **argv )
{
    ++argv, --argc; /* skip over program name */
    if ( argc > 0 )
        yyin = fopen( argv[0], "r" );
    else
        yyin = stdin;

    yylex();

    printf("Final  %d : %f\n", intval, floatval);
}
A comment on comments

- Comments in Flex are complicated
  - ... because nearly everything can be a pattern

- Simple rules:
  - Use old-style C comments
    - /* This is a comment */
  - Never start them in the first column
  - Comments are copied into the generated code
  - Read the manual if you want the dirty details
Flex Miscellany

Flex online:
  - https://github.com/westes/flex
  - REs: https://westes.github.io/flex/manual/Patterns.html

make knows flex
  - Make will automatically generate file.o from file.l
  - Be sure to set LEX=flex to enable flex extensions
  - Makefile example:

```
LEX=flex
all: scan_numbers
numbers.o: numbers.l

scan_numbers: numbers.o
  gcc numbers.o -o scan_numbers
```
Parsing mit Bison
YACC/Bison

- Yacc - Yet Another Compiler Compiler
  - Originally written ≈1971 by Stephen C. Johnson at AT&T
  - LALR parser generator
  - Translates grammar into syntax analyzer

- GNU Bison
  - Written by Robert Corbett in 1988
  - Yacc-compatibility by Richard Stallman
  - Output languages now C, C++, Java
  - Yacc, Bison, BYacc, ... mostly compatible (POSIX P1003.2)
Yacc/Bison Background

- By default, Bison constructs a 1 token Look-Ahead Left-to-right Rightmost-derivation or LALR(1) parser
  - Input tokens are processed left-to-right
  - Shift-reduce parser:
    - Stack holds tokens (terminals) and non-terminals
    - Tokens are shifted from input to stack. If the top of the stack contains symbols that represent the right hand side (RHS) of a grammar rule, the content is reduced to the LHS
    - Since input is reduced left-to-right, this corresponds to a rightmost derivation
    - Ambiguities are solved via look-ahead and special rules
    - If input can be reduced to start symbol, success!
    - Error otherwise

- LALR(1) is efficient in time and memory
  - Can parse “all reasonable languages”
  - For unreasonable languages, Bison (but not Yacc) can also construct GLR (General LR) parsers
    - Try all possibilities with back-tracking
    - Corresponds to the non-determinism of stack machines
Yacc/Bison Overview

- Bison reads a specification file and converts it into (C) code of a parser
- Specification file: Definitions, grammar rules with actions, support code
  - Definitions: Token names, associated values, includes, declarations
  - Grammar rules: Non-terminal with alternatives, action associated with each alternative
  - Support code: e.g. `main()` function, error handling...
  - Syntax similar to (F)lex
    - Sections separated by `%%`
    - Special commands start with `%`
- Bison generates function `yyparse()`
- Bison needs function `yylex()`
  - Usually provided via (F)lex
Yacc/Bison workflow

Development time
- Bison Input File: `<file>.y`
- Definitions file: `<file>.tab.h`
- Parser Source: `<file>.tab.c`
- Flex Input file: `<file>.l`
- Lexer Source: `<file>.c`
- Lexer object: `<file>.o`
- Parser object: `<file>.tab.o`

Bison

Flex

#include

Flex

lexer

Parser Source

gcc

gcc

linker (gcc)

Final executable

Some input to process

Some output produced
Example task: Desk calculator

- Desk calculator
  - Reads algebraic expressions and assignments
  - Prints result of expressions
  - Can store values in registers R0-R99

- Example session:

  [Shell] ./scicalc
  R10=3*(5+4)
  > RegVal: 27.000000
  (3.1415*R10+3)
  > 87.820500
  R9=(3.1415*R10+3)
  > RegVal: 87.820500
  R9+R10
  > 114.820500
  ...

...
Abstract grammar for desk calculator (partial)

\[ G_{DC} = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle \]

- **P:**
  - \text{stmt} \rightarrow \text{assign}
    - \text{expr}
  - \text{assign} \rightarrow \text{REGISTER ASSIGN expr}
  - \text{expr} \rightarrow \text{expr PLUS term}
    - \text{term}
  - \text{term} \rightarrow \text{term MULT factor}
    - \text{factor}
  - \text{factor} \rightarrow \text{REGISTER}
    - \text{FLOAT}
    - \text{OPENPAR expr CLOSEPAR}

- **S:** *handwave*
  - For a single statement, \( S = \text{stmt} \)
  - In practice, we need to handle sequences of statements and empty input lines (not reflected in the grammar)
Example string: \( R10 = (4.5 + 3*7) \)
Tokenized: `REGISTER ASSIGN OPENPAR FLOAT PLUS FLOAT MULT FLOAT CLOSEPAR`

In the following abbreviated `R, A, O, F, P, F, M, F, C`

Parsing state:
- Unread input (left column)
- Current stack (middle column, top element on right)
- How state was reached (right column)

Parsing:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Stack</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R A O F P F M F C</td>
<td>Start</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A O F P F M F C</td>
<td>Shift R to stack</td>
<td>LA: Shift A to stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O F P F M F C</td>
<td>Shift O to stack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F P F M F C</td>
<td>Shift F to stack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P F M F C</td>
<td>Reduce F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P F M F C</td>
<td>Reduce factor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P F M F C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Parsing statements (2)

Start
Shift R to stack
LA: Shift A to stack
Shift O to stack
Shift F to stack
Reduce F
Reduce factor
LA: Reduce term
Shift P
Shift F
Reduce F
Reduce factor
LA: Shift M
Shift F
Reduce F
Reduce tMf
Reduce ePt
Reduce C
Shift C
Reduce OeC
Reduce factor
Reduce term
Reduce RAe
Lexer interface

- Bison parser requires `yylex()` function
- `yylex()` returns token
  - Token text is defined by regular expression pattern
  - Tokens are encoded as integers
  - Symbolic names for tokens are defined by Bison in generated header file
    - By convention: Token names are all CAPITALS
- `yylex()` provides optional semantic value of token
  - Stored in global variable `yylval`
  - Type of `yylval` defined by Bison in generated header file
    - Default is `int`
    - For more complex situations often a union
    - For our example: Union of double (for floating point values) and integer (for register numbers)
/*
   Lexer for a minimal "scientific" calculator.

   Copyright 2014 by Stephan Schulz, schulz@eprover.org.

   This code is released under the GNU General Public Licence
   Version 2.

*/

%option noyywrap

{%
    #include "scicalcparse.tab.h"
%
}
Lexer for desk calculator (2)

DIGIT [0-9]
INT {DIGIT}+
PLAINFLOAT {INT}|{INT}[.]{INT}|{INT}[.]{INT}|{INT}[.]{INT}
EXP [eE](\+|-){INT}
NUMBER {PLAINFLOAT}{EXP}? 
REG R{DIGIT}{DIGIT}? 

%%

"*" {return MULT;}
"+" {return PLUS;}
"=" {return ASSIGN;}
"(" {return OPENPAR;}
")" {return CLOSEPAR;}
\n {return NEWLINE;}
Lexer for desk calculator (3)

```c
{REG} {
    yylval.regno = atoi(yytext+1);
    return REGISTER;
}

{NUMBER} {
    yylval.val = atof(yytext);
    return FLOAT;
}

[ ] { /* Skip whitespace*/ } }

/* Everything else is an invalid character. */
. { return ERROR;}

%%
```
Desk calculator has simple state
  100 floating point registers
  R0-R99

Represented in C as array of doubles:

```c
#define MAXREGS 100

double regfile[MAXREGS];
```

Needs to be initialized in support code!
%{
#include <stdio.h>

#define MAXREGS 100

double regfile[MAXREGS];

extern int yyerror(char* err);
extern int yylex(void);
%
%

%union {
    double val;
    int regno;
}

Bison code for desk calculator: Tokens

%start stmtseq

%left PLUS
%left MULT
%token ASSIGN
%token OPENPAR
%token CLOSEPAR
%token NEWLINE
%token REGISTER
%token FLOAT
%token ERROR

%%
Actions in Bison

- Bison is based on syntax rules with associated actions
  - Whenever a `reduce` is performed, the action associated with the rule is executed
- Actions can be arbitrary C code
- Frequent: semantic actions
  - The action sets a semantic value based on the semantic value of the symbols reduced by the rule
  - For terminal symbols: Semantic value is `yy1val` from Flex
  - Semantic actions have “historically valuable” syntax
    - Value of reduced symbol: `$$`
    - Value of first symbol in syntax rule body: `$1`
    - Value of second symbol in syntax rule body: `$2`
    - ... 
    - Access to named components: `$<val>1`
Bison code for desk calculator: Grammar (1)

stmtseq: /* Empty */
  | NEWLINE stmtseq {}  
  | stmt  NEWLINE stmtseq {}
  | error NEWLINE stmtseq {};  /* After an error, 
                           start afresh */

- Head: sequence of statements
- First body line: Skip empty lines
- Second body line: separate current statement from rest
- Third body line: After parse error, start again with new line
Bison code for desk calculator: Grammar (2)

stmt: assign {printf("> RegVal: %f\n", $<val>1);} |
expr {printf("> %f\n", $<val>1);};

assign: REGISTER ASSIGN expr {regfile[$<regno>1] = $<val>3; $<val>$ = $<val>3;};

expr: expr PLUS term {$<val>$ = $<val>1 + $<val>3;}
    | term {$<val>$ = $<val>1;};

term: term MULT factor {$<val>$ = $<val>1 * $<val>3;}
    | factor {$<val>$ = $<val>1;};

factor: REGISTER {$<val>$ = regfile[$<regno>1];}
    | FLOAT {$<val>$ = $<val>1;}
    | OPENPAR expr CLOSEPAR {$<val>$ = $<val>2;};
int yyerror(char* err)
{
    printf("Error: %s\n", err);
    return 0;
}

int main (int argc, char* argv[])
{
    int i;

    for(i=0; i<MAXREGS; i++)
    {
        regfile[i] = 0.0;
    }
    return yyparse();
}
Reminder: Workflow and dependencies

Bison Input File
<file>.y

Definitions file
<file>.tab.h

Parser Source
<file>.tab.c

Flex Input file
<file>.l

Flex

Lexicon Source
<file>.c

lexer

gcc

lexer object
<file>.o

gcc

Parser object
<file>.tab.o

linker (gcc)

Some input to process

Final executable parser

Some output produced
Building the calculator

1. Generate parser C code and include file for lexer
   ▶ bison -d scicalcparse.y
   ▶ Generates scicalcparse.tab.c and scicalcparse.tab.h

2. Generate lexer C code
   ▶ flex -t scicalclex.l > scicalclex.c

3. Compile lexer
   ▶ gcc -c -o scicalclex.o scicalclex.c

4. Compile parser and support code
   ▶ gcc -c -o scicalcparse.tab.o scicalcparse.tab.c

5. Link everything
   ▶ gcc scicalclex.o scicalcparse.tab.o -o scicalc

6. Fun!
   ▶ ./scicalc
Refresher: Grammars
Formal grammars describe formal languages!

- Derivative approach
  - A grammar has a set of rules
  - Rules replace words with words
  - A word that can be derived from a special start symbol is in the language of the grammar

In the concrete case of programming languages, “Words of the language” are syntactically correct programs!
Grammars: Examples

\[ S \rightarrow aA, \quad A \rightarrow bB, \quad B \rightarrow \varepsilon \]
generates \(ab\) (starting from \(S\)): \(S \rightarrow aA \rightarrow abB \rightarrow ab\)

\(S \rightarrow \varepsilon, \quad S \rightarrow aSb\)
generates \(a^n b^n\)
Noam Chomsky defined a grammar as a quadruple

\[ G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle \]  

(1)

with

1. the set of non-terminal symbols \( V_N \),
2. the set of terminal symbols \( V_T \),
3. the set of production rules \( P \) of the form
   \[ \alpha \rightarrow \beta \]  
   \[ (2) \]
   with \( \alpha \in V^* V_N V^*, \beta \in V^* \), \( V = V_N \cup V_T \)
4. the distinguished start symbol \( S \in V_N \).
For the sake of simplicity, we will be using the short form

\[ \alpha \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid \cdots \mid \beta_n \quad \text{instead of} \quad \alpha \rightarrow \beta_1 \\
\vdots \|
\alpha \rightarrow \beta_n \]
Example: C identifiers

We want to define a grammar

\[ G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle \]  \hspace{1cm} (4)

to describe identifiers of the C programming language:

- alpha-numeric words
- which must not start with a digit
- and may contain an underscore (\_) 

\[ V_N = \{ I, R, L, D \} \) (identifier, rest, letter, digit), \]
\[ V_T = \{ a, \ldots, z, A, \ldots, Z, 0, \ldots, 9, \_ \} , \]
\[ P = \{ \]
\[ I \rightarrow LR|_R|L|\_ \]
\[ R \rightarrow LR|DR|_R|L|D|\_ \]
\[ L \rightarrow a|\ldots|z|A|\ldots|Z \]
\[ D \rightarrow 0|\ldots|9 \}

\[ S = I . \]
Formal grammars: derivation

**Derivation**: description of operation of grammars

Given the grammar

\[ G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle, \]  

(5)

we define the relation

\[ x \Rightarrow_G y \]  

(6)

iff \( \exists u, v, p, q \in V^* : (x = upv) \land (p \rightarrow q \in P) \land (y = uqv) \)  

(7)

pronounced as “\( G \) derives \( y \) from \( x \) in one step”.

We also define the relation

\[ x \Rightarrow^*_G y \]  

iff \( \exists w_0, \ldots, w_n \) with \( w_0 = x, w_n = y, w_{i-1} \Rightarrow_G w_i \) for \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \)

(8)

pronounced as “\( G \) derives \( y \) from \( x \) (in zero or more steps)”.
Formal grammars: derivation example I

\[ G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle \]  \hspace{1cm} (9)

with

1. \( V_N = \{ S \} \),
2. \( V_T = \{ 0 \} \),
3. \( P = \{ S \rightarrow 0S, \ S \rightarrow 0 \} \),
4. \( S = S \).

Derivations of \( G \) have the general form

\[ S \Rightarrow 0S \Rightarrow 00S \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow 0^{n-1}S \Rightarrow 0^n \] \hspace{1cm} (10)

Thus, the language produced by \( G \) (or the language of \( G \)) is

\[ L(G) = \{ 0^n | n \in \mathbb{N}; n > 0 \} \]. \hspace{1cm} (11)
Formal grammars: derivation example II

\[ G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle \] (12)

with

1. \( V_N = \{S\} \),
2. \( V_T = \{0, 1\} \),
3. \( P = \{ S \rightarrow 0S1, \quad S \rightarrow 01 \} \),
4. \( S = S \).

Derivations of \( G \) have the general form

\[ S \Rightarrow 0S1 \Rightarrow 00S11 \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow 0^{n-1}S1^{n-1} \Rightarrow 0^n1^n. \] (13)

The language of \( G \) is

\[ L(G) = \{0^n1^n | n \in \mathbb{N}; n > 0 \}. \] (14)

Reminder: \( L(G) \) is not regular!
The Chomsky hierarchy (0)

Definition (Grammar of type 0)

Every Chomsky grammar $G = (N, \Sigma, P, S)$ is of Type 0 or unrestricted.
The Chomsky hierarchy (1)

Definition (context-sensitive grammar)

A grammar \( G = (N, \Sigma, P, S) \) is of is Type 1 (context-sensitive) if all productions are of the form

\[
\alpha_1 A \alpha_2 \to \alpha_1 \beta \alpha_2 \quad \text{with} \quad A \in N; \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in V^*; \beta \in VV^*
\]

where \( V = N \cup \Sigma \).

Exception: the rule \( S \to \varepsilon \) is allowed if \( S \) does not appear on the right-hand side of any rule

- The context must not be modified.
- Rules never derive shorter words
  - except for the empty word in the first step
- In fact, every grammar without contracting rules (monotonic grammar) can be rewritten as a context-sensitive grammar.
The Chomsky hierarchy (2)

**Definition (context-free grammar)**

A grammar \( G = (N, \Sigma, P, S) \) is of is Type 2 (context-free) if all productions are of the form

\[
A \to \beta \text{ with } A \in N; \beta \in V^*
\]

- Only single non-terminals are replaced
  - independent of their context
- Contracting rules are **allowed**!
  - context-free grammars are **not** a subset of context-sensitive grammars
  - but: context-free languages are a subset of context-sensitive languages
  - reason: contracting rules can be removed from context-free grammars, but not from context-sensitive ones
A grammar $G = (N, \Sigma, P, S)$ is of Type 3 (right-linear or regular) if all productions are of the form

$$A \rightarrow aB$$

with $A \in N$; $B \in N \cup \{\epsilon\}$; $a \in \Sigma \cup \{\epsilon\}$

- only one NTS on the left
- on the right: one TS, one NTS (in that order), both, or neither
- analogy with automata is obvious
A language is called

\textit{recursively enumerable, context-sensitive, context-free, or regular},

if it can be generated by a

\textit{unrestricted, context-sensitive, context-free, or regular}

grammar, respectively.
The Chomsky Hierarchy for Languages

- Type 0 (recursively enumerable)
- Type 1 (context-sensitive)
- Type 2 (context-free)
- Type 3 (regular)

(all languages)
The Chomsky Hierarchy for Grammars

Type 0
(unrestricted)

Type 1
(context-sensitive)

Type 2
(context-free)

Type 3
(right linear)
The Chomsky hierarchy: exercises

\[ G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle \] (15)

with

1. \( V_N = \{ S, A, B \} \),
2. \( V_T = \{ 0 \} \),
3. \( P : \)
   \[
   \begin{align*}
   S & \rightarrow \varepsilon \quad 1 \\
   S & \rightarrow ABA \quad 2 \\
   AB & \rightarrow 00 \quad 3 \\
   0A & \rightarrow 000A \quad 4 \\
   A & \rightarrow 0 \quad 5 
   \end{align*}
   \]
4. \( S = S \).

a) What is \( G \)'s highest type?
b) Show how \( G \) derives the word 000000.
c) Formally describe the language \( L(G) \).
d) Define a regular grammar \( G' \) equivalent to \( G \).
An **octal constant** is a finite sequence of digits starting with 0 followed by at least one digit ranging from 0 to 7. Define a regular grammar encoding exactly the set of possible octal constants.
Context-free grammars

- Reminder: $G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle$ is context-free, if all $l \to r \in P$ are of the form $A \to \beta$ with
  - $A \in V_N$ and $\beta \in V^*$
- Context-free languages/grammars are highly relevant
  - Core of most programming languages
  - Algebraic expressions
  - XML
  - Many aspects of human language
Most programming languages are described by context-free grammars (with extra “semantic” constraints)

Grammars generate languages

PDAs and e.g. CYK-Parsing recognize words

For compiler we need to . . .

- identify correct programs
- and understand their structure!
Lexing and Parsing

- **Lexer**: Breaks programs into tokens/lexemes
  - Smallest parts with semantic meaning
    - Strictly: Lexeme is the text, token is the type
    - ... but few people are strict!
  - Can be recognized by regular languages/patterns
  - Example: 1, 2, 5 are all Integers
  - Example: i, handle, stream are all Identifiers
  - Example: >, >=, * are all individual operators

- **Parser**: Recognizes program structure
  - Language described by a grammar that has token types as terminals, not individual characters
  - Parser builds *parse tree*
Introduction: nanoLang
Our first language: **nanoLang**

- Simple but Turing-complete language
- Block-structured
  - Functions with parameters
  - Blocks of statements with local variables
- Syntax “C-like” but simplified
  - Basic flow control (if, while, return)
- Simple static type system
  - Integers (64 bit signed)
  - Strings (immutable)
nanoLang “Hello World”

# The first ever nanoLang program

integer main()
{
    print "Hello World\n";
    return 0;
}
More Substantial *nanoLang* Example

```nanoLang
Integer hello(Integer repeat, String message)
{
    Integer i;
    i = 0;
    while (i < repeat)
    {
        print message;
        i = i + 1;
    }
    return 0;
}

Integer main()
{
    hello(10, "Hello \n");
    return 0;
}
```
Reserved words:
  - if, while, return, print, else, Integer, String
Comments: # to the end of the line
Variable length tokens:
  - Identifier (letter, followed by letters and digits)
  - Strings (enclosed in double quotes ("This is a string")
  - Integer numbers (non-empty sequences of digits)
Other tokens:
  - Brackets: (, ), {, }
  - Operators: +, -, *, /
  - Comparison operators: >, >=, <, <=, !=
  - Equal sign = (used for comparison and assignments!)
  - Separators: , , ;
nanoLang Program Structure

- A nanoLang program consists of a number of definitions
  - Definitions can define global variables or functions
  - All symbols defined in the global scope are visible everywhere in the global scope
- Functions accept arguments and return values
  - Functions consist of a header and a statement blocks
  - Local variables can be defined in statement blocks
- Statements:
  - `if` and `if/else`: Conditional execution
  - `while`: Structured loops
  - `return`: Return value from function
  - `print`: Print value to Screen
  - Assignment: Set variables to values
  - Function calls (return value ignored)
- Expressions:
  - Integers: Variables, numbers, `+`, `−`, `∗`, `/`
  - Booleans: Compare two values of equal type
Exercise: Fibonacci in *nanoLang*

- Write a recursive and an iterative implementation of Fibonacci numbers in *nanoLang*
nanoLang Grammar (Bison format) (0 -tokens)

%start prog

%token IDENT
%token STRINGLIT
%token INTLIT
%token INTEGER STRING
%token IF WHILE RETURN PRINT ELSE
%token EQ NEQ LT GT LEQ GEQ
%left PLUS MINUS
%left MULT DIV
%right UMINUS
%token OPENPAR CLOSEPAR
%token SEMICOLON COMA
%token OPENCURLY CLOSECURLY

%token ERROR
nanoLang Grammar (Bison format) (1)

prog: /* Nothing */
    | prog def
;

def: vardef
    | fundef
;

vardef: type idlist SEMICOLON
;

idlist: IDENT
    | idlist COMA IDENT

fundef: type IDENT OPENPAR params CLOSEPAR body
;
nanoLang Grammar (Bison format) (2)

type: STRING
    | INTEGER
;

params: /* empty */
    | paramlist
;

paramlist: param
    | paramlist COMA param
;

param: type IDENT
;

body: OPENCURLY vardefs stmts CLOSECURLY
;
nanoLang Grammar (Bison format) (3)

vardefs: /* empty */
     | vardefs vardef
;

stmts: /* empty */
     | stmts stmt
;

stmt: while_stmt
     | if_stmt
     | ret_stmt
     | print_stmt
     | assign
     | funcall_stmt
;
while_stmt: WHILE OPENPAR boolexpr CLOSEPAR body ;

if_stmt: IF OPENPAR boolexpr CLOSEPAR body |
        IF OPENPAR boolexpr CLOSEPAR body ELSE body ;

ret_stmt: RETURN expr SEMICOLON ;
print_stmt: PRINT expr SEMICOLON ;

assign: IDENT EQ expr SEMICOLON ;

funcall_stmt: funcall SEMICOLON ;

boolexpr: expr EQ expr
  | expr NEQ expr
  | expr LT expr
  | expr GT expr
  | expr LEQ expr
  | expr GEQ expr
;
expr: funcall
    | INTLIT
    | IDENT
    | STRINGLIT
    | OPENPAR expr CLOSEPAR
    | expr PLUS expr
    | expr MINUS expr
    | expr MULTI expr
    | expr DIV expr
    | MINUS expr

;
funcall: IDENT OPENPAR args CLOSEPAR
;

args: /* empty */
    | arglist
;

arglist: expr
        | arglist COMA expr
;
Assume a grammar $G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle$ with associated language $L(G)$.

Question so far: $w \in L(G)$?

I.e. $S \Rightarrow^*_G w$?

Now we are interested in the structure of words.

$a + b \cdot c + d$ should be interpreted as $(a + (b \cdot c)) + d$.

We are looking at derivations that reflect this structure.

We are looking for grammars that support such derivations (and only such derivations)
We will consider the set of well-formed expressions over $x$, $+$, $\ast$, $(, )$ as an example, i.e. the language $L(G)$ for $G$ as follows:

- $V_N = \{E\}$
- $V_T = \{(,), +, \ast, x\}$
- Start symbol is $E$
- Productions:
  1. $E \rightarrow x$
  2. $E \rightarrow (E)$
  3. $E \rightarrow E + E$
  4. $E \rightarrow E \ast E$
Derivations

Definition (Derivation)

Assume a Grammar $G$. A derivation of a word $w_n$ in $L(G)$ is a sequence $S \Rightarrow w_1 \Rightarrow \ldots \Rightarrow w_n$ where $S$ is the start symbol, and each $w_i$ is generated from its predecessor by application of a production of the grammar.

▶ Example: Consider our running example. We bold the replaced symbol. The following is a derivation of $x + x + x \cdot x$:

\[
\begin{align*}
E &
  \Rightarrow E + E \\
  \Rightarrow E + E + E \\
  \Rightarrow E + E + E \cdot E \\
  \Rightarrow x + E + E \cdot E \\
  \Rightarrow x + x + E \cdot E \\
  \Rightarrow x + x + x \cdot E \\
  \Rightarrow x + x + x \cdot x
\end{align*}
\]
## Rightmost/Leftmost Derivations

**Definition (Rightmost/leftmost derivation)**

- A derivation is called a **rightmost** derivation, if at any step it replaces the **rightmost** non-terminal in the current word.
- A derivation is called a **leftmost** derivation, if at any step it replaces the **leftmost** non-terminal in the current word.

### Examples:

- The derivation on the previous slide is neither leftmost nor rightmost.
- \[ E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow E + E + E \Rightarrow E + E + E \ast E \Rightarrow \]
  \[ E + E + E \ast x \Rightarrow E + E + x \ast x \Rightarrow E + x + x \ast x \Rightarrow x + x + x \ast x \]
  is a **rightmost derivation**.
Definition (Parse tree)

A parse tree for a derivation in a grammar $G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle$ is an ordered, labelled tree with the following properties:

- Each node is labelled with a symbol from $V_N \cup V_T$
- The root of the tree is labelled with the start symbol $S$.
- Each inner node is labelled with a single non-terminal symbol from $V_N$
- If an inner node with label $A$ has children labelled with symbols $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$, then there is a production $A \rightarrow \alpha_1 \ldots \alpha_n$ in $P$.

- The parse tree represents a derivation of the word formed by the labels of the leaf nodes
- It abstracts from the order in which productions are applied.
Consider the following derivation:

\[ E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow E + E + E \Rightarrow E + E + E \ast E \Rightarrow E + E + E \ast x \Rightarrow E + E + x \ast x \Rightarrow E + x + x \ast x \Rightarrow x + x + x \ast x \]

It can be represented by a sequence of parse trees:
### Ambiguity

**Definition (Ambiguity)**

A grammar $G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle$ is **ambiguous**, if it has multiple different parse trees for a word $w$ in $L(G)$.

- Consider our running example with the following productions:
  1. $E \rightarrow x$
  2. $E \rightarrow (E)$
  3. $E \rightarrow E + E$
  4. $E \rightarrow E \ast E$

- The following 2 parse trees represent derivations of $x + x + x$:
Exercise: Ambiguity is worse...

Consider our example and the parse trees from the previous slide:

1. $E \rightarrow x$
2. $E \rightarrow (E)$
3. $E \rightarrow E + E$
4. $E \rightarrow E \ast E$

Provide a rightmost derivation for the right tree.
Provide a rightmost derivation for the left tree.
Provide a leftmost derivation for the left tree.
Provide a leftmost derivation for the right tree.
Consider our running example with the following productions:

1. $E \rightarrow x$
2. $E \rightarrow (E)$
3. $E \rightarrow E + E$
4. $E \rightarrow E * E$

Define a grammar $G'$ with $L(G) = L(G')$ that is not ambiguous, that respects that $*$ has a higher precedence than $+$, and that respects left-associativity for all operators.

Hints:

- The different precedence levels (products and sums) need to be generated from different non-terminals
- Within each level, symmetry needs to be broken (one term vs. the rest) in a way reflecting left-associativity
Abstract Syntax Trees (1)

- **Abstract Syntax Trees** represent the structure of a derivation without the specific details.
- Think: “Parse trees without the syntactic sugar”
  - Not an unambiguous definition
  - Many different versions exist
  - Important: Do not lose *relevant* information!
- I use the following:
  - Unnecessary terminal symbols are dropped
  - When possible, the terminal defining the type of a subtree is merged with the non-terminal parent node.
Abstract Syntax Trees (2)

▶ **Abstract Syntax Trees** represent the structure of a derivation without the specific details

▶ Example:

**Parse Tree:**

```
  E
 /|
/  |
E + E
 /|
/  |
E + E x
 /|
/  |
E + E x
 /|
/  x
|x
```

**Corresponding AST:**

```
  +
 /|
/  |
+  x
 /|
/  |
x  x
```

```
Define two non-trivial arithmetic expressions (according to our running example)
   - Each should have at least 4 operators
   - At least one should use two pairs of parentheses

Find a rightmost derivation in $G$ that respects associativity and operator precedence for each expression

Find the corresponding parse tree for each expression

Convert the parse trees to abstract syntax trees
Complex projects consist of many different files

- Some user-edited, some generated
- E.g. flex input file
- E.g. C source files
- E.g. object files
- E.g. final executable

Any given generated file may depend on a number of input files

- If one of the input files changes, the generated file needs to be updated
- This can cascade (assume A depends on B, B depends on C, C depends on D - what happens if D changes?)
Example: Flex und Bison Workflow

Bison Input File
<file>.y

Definitions file
<file>.tab.h

Parser Source
<file>.tab.c

Flex Input file
<file>.l

Definitions file
<file>.tab.h

Parser object
<file>.tab.o

Flex

Lexical Source
<file>.c

Lexer object
<file>.o

gcc

gcc

Linker (gcc)

Some input
to process

Final executable
parser

Some output
produced
Build Automation with make

- make is the traditional UNIX tool for build automation
  - Models dependencies
  - Triggers rebuilds when necessary

- Important concepts:
  - Rules, consisting of
    - Targets – that need to be rebuild
    - Dependencies – inputs required for building a target
    - Commands – to create the target from the dependencies
  - Implicit and built-in rules
    - Make knows how to build a .o from a .c
    - ...and many other recipes
    - Users can write generic rules to extend this knowledge
  - Makefile variables
    - ...are used to instantiate generic rules
    - E.g. name of the C compiler
    - E.g. compiler options
    - E.g. name of lex
Makefiles

- Build instructions are encoded in a makefile
  - make looks for Makefile or makefile
  - Optional: make -f myfunnymakefilename
- Syntax of make files
  - Setting of variables: CC=gcc
  - Targets and dependencies: target: dep1 dep2 dep3
  - Recipes: All lines after a target that start with a Tab character describe commands to be executed to build the target
- make always builds the *first* target in the Makefile
  - If there are multiple targets, use a *phony* pseudotarget that depends on all real targets
  - Make computes all dependencies and determines the build order
  - For each target it checks if the file exists and is newer than all its dependencies
    - If not, the recipe is executed to update the target
    - If target is not a file, it is rebuild every time
LEX = flex
YACC = bison
CC = gcc
LD = gcc

all: scicalc

scicalclex.c: scicalclex.l scicalcparse.tab.h

scicalcparse.tab.h: scicalcparse.y
   $(YACC) -d scicalcparse.y

scicalcparse.tab.c: scicalcparse.y
   $(YACC) -d scicalcparse.y

scicalcparse.tab.o: scicalcparse.tab.c

scicalc: scicalclex.o scicalcparse.tab.o
   $(LD) scicalclex.o scicalcparse.tab.o -o scicalc
LEX = flex
YACC = bison
CC = gcc
LD = gcc
CFLAGS = -ggdb

all: nanolex nanolex_sa

nanolex_sa.c: nanolex_sa.l

nanolex_sa: nanolex_sa.c
gcc -o nanolex_sa nanolex_sa.c

nanolex: nanolex.c
gcc -o nanolex nanolex.c
More on Make

- Standard `make` for modern UNIX dialects is GNU Make
  - Documentation: https://www.gnu.org/software/make/manual/

Use of make is optional, but highly recommended
Flex/Bison Interface

- Bison calls the function `yylex` to get the next token
- `yylex` executes user rules (pattern/action)
  - User actions return token (integer value)
  - Additionally: `yylval` can be set and is available in Bison via the `$$/$1/...` mechanism
- `yylval` provides the *semantic value* of a token
  - For complex languages: Use a (pointer to) a struct
    - Content: Position, string values, numerical values, ...
  - Type of `yylval` if set in *Bison* file!
    % define api.value.type {YourType}
- It's probably a good idea to have a relatively simple type for `yylval`
Context: Where are we?

Source handler

Sequence of characters:
i, n, t, =, a, =, b, ;, a, =, b, +, 1, ;

Lexical analysis (tokeniser)

Sequence of tokens:
(id, “int”), (id, “a”), (id, “b”), (semicolon), (id, “a”), (eq), (id, “b”), (plus), (int, “1”), (semicolon)

e.g. Abstract syntax tree

Syntactic analysis (parser)

e.g. Abstract syntax tree

Semantic analysis

e.g. AST+symbol table+attributes

Code generation (several optimisation passes)

e.g. assembler code

Back End

Front End

Variable Type
a int
b int

Code generation (several optimisation passes)

ld a, b
ld c, 1
add c
...

Variable Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reminder: Abstract Syntax Trees

- **Abstract Syntax Trees** represent the structure of a derivation without the specific details
- Think: “Parse trees without the syntactic sugar”
- Example:

Parse Tree:

![Parse Tree Diagram]

Corresponding AST:

![Corresponding AST Diagram]
Integer hello(Integer repeat, String message)
{
    Integer i;
    i = 0;
    while (i < repeat)
    {
        print message;
        i = i + 1;
    }
    return 0;
}

Integer main()
{
    hello(10, "Hello\n");
    return 0;
}
....to AST
From Code to AST (smaller example)

Example expression:

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

- Observation: Every leaf node corresponds to a lexer token!
ASTs are Trees

- Trees can be recursively defined:
  - (The empty tree is a tree)
  - A single node is a tree
  - A node whose children are trees is a tree

- For ASTs:
  - Base case: Leaves of the AST are provided by the lexer
  - Recursive case: Internal nodes are build from the subtrees corresponding to the RHS of a matched syntax rule

- In practice:
  - For tokens that correspond to AST leaves: Lexer allocates single node and assigns it to `yylval`
  - For complex rules:
    - Subtrees are ASTs communicated via semantic values of matched RHS terminals or non-terminals
    - Result tree is assembled and passed up via the semantic value of the rule
Reminder: Desk calculator

- Desk calculator
  - Reads algebraic expressions and assignments
  - Prints result of expressions
  - Can store values in registers R0-R99

- Example session:

  [Shell] ./scicalc
  R10=3*(5+4)
  > RegVal: 27.000000
  (3.1415*R10+3)
  > 87.820500
  R9=(3.1415*R10+3)
  > RegVal: 87.820500
  R9+R10
  > 114.820500
  ...
  ...
Abstract grammar for desk calculator (partial)

\[ G_{DC} = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle \]

- **\( V_T \)** = \{PLUS, MULT, ASSIGN, OPENPAR, CLOSEPAR, REGISTER, FLOAT, \ldots \}
  - Some terminals are single characters (+, =, \ldots)
  - Others are complex: R10, 1.3e7
  - Terminals (“tokens”) are generated by the lexer
- **\( V_N \)** = \{stmt, assign, expr, term, factor, \ldots \}

**\( P : \)**

- **\( stmt \)** → assign
  - | expr
- **\( assign \)** → REGISTER ASSIGN expr
- **\( expr \)** → expr PLUS term
  - | term
- **\( term \)** → term MULT factor
  - | factor
- **\( factor \)** → REGISTER
  - | FLOAT
  - | OPENPAR expr CLOSEPAR

**\( S = \text{*handwave*} \)**

- For a single statement, \( S = \text{stmt} \)
- In practice, we need to handle sequences of statements and empty input lines (not reflected in the grammar)
Bottom-up parsing

- Tokenized input is read left-to-right
- Current state of the parse is represented by a stack
  - Stack contains terminals and non-terminals
- Important operations:
  - *Reduce* - when the top symbols of the stack match the RHS of a rule $LHS \rightarrow RHS$, they can be replaced by the LHS
  - *Shift* - move the next input token from the input onto the stack
  - *Look-ahead* - when both Shift and Reduce are possible, check if a shift would potentially enable a longer RHS to match
Example string: \( R10 = (4.5+3\times7) \)

Tokenized: REGISTER ASSIGN
OPENPAR FLOAT PLUS FLOAT MULT
FLOAT CLOSEPAR

Abbreviated: R A O F P F M F C

Parsing state:

- Unread input (left column)
- Current stack (top element on right)
- How state was reached

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Stack</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R A O F P F M F C</td>
<td>Start</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A O F P F M F C</td>
<td>Shift R to stack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O F P F M F C</td>
<td>LA: Shift A to stack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F P F M F C</td>
<td>Shift O to stack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P F M F C</td>
<td>Shift F to stack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P F M F C</td>
<td>Reduce F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P F M F C</td>
<td>Reduce factor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

stmt → assign
| expr
assign → R A expr
expr → expr P term
| term
term → term M factor
| factor
factor → R
| F
| 0 expr C
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Start</td>
<td>Shift R to stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA: Shift A to stack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift O to stack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift F to stack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA: Reduce factor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA: Reduce term</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift P</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce factor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA! Shift M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce tMf</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce ePt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce OeC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce factor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce term</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce term</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce RAe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reminder: Actions in Bison

- Bison is based on syntax rules with associated actions
  - Whenever a `reduce` is performed, the action associated with the rule is executed
- Actions can be arbitrary C code
- Frequent: semantic actions
  - The action sets a semantic value based on the semantic value of the symbols reduced by the rule
  - For terminal symbols: Semantic value is `yy1val` from Flex
  - Semantic actions have “historically valuable” syntax
    - Value of reduced symbol: `$$`
    - Value of first symbol in syntax rule body: `$1`
    - Value of second symbol in syntax rule body: `$2`
    - …
    - Access to named components in a union: `$<val>1`
From text to AST in practice: Parsing *nanoLang* expressions

- Example for syntax analysis and building abstract syntax trees
- Language: *nanoLang* expressions (without function calls)
- Structure of the project
- Building
- Code walk-through
Exercise: Building exprcc

- Go to
- Download NANOEXPR.tgz
- Unpack, build and test the code
- To test:
  - ./exprcc expr1.nano
  - ./exprcc --sexpr expr1.nano
  - ./exprcc --dot expr1.nano
exprcc Overview

- AST definitions
  - ast.h

- Parser specification
  - nanoparse.y

- Lexer specification
  - nanolex.l

- Parser defs
  - nanoparse.tab.h

- Lexer implementation
  - nanolex.c

- Lexer object file
  - nanolex.o

- Parser impl.
  - nanoparse.tab.c

- AST implementation
  - ast.c

- AST object file
  - ast.o

- Executable:
  - exprcc

- Tools:
  - #include
  - flex/bison
  - gcc
  - linker
exprcc Makefile
Simplified *nanoLang* expression syntax

```
expr: INTLIT
   | IDENT
   | STRINGLIT
   | OPENPAR expr CLOSEPAR
   | expr PLUS expr
   | expr MINUS expr
   | expr MULT expr
   | expr DIV expr
   | MINUS expr
;
```
Alternative notation

expr -> INTLIT
    | IDENT
    | STRINGLIT
    | ( expr )
    | expr + expr
    | expr - expr
    | expr * expr
    | expr / expr
    | - expr

Question: Is the grammar unambiguous?

► How do we solve this?
Precedences and Associativity in Bison

- Code: `nanoparse.y` token definitions
- The trick with unary –
Implementing ASTs

- Abstract Syntax Trees are trees!
  - Dynamic data structures
  - C: Nodes (structs) and pointers (to children)
  - Dynamic memory management with malloc()/free()

- (Pointers to) AST nodes are used in two contexts
  - Lexer generates AST leaves corresponding to terminal symbols
  - Parser builds complex ASTs from more basic ones
    ⇒ AST datatype needed in Flex and Bison files!

- AST nodes:
  - Type (token or non-terminal represented by node)
  - Unique id (counter)
  - Lexeme (for token AST cells)
  - Numerical value (for integer tokens)
  - Children (array of pointers to AST nodes)

- Code: ast.h, ast.c
Lexical Analysis

- Code: nanolex.l
Building ASTs

- Code: `nanoparse.y` syntax rules and semantic actions
### Parsing in action (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unproc.</th>
<th>Stack</th>
<th>New AST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-(a+b*(c+d))</td>
<td></td>
<td>(Start of parse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+(b*(c+d))</td>
<td>- a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift, Shift, Reduce IDENT to expr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+(b*(c+d))</td>
<td>- expr</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce -expr to expr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*(c+d)</td>
<td>expr + b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift, Shift, Reduce IDENT to expr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- `a` is a token representing the identifier 'a'.
- `b` is a token representing the identifier 'b'.
- These tokens are part of the AST (Abstract Syntax Tree) that is being constructed during the parsing process.
### Parsing in action (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unproc.</th>
<th>Stack</th>
<th>New AST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+d)</td>
<td>expr + expr * ( c</td>
<td>t_IDENT c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shift, Shift, Shift, Reduce IDENT to expr</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>)</td>
<td>expr + expr * ( expr + d</td>
<td>t_IDENT d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shift, Shift, Reduce IDENT to expr</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>)</td>
<td>expr + expr * ( expr + expr</td>
<td>t_PLUS t_IDENT c t_IDENT d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reduce expr+expr to expr</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Parsing in action (3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unproc.</th>
<th>Stack</th>
<th>New AST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Shift, Reduce (expr) to expr | expr + expr * ( expr ) | ![AST Diagram]

Reduce expr*expr to expr

expr + expr * expr

expr + expr * ( expr )

![AST Diagram]
### Parsing in action (4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unproc.</th>
<th>Stack</th>
<th>New AST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>expr + expr</td>
<td>expr + expr</td>
<td>expr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reduce `expr+expr` to `expr`
Details: Error Handling and Locations

- Bison supports locations with `%locations
  - Global variable `yyloc`
    ```
    typedef struct YYLTYPE
    {
        int first_line;
        int first_column;
        int last_line;
        int last_column;
    } YYLTYPE;
    ```
  - Automagically tracked by parser, to be set by lexer for tokens!
  - Can be used in `yyerror()`
  - Bison parsers call `yyerror(const char* err)` on error
    - Argument is provided by parser
    - Location of error can be read out of `yyloc`
    - `%define parse.error verbose` usually improves error reporting
  - Code: `nanolex.l` position tracking, `nanoparse.y` error handling
High-Level Architecture of a Compiler

- **Source handler**
- **Lexical analysis (tokeniser)**
  - Sequence of characters: `i,n,t, ⇨, a,,, b, ;, a, =, b, +, 1, ;`
  - Sequence of tokens: `(id, "int"), (id, "a"), (id, "b"), (semicolon), (id, "a"), (eq), (id, "b"), (plus), (int, "1"), (semicolon)`
- **Syntactic analysis (parser)**
  - e.g. Abstract syntax tree
  - e.g. AST+symbol table+attributes
- **Semantic analysis**
- **Code generation (several optimisation passes)**
  - e.g. assembler code
  - e.g. assembler code

```
ld a,b
ld c, 1
add c
...```

**Variable Type**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Semantic Constraints
Group Exercise: Spot the Bugs (1)

```java
public int fun1(int x, int y)
{
    int i = 0;
    if (i > 0)
    {
        print j;
    }
}

public int main()
{
    fun1(1, 2);
    fun2(1, 2);
    return 0;
}
```
Group Exercise: Spot the Bugs (2)

```
Integer fun1(Integer i, Integer j)
{
    Integer i;

    if (i > "0")
    {
        print j+"12";
    }
    return 1;
}

Integer main()
{
    fun1(1, "Hello");
    fun1(1, 2, 3);
    return 0;
}
```
Integer fun1(Integer i, Integer j)
{
    while(j>i)
    {
        Integer j;

        print j;
        j=j+1;
    }
    return 1;
}
Semantic constraints of *nanoLang* (V 1.0)

- Every name has to be defined before it can be used
- Every name can only be defined once in a given scope
- Functions must be called with arguments of the right type in the right order
- Operands of comparison operators must be of the same type
- Operands of the arithmetic operators must be of type `Integer`
- Every program must have a `main()`
- (Every function must have a `return` of proper type)
The type system is one of the defining elements of a programming language!

- Atomic types: Directly supported by the language
  - Integers
  - Floating point numbers
  - Characters
  - Strings
  - ...

- Derived/composite types
  - Structs/records - combine several other types into one new structure
  - Arrays - combine many elements of the same type into one structure
  - Pointers/References
  - Function types (maps input types to output type)
Types in \textit{nanoLang}

- \textit{nanoLang} has a very basic type system!
- Two atomic types
  - Integer
  - String
- One way to construct new types
  - Functions

Still an infinite number of types!

- $\rightarrow\text{Integer}$
- $\text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}$
- $\text{Integer, Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}$
- $\ldots$
Managing Symbols

- Properties of identifiers are stored in a **symbol table**
  - Name
  - Type
- Properties of identifiers depend on part of the program under consideration!
  - Names are only visible in the **scope** they are declared in
  - Names can be redefined in new scopes

Symbol tables need to change when traversing the program/AST for checking properties and generating code!
## Names and Variables

### Definition (Variable)

A **variable** is a location in memory (or “in the store”) that can store a value (of a given type).

- Variables can be statically or dynamically allocated
  - Typically: global variables are statically allocated (and in the **data segment** of the process)
  - Local variables are dynamically managed and on the **stack**
  - Large data structures and objects are stored in the **heap**

### Definition (Name)

A **name** is an identifier that identifies a variable (in a given scope).

- The same name can refer to different variables (recursive function calls)
- Different names can refer to the same variables (depends on programming languages - **aliasing**)

Scopes and Environments

- The **environment** establishes a mapping from **names** to **variables**

- **Static scope**: Environment depends on **block structure** of the language
  - In any situation, the name refers to the variable defined in the nearest surrounding block in the program text
  - Examples: C (mostly), Pascal, Java, modern LISPs (mostly)

- **Dynamic scope**: Environment depends on calling sequence in program
  - Name refers to the same variable it referred to in the calling function
  - Traditional LISP systems (Emacs LISP)
Group exercise: Static and dynamic scopes in C

```c
#include <stdio.h>
int a=10;
int b=10;
#define adder(x) (x)+a

void machwas(int a, int c)
{
    printf("adder(a)=%d\n", adder(a));
    printf("adder(b)=%d\n", adder(b));
    printf("adder(c)=%d\n", adder(c));
    {
        int c = 5;
        printf("adder(c)=%d\n", adder(c));
    }
}

int main(void)
{
    machwas(1, 2);
    machwas(2, 3);
    return 0;
}
```
Example: Scopes in *nanoLang*

```plaintext
Integer i;

Integer fun1(Integer loop)
{
    Integer i;

    i=0;
    while(i<loop)
    {
        i=i+1;
        print "Hallo";
    }
    return 0;
}

Integer main()
{
    i = 5;
    fun1(i);
}
```
Scopes in *nanoLang*

- Global scope
  - Global variables
  - Functions
- Function scope
  - Function parameters
- Block scope
  - Block-local variables
Example: Scopes in *nanoLang*

```plaintext
Integer i;

Integer fun1(Integer loop)
{
    Integer i;

    i=0;
    while (i<loop)
    {
        i=i+1;
        print "Hallo";
    }
    return 0;
}

Integer main()
{
    i = 5;
    fun1(i);
}
```
Walking the AST
Static type checking

- Types are associated with names
- Types are checked at compile time or development time
- Advantages:
  - ?
- Disadvantages:
  - ?
- Typically used in:
  - ?
Dynamic type checking

- Types are associated with values
- Types are checked at run time
- Advantages:
  - ?
- Disadvantages:
  - ?
- Typically used in:
  - ?
No type checking

- Programmer is supposed to know what (s)he does
- Types are not checked at all
- Advantages:
  - ?
- Disadvantages:
  - ?
- Typically used in:
  - ?
Exercise: How many types occur in this example?

```c
Integer i;

Integer fun1(Integer loop)
{
    Integer i;

    i=0;
    while (i<loop)
    {
        i=i+1;
        print "Hallo";
    }
    return 0;
}

Integer main()
{
    i = 5;
    fun1(i);
}
```
Symbol tables

- Store name (identifier) and type
- Nested for each scope:
  - Global scope
  - Each new scope entered will result in a new symbol table for that scope, pointing to the preceding (larger scope)
- Local operations:
  - Add name/type (error if already defined)
- Global operations:
  - Find name (finds “nearest” matching entry, or error)
  - Enter new scope (creates a new empty symbol table pointing to the predecessor (if any)
  - Leave scope (remove current scope)
Representing types

- Types table:
  - Numerical encoding for each type
  - Recipe for each type
    - *nanoLang* basic types are atomic
    - Atomic types can also be addressed by name
    - Function types are vectors of existing types
  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Encoding</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Recipe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>atomic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Integer</td>
<td>atomic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Integer fun(Integer, String)</td>
<td>(1, 1, 0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- E.g.

- Operations:
  - Find-or-insert type
    - Return encoding for a new type
    - If type does not exist yet, create it
The Big Picture: Type Checking

- We need to know the type of every expression and variable in the program
  - ...to detect semantic inconsistencies
  - ...to generate code
- Some types are simple in *nanoLang*
  - String constants are type String
  - Integer constants are type Integer
  - Results of arithmetic operations are Integer
- Harder: What to do with identifiers?
  - Type of the return value of a function?
  - Types of the arguments of a function?
  - Types of the values of a variable?

The answers depend on the definitions in the program!
Symbol Tables

- Symbol tables associate identifiers and types
- Symbol tables form a hierarchy
  - Symbols can be redefined in every new context
  - The “innermost” definition is valid
- Symbol tables are filled **top-down**
  - Outermost symbol-table contains global definitions
  - Each new context adds a new layer
  - Search for a name is from innermost to outermost symbol table
Building Symbol Tables

Program

```
Integer i;

Integer fun1(Integer loop)
{
   Integer i;
   i=0;
   while(i<loop)
   {
      i=i+1;
      print "Hallo";
   }
}

Integer main()
{
   i = 5;
   fun1(i);
}
```

Symbol table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fun1</td>
<td>(Integer) → Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>main</td>
<td>() → Integer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>loop</td>
<td>Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Simplified Type Handling

- Handling complex types directly is cumbersome
- Better: Manage types separately
  - Types are stored in a separate table
  - Symbol table only needs to handle indices into type table
Symbol Tables and Type Tables

Program

```
Integer i;

Integer fun1(Integer loop)
{
   Integer i;
   i=0;
   while(i<loop)
   {
      i=i+1;
      print "Hallo";
   }
}

Integer main()
{
   i = 5;
   fun1(i);
}
```

Symbol table

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<td>Integer→Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>main</td>
<td>()→Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loop</td>
<td>Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>Integer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Type table

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
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<td>Integer→Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>main</td>
<td>()→Integer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- -
Symbol Tables and the AST

```
Integer i;
Integer fun1(Integer loop) {
    Integer i;
    i=0;
    while(i<loop) {
        i=i+1;
        print "Hallo";
    }
}

Integer main() {
    i = 5;
    fun1(i);
}
```
Exercise: Symbol tables and the AST

1. Reconstruct the nanoLang code corresponding to the AST
2. Identify all different scopes in the program
3. Identify all different scopes in the AST
4. Generate and fill the hierarchy of symbol tables valid at the blue node
Goal: Determine the (result) type of every expression in the program

Process: Process AST bottom-up
- Constants: “natural” type
- Variables: Look up in symbol table
- Function calls: Look up in symbol table
  - If arguments are not of proper type, error
  - Otherwise: return type of the function
- Arithmetic expressions:
  - If arguments are Integer, result type is Integer
  - Otherwise: error
Contrast: Aspects of Type Inference in C

- Arithmetic expressions:
  - Roughly: arithmetic types are ordered by size (`char < int < long < long long < float < double`)
  - Type of `a + b` is the greater of the types of `a` and `b`

- Arrays
  - If `a` is an array of `int`, then `a[1]` is of type `int`

- Pointers
  - If `a` is of type `char*`, then `*a` is of type `char`

- Many more cases:
  - Structures
  - Enumerations
  - Function pointers
Implementation Examples

- main() in nanoparse.y
- STBuildAllTables() in semantic.c
- symbols.h and symbols.c
- types.h and types.c
Reminder: We have several goals

- Assign a type to every AST node which is a subexpression
  - Needed for type checking
  - Needed for code generation
- Typecheck all expressions
  - Catch and flag type errors
- (Check proper use of return values)
  - Catch and flag type and/or logic errors

Practical algorithm?
Observation: Type of a `nanoLang` AST node can be determined without knowing the type of the subtrees below it

- Result type of a `t_PLUS/+` node is always `Integer`
- Result type of a function is known from its type declaration
- ...  

This is not in general true for other languages!

- Example: Type of `+-`-expression in C depends on type of arguments
- Example: Operator overloading in C++
- General problem: Polymorphism

Solution: Perform type checking and type assignment at the same time
Typechecking the AST (3)

- Type assignment and type checking for nanoLang
  - Input: ast is root of an AST
  - Assumption: AST is annotated with symbol tables
- Recursive algorithm
  1. Type check all children of ast and assign them their types
     - Note: There may be zero children - this is where the recursion stops!
  2. Perform case distinction on the current AST node ast
     - Arithmetic operator: Check if both arguments are Integer, result type is Integer
     - Comparison operator: Check if both arguments have the same type, result type is NoType
     - String literal: Result type is String
     - Integer literal: Result type is Integer
     - Assignment: Check if type of the identifier on the left is the same as the type of the expression on the right. Result type is NoType
     - Function call: Check that argument types are correct (using symbol table), return type according to symbol table
     - ...
     - Body, Prog, vardef...: Result type is NoType
Exercise: Typing and Typechecking (1)

- For the following two ASTs, use the approach described above to . . .
  - . . . determine the result type for each AST node
  - . . . find and mark all type errors (if any)
- Bonus: Think of an approach to check correct use and typing of return
Exercise: Typing and Typechecking (2)
Exercise: Typing and Typechecking (3)
Excursion: assert()

- `assert()` is a facility to help debug programs
  - Part of the C Standard since C89
  - To use, `#include <assert.h>`
- `assert(expr)` evaluates `expr`
  - If `expr` is false, then an error message is written and the program is aborted
  - Otherwise, nothing is done
- Hints:
  - Particularly useful to check function parameter values
  - To disable at compile time, define the macro `NDEBUG` (e.g. with the compiler option `-DNDEBUG`)
  - Useful idiom: `assert(expr && "What’s wrong");`
  - More information: `man assert`
Before we can compile a language, we must understand its semantics

Important questions:
- How are parameter passed into functions?
- Related: How do assignments work?

Before we can compile a language, we must understand the target language and environment
- How are parameters and local variables handled?
- How does the program interact with the OS and the environment?
Parameter Passing

- **Call by value**
  - Formal parameters become new local variables
  - Actual parameters are evaluated and used to initialize those variables
  - Changes to variables are irrelevant after function terminates

- **Call by reference**
  - Only references to existing variables are passed
  - In effect, formal parameters are bound to existing variables
  - Actual parameters that are not variables themselves are evaluated and placed in anonymous new variables
  - Changes to parameters in functions change the original variable

- **Call by name**
  - Only historically interesting
  - Semantics mostly similar to call-by-value
Parameter Passing - Advantages and Disadvantages?

- Call by value?
- Call by reference?
- For your consideration:

```c
int fun(int a, int b)
{
    a++;  
    b++;  
    return a+b;
}

int main(void)
{
    int i=0;

    fun(i, i);
    printf("i=%d\n", i);
}
```
Parameter Passing in C/C++/Pascal/Scheme?

- C?
- C++?
- Pascal?
- LISP/Scheme?
- Others?
What happens if \( a = b \); is encountered?

- If both are integer variables (or values)?
- If both are string variables (or values)?
- If both have an object type?
- If both are arrays?
Calling Conventions

- How are parameters values passed at a low level?
  - Registers?
  - Stack?
  - Other?

- Who is responsible for preserving registers?
  - Caller?
  - Callee?

- In which order are parameters passed?

- How is the old context (stack frame and program counter) preserved and restored?

For our *nanoLang* compiler, we rely on C to handle these things!
Runtime System and OS Integration

- Runtime system provides the glue between OS and program
  - Translates OS semantics/conventions to compiled language and back
- Runtime system provides execution support for program semantics
  - Higher-level functions/data types
  - Memory management
  - Library functions
Parameter Passing and Assignments in *nanoLang*

- Suggestion: All parameter passed “as if” by value
- Integer: Pass by value
- *Immutable strings*
  - Can be passed by reference
  - Need to be memory-managed (reference counting, a job for the runtime system)
  - Alternative is not simpler!
nanoLang OS Integration

- Command line arguments
  - Suggestion: `main()` takes arbitrary number of string arguments
  - These are filled from the command line
  - Spare arguments are represented by the empty string
- Exit and return value
  - Library function `Exit(val)` terminates program and returns integer value
  - `return` from `main()` has the same effect
Suggested function to make things interesting:

- **StrIsInt**(str): Returns 1 if str encodes a valid integer, 0 otherwise
- **StrToInt()**: Converts a string to an integer. If str is not an integer encoding, result is undefined
- **IntToStr**(int): Returns a string encoding of the given integer
- **StrLength**(str): Returns the lengths of str

More suggestions?

- **String StrFront**(str, int) - return first int characters as new string
- **String StrRest**(str, int) - return all but first int characters
- **String StrCat**(str, str) - concatenate strings, return as new string
- **Integer StrToASCII**(str) - only for strings of length 1, return ASCII value
- **String ASCIIToStr**(int) - reverse of the above
Temptation: Use C char*
Fails as soon as strings can be dynamically created
Suggestion: Structure with reference counting
  String value - the actual string (malloc()ed char*)
  Length (maybe)
  Reference count - how many places have a reference to the string?
    Increase if string is assigned to a variable or passed to a function
    Decrease, if a variable is reassigned or goes out of scope
    Free string, if this reaches 0
Coding Hints

- The *nanoLang* compiler is a non-trivial piece of software
  - Several modules
  - Several different data types (AST, Types, Symbols)
- It helps to follow good coding practices
  - The big stuff: Good code structure
    - One function per function
    - Not more than one screen page per function
  - The small stuff
    - Clean formatting (including vertical space)
    - Use expressive names for functions and variables
    - Reasonable comments (don’t over-comment, though!)
    - Use `assert()`
    - Compile with warnings enables (Makefile: `CFLAGS = -Wall`)
The Final Phase

Source handler

Sequence of characters:
i, n, t, ←, a, ,, b, ;, a, =, b, +, 1, ;

Lexical analysis
(tokeniser)

Sequence of tokens:
(id, “int”), (id, “a”), (id, “b”), (semicolon), (id, “a”), (eq), (id, “b”), (plus), (int, “1”), (semicolon)

Syntactic analysis
(parser)

e.g. Abstract syntax tree

Semantic analysis

e.g. AST+symbol table+attributes

Code generation
(several optimisation passes)

e.g. assembler code

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ld a, b
ld c, 1
add c
...
Code Generation nanoLang to C

► Suggestion: Code generation uses separate phases
  ► Initial boilerplate
  ► Global variable definitions
  ► Function declarations
  ► Constant library code
  ► Translation of function definitions
  ► C main() function
Name Mangling

- To avoid name conflicts, *nanoLang* identifiers should use a standard naming scheme that guarantees that they don’t conflict with internal C names
- Suggestion:
  - Atomic type names are prepended with \texttt{N}_
  - Function and variable names are prepended with \texttt{n}_


- All identifiers that begin with an underscore and either an uppercase letter or another underscore are always reserved for any use.
- All identifiers that begin with an underscore are always reserved for use as identifiers with file scope in both the ordinary and tag name spaces.
Initial Boilerplate

- Emit constant code needed for each translated *nanoLang* program
  - Comment header
  - Standard system includes
  - Type definitions
  - Possibly macro definitions
- Implementation via printing constant string
  - Easiest way
  - Alternative: Read from file
Global Variable Definitions

- Visibility difference between *nanoLang* and C
  - Globally defined *nanoLang* identifiers are visible throughout the program
  - C definitions are visible from the point of definition only
  - Hence we need to declare variables (and functions) upfront

- Implementation suggestion:
  - Iterate over all symbols in the global symbol table
  - For each variable symbol, emit a declaration
Function Declarations

- The same visibility difference between *nanoLang* and C affects functions
  - We need to declare all functions upfront!
- Implementation suggestion:
  - Iterate over all symbols in the global symbol table
  - For each function symbol, emit a declaration

Suggestion: For simplicity and consistency, we should insert the *nanoLang* standard library functions (Exit(), StrIsInt(), StrToInt, ...) into the symbol table (and do so before semantic analysis to stop the user from inadvertently redefining them!)
The *nanoLang* runtime will need various pieces of code

- Data types and helper functions to handle e.g. Strings
- Implementations of the built-in functions

**Implementation options**

- Just insert plain C code here (Alternative 0, but this may be lengthy)
- Alternative 1: Read this C code from a file
- Alternative 2: Just `#include` the full C code
- Alternative 3: `#include` only header with declarations, then require linking with a run time library later
Translation of Function Definitions

- This is the heart of the compiler!
- Go over the AST and emit a definition for each function
  - `nanoLang` functions become C functions
  - Local `nanoLang` variables become C variables of an appropriate type
  - `nanoLang` blocks become C blocks
  - `nanoLang` instructions are translated into equivalent C statement sequences
  - Mostly straightforward
    - `print` requires case distinction
    - String comparisons require library calls

More complex: Proper string handling
Generate C code for the following AST:
Exercise: Code Generation (2)

Generate C code for the coloured part of the following AST:
Generate an appropriate `main()` function

**Tasks:**
- Read commandline and initialize parameters for `nanoLang main()`
- Call `nanoLang main`
- Exit program, returning value from `nanoLang main()` to OS
Ideas for Optimization

- Constant subexpression evaluation
- Common subexpression elimination
  - To do this well, we need to identify pure functions!
- Shift unneeded computations out of loop
- Eliminate computations of unused values

```plaintext
while (i < 10)
{
  a = 3*10*i;
  b = 3*10*fun(a)+fun(a);
  i = i + 1;
}
return a;
```
Exercise: Optimization

```c
Integer optFun(Integer limit)
{
    Integer sum1;
    Integer sum2;
    Integer i;
    Integer j;
    Integer a;
    Integer b;
    sum1 = 0;
    sum2 = 0;
    i=0;
    while (i<=limit)
    {
        j=0;
        while (j<=limit)
        {
            Integer c;
            a = i*i*j;
            sum1 = sum1+a;
            b=i*i;
            sum2 = sum2+b;
            c = a+b;
            j=j+1;
        }
        i=i+1;
    }
    return sum1/sum2;
}
```
Practical code generation for nanoLang
/*
 * Automatically generated by the nanoLang compiler ncc.
 *
 * The boilerplate and library code is released under the GNU General Public
 * Licence, version 2 or, at your choice, any later version. Other code is
 * governed by the license of the original source code.
 */

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <string.h>

typedef long long N_Integer;
typedef char *N_String;

#define NANO_MAKESTR(s) s
#define NANO_STRASSIGN(l, r) (l) = (r)
#define NANO_STRVAL(s) s

/∗ Global user variables ∗/
/ Function declarations */

N_Integer n_Exit(N_Integer);
N_Integer n_StrIsInt(N_String);
N_Integer n_StrToInt(N_String);
N_Integer n_StrLen(N_String);
N_String n_IntToStr(N_Integer);
N_String n_StrToFront(N_String, N_Integer);
N_String n_StrRest(N_String, N_Integer);
N_String n_StrCat(N_String, N_String);
N_Integer n_StrToASCII(N_String);
N_String n_ASCIIToStr(N_Integer);
N_String n_testfun(N_Integer, N_String);
N_Integer n_main(N_String, N_String);

/* nanoLang runtime library code */

/* String functions */

N_String n_StrCat(N_String arg1, N_String arg2)
{
    size_t len = strlen(arg1) + strlen(arg2) + 1;
    char *res = malloc(len);
    strcpy(res, arg1);
    strcat(res, arg2);
    return res;
}
[...]
String testfun(Integer count, String message)
{
    Integer i;
    String res;
    i = 0;
    res = "";

    while (i < count)
    {
        printf(" Schleifendurchlauf_");
        printf(i);
        printf("n");
        res = StrCat(res, message);
        i = i + 1;
    }
    return res;
}

N_String n_testfun(N_Integer n_count, N_String n_message)
{
    N_Integer n_i = 0;
    N_String n_res = 0;
    n_i = (0);
    NANO_STRASSIGN(n_res, (NANO_MAKESTR("")));
    while ((n_i) < (n_count))
    {
        printf("%s", NANO_STRVAL((
            NANO_MAKESTR(" Schleifendurchlauf_"))));
        printf("%lld", (n_i));
        printf("%s", NANO_STRVAL((NANO_MAKESTR("\n"))));
        NANO_STRASSIGN(n_res, (n_StrCat((n_res),
            (n_message))));
        n_i = ((n_i) + (1));
    }
    return (n_res);
}
nanoLang and its translation (2)

```c
Integer main(String arg1, String arg2)
{
    Integer limit;
    limit = 10;
    if (StrIsInt(arg1) == 1)
    {
        limit = StrToInt(arg1);
    }
    printf(testfun(limit, arg2);
    printf("\n");
    return 0;
}
```

```c
N_Integer n_main(N_String n_arg1, N_String n_arg2)
{
    N_Integer n_limit = 0;
    n_limit = (10);
    if ((n_StrIsInt(n_arg1)) == (1)) {
        n_limit = (n_StrToInt(n_arg1));
    }
    printf("%s", NANO_STRVAL((n_testfun((n_limit), (n_arg2)))))
    printf("%s", NANO_STRVAL((NANO_MAKESTR("\n"))))
    return (0);
}
```
/* C main function */

int main ( int argc , char *argv [] )
{
    N_String arg1 = NANO_MAKESTR("" );
    if (1 < argc ) {
        arg1 = NANO_MAKESTR(argv [1] );
    }
    N_String arg2 = NANO_MAKESTR("" );
    if (2 < argc ) {
        arg2 = NANO_MAKESTR(argv [2] );
    }
    n_main(arg1 , arg2 );
}
Top-Down Parsing
Basic Idea of *Recursive Descent*

- One parsing function per non-terminal
- Initial function corresponds to start symbol
- Each function:
  - Uses an oracle to pick the correct production
  - Processes the right hand side letter by letter against the input as follows:
    - If the next symbol of the RHS is a terminal, it consumes that terminal from the input (if it's not in the input: error)
    - If the next symbol is a non-terminal, it calls the corresponding function

**Oracle: Based on next letter to be read!**
- Good case: Every production can be clearly identified
- Bad case: Common initial parts of right hand sides ⇒ ?
Grammars for Recursive Descent

- A recursive descent parser deterministically finds \textit{leftmost derivation} with a 1 token \textit{lookahead}
- This requires an LL(1) grammar
  - No \textit{left recursion} (results in endless descent)
  - No \textit{shared prefixes} for rules with the same left hand non-terminal (makes it impossible to decide which rule to use)
- We can often convert a non-LL(1)-grammar to a LL(1) grammar
  - Convert left-recursion to right recursion
  - Use \textit{left factoring} to handle common prefixes
Consider the following productions from $G_1$:

- $S \rightarrow aB$
- $B \rightarrow Sb$
- $B \rightarrow b$

What is the language produced?

How can we parse $aabb$?

What happens if we use the following productions from $G_2$?

- $S \rightarrow aSb$
- $S \rightarrow ab$

Productions in $G_2$ have common prefixes

Common prefixes make the oracle work hard(er)

How can we get $G_1$ from $G_2$?

Left factoring!
Left Factoring

- Idea: Factor common prefixes out of right hand side of productions
- Consider:
  - $N \rightarrow aR_1$
  - $N \rightarrow abR_2$
  - $N \rightarrow accR_3$
- Replace common prefix by new non-terminal:
  - $N \rightarrow aX$
  - $X \rightarrow R_1$
  - $X \rightarrow bR_2$
  - $X \rightarrow ccR_3$
- ... and repeat as necessary
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition (Left-recursive grammar)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A grammar $G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, S \rangle$ is <strong>left-recursive</strong>, if there exist $A \in V_N, w \in (V_N \cup V_T)^*$ with $A \xrightarrow{+} Aw$.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Left recursion leads to infinite loops in recursive descent parsers
  - To parse $A$, we first need to parse $A \ldots$
- Solution: Reformulate grammar
We will again consider the set of well-formed expressions over $x, +, *, (, )$ as an example, i.e. $L(G)$ for $G$ as follows:

- $V_N = \{E\}$
- $V_T = \{(, ), +, *, x\}$
- Start symbol is $E$
- Productions:
  1. $E \rightarrow x$
  2. $E \rightarrow (E)$
  3. $E \rightarrow E + E$
  4. $E \rightarrow E * E$
We will again consider the set of well-formed expressions over $x, +, *, (, )$ as an example, i.e. $L(G)$ for $G$ as follows:

- $V_N = \{E, T, F\}$
- $V_T = \{(, ), +, *, x\}$
- Start symbol is $E$
- Productions:
  1. $E \rightarrow E + T$
  2. $E \rightarrow T$
  3. $T \rightarrow T * F$
  4. $T \rightarrow F$
  5. $F \rightarrow (E)$
  6. $F \rightarrow x$

What happens if we want to parse $x + x$ with this grammar using recursive descent?
Exercise: Recursive Descent for Expressions

Consider the following productions:

1. $E \rightarrow E + T$
2. $E \rightarrow T$
3. $T \rightarrow T \ast F$
4. $T \rightarrow F$
5. $F \rightarrow (E)$
6. $F \rightarrow x$

Can we find an equivalent grammar that can be top-down parsed?

How?
End of Lectures
Eliminating Ambiguity

Ambiguous: $G = \langle V_N, V_T, P, E \rangle$

- $V_N = \{ E \}$
- $V_T = \{ (, ), +, *, x \}$
- $P$ as follows:
  1. $E \rightarrow x$
  2. $E \rightarrow (E)$
  3. $E \rightarrow E + E$
  4. $E \rightarrow E * E$

Unambiguous: $G' = \langle V'_N, V_T, P', E \rangle$

- $V'_N = \{ E, S, F \}$
- $V_T = \{ (, ), +, *, x \}$
- $P'$ as follows
  1. $E \rightarrow E + S$
  2. $E \rightarrow S$
  3. $S \rightarrow S * F$
  4. $S \rightarrow F$
  5. $F \rightarrow (E)$
  6. $F \rightarrow x$
End of Solutions
Goals for Lecture 1

- Introduction
- Context
- Practical issues
- Programming language survey
- Execution of languages
- Low-level code vs. high-level code
- Structure of a Compiler
- Refresher
  - Grammars
  - Flex/Bison
- Programming exercises (Warmup)
  - Scientific calculator
Exercise 0: Scientific Calculator

- **Exercise 1 (Refresher):**
  - Go to http://wwwlehre.dhbw-stuttgart.de/~sschulz/cb2018.html
  - Download `scicalcparse.y` and `scicalclex.l`
  - Build the calculator
  - Run and test the calculator

- **Exercise 2 (Warm-up):**
  - Add support for division and subtraction `/`, `-`
  - Add support for unary minus (the negation operator `-`)

- **Exercise 3 (Bonus):**
  - Change the desk calculator so that it converts its input into a C program that will perform the same actions that the calculator performed interactively!
Review: Goals for Lecture 1

- Practical issues
- Programming language survey
- Execution of languages
- Low-level code vs. high-level code
- Structure of a Compiler
- Refresher
  - Grammars
  - Flex/Bison
- Programming exercises
  - Scientific calculator revisited
Feedback round

- What was the best part of today’s lecture?
- What part of today’s lecture has the most potential for improvement?
  - Optional: how would you improve it?
Goals for Lecture 2

- Refresher
- Reminder: Grammars and Chomsky-Hierarchy
  - Grammars
  - Regular languages and expressions
  - Context-free grammars and languages
- Syntactic structure of programming languages
- nanoLang
- Programming exercise: Tokenizing nanoLang
Refresher

- Some properties of programming languages and implementations
  - Object oriented vs. Procedural
  - Imperative vs. Functional
  - Statically typed vs. dynamically typed (vs. „no types“)
  - Compiled vs. interpreted

- High-level level languages
  - Expressive/Complex functionality
  - Features correspond to application concepts
  - Good abstraction

- Low-level languages
  - Simple operations
  - Features dictated by hardware architecture
  - (Close to) what processors can execute
  - Limited abstraction
Refresher

▶ Structure of compiler
  ▶ Tokenizer
  ▶ Parser
  ▶ Semantic analysis
  ▶ Optimizer
  ▶ Code generator
  ▶ ...

▶ Some applications of compiler technology
  ▶ Implementation of programming languages
  ▶ Parsing of data formats/serialization
    ▶ E.g. Word documents - may include optimization!
    ▶ HTML/XML for web pages/SOA
    ▶ XSLT document transformers
    ▶ \LaTeX
    ▶ ATCCL
    ▶ ...

▶ Flex & Bison
Exercise 1: *nanoLang* Scanner

- Write a *flex*-based scanner for *nanoLang*
  - At minimum, it should output the program token by token
  - Bonus: Find a way to keep track of line numbers for tokens
  - Superbonus: Also keep track of columns
- Reminder: Compiling *flex* programs:
  - `flex -t myflex.l > myflex.c`
  - `gcc -o myflex myflex.c`

Example output for Hello World

```
Integer = 277
main = 274
( = 258
) = 259
{ = 270
print = 282
"Hello World\n" = 275
; = 272
return = 281
0 = 276
; = 272
} = 271
```
String hello(Integer dummy) {
    return "Hello \nWorld";
}

Integer main() {
    print hello(2);
    return 0;
}
Review: Goals for Lecture 2

- Refresher
- Reminder: Grammars and Chomsky-Hierarchy
  - Grammars
  - Regular languages and expressions
  - Context-free grammars and languages
- Syntactic structure of programming languages
- nanoLang
- Programming exercise: Tokenizing nanoLang
Feedback round

» What was the best part of today’s lecture?
» What part of today’s lecture has the most potential for improvement?
   » Optional: how would you improve it?
Goals for Lecture 3

▶ Refresher
▶ Context-free grammars revisited
  ▶ Derivations and Parse Trees
  ▶ Abstract Syntax Trees
▶ Build automation with make
▶ Flex/Bison interface
▶ Programming exercise: Parsing nanoLang
Refresher

- Reminder: Grammars and Chomsky-Hierarchy
  - Grammars
  - Regular languages and expressions
  - Context-free grammars and languages

- Syntactic structure of programming languages

- nanoLang
  - Small procedural language
  - Syntax inspired by C (note: grammar has been updated!)
  - Context-free grammar
  - ...but differences e.g. in scoping

- Programming exercise: Tokenizing nanoLang
Exercise 2: nanoLang Parser

- Write a Bison parser for *nanoLang*
  - Bonus 1: Find out how to improve error handling (positions, recovery - try googling “Bison error handling” and “Bison error recovery” )
  - Bonus 2: Translate *nanoLang* into Abstract Syntax Trees (will be required next week!)
- Due date: Our lecture on March 5th
Review: Goals for Lecture 3

- Refresher
- Context-free grammars revisited
  - Derivations and Parse Trees
    - Rightmost/leftmost derivation
    - Ambiguity
    - Eliminating ambiguity
  - Abstract Syntax Trees
- Build automation with `make`
- Flex/Bison interface
- Programming exercise: Parsing `nanoLang`
Feedback round

- What was the best part of today’s lecture?
- What part of today’s lecture has the most potential for improvement?
  - Optional: how would you improve it?
Goals for Lecture 4

- Refresher
- Generating abstract syntax trees
- Parsing and error-handling
- Walk-through: Parsing *nanoLang* expressions in practice
- Programming exercise: ASTs for *nanoLang*
Refresher

- Context-free grammars revisited
  - Derivations and Parse Trees
  - Abstract Syntax Trees
- Build automation with `make`
- Flex/Bison interface
  - `yylex()` returns numerical code for token
  - `yylex()` sets `yylval` to “semantic value”
- Programming exercise: Parsing `nanoLang`
Exercise 3: ASTs for nanoLang

- Extend the *nanoLang* parser to generate abstract syntax trees for *nanoLang* programs
  - You can use your own parser or extend the expression parser from this lecture
  - Due date: Our lecture on April 19th
Review: Goals for Today

- Refresher
- Generating abstract syntax trees
- Parsing and error-handling
- Walk-through: Parsing expressions in practice
- Programming exercise: ASTs for \textit{nanoLang}
Feedback round

- What was the best part of today’s lecture?
- What part of today’s lecture has the most potential for improvement?
  - Optional: how would you improve it?
Goals for Lecture 5

- Refresher
- Semantic properties
  - Names, variables, identifiers
  - Visibility and scopes
  - Simple types and type systems
- Symbol tables
- Memory organisation and storage locations
- Parse trees
- Generating abstract syntax trees
  - Leaves are delivered by the scanner
  - Internal nodes are created from subtrees in the *semantic actions* of grammar rules in Bison/YACC
- *nanoLang* expression parser
- Walk-through: Parsing expressions in practice
  - Precedence and associativity in Bison
  - AST datatype: Structure
    - Type of the AST node (roughly terminal/nonterminal of the grammar)
    - Lexeme (if needed)
    - Pointers to subtrees
- Programming exercise: ASTs for *nanoLang*
Exercise 4: *nanoLang* Types and Symbol Tables

- Develop data structures for representing *nanoLang* types
- Develop data structures for implementing nested symbol tables
- Due date: Our lecture on April 19th
Review: Goals for Today

- Semantic properties
  - Names, variables, identifiers
  - Visibility and scopes
  - Simple types and type systems
- Symbol tables
- Memory organisation and storage locations
Feedback round

- What was the best part of today’s lecture?
- What part of today’s lecture has the most potential for improvement?
  - Optional: how would you improve it?
Goals for Lecture 6

- Refresher
- The big picture
- Symbol Tables and Type Tables in practice
- Type inference and type checking
- Exercise: Build symbol tables
Refresher

- Semantic properties
  - Names, variables, identifiers
  - Visibility and scopes
  - Simple types and type systems
- Symbol tables
- Memory organisation and storage locations
  - Global variables: data segment
  - Local ("automatic") variables: calling stack
  - Dynamic memory (managed): heap
Exercise 5: Implementing Symbol Tables

Extend your compiler project by computing the relevant symbol tables for all nodes of your AST

- Develop a type table data type for managing different types
- Define a symbol table data type for managing symbols and their types
  - Use a hierarchical structure
  - Suggested operations:
    - EnterScope()
    - LeaveScope()
    - InsertSymbol() (with type)
    - FindSymbol() (return entry including type)
    - ...

- Traverse the AST in a top-down fashion, computing the valid symbol table at each node
- Annotate each AST node with the symbol table valid at that node

At the end, print all symbols and types of the global, top-level symbol table!
Example Output

> ncc NANOEXAMPLES/scopes.nano

Global symbols:
---------------

i : Integer
fun1 : (Integer) -> Integer
main : () -> Integer

Types:
------

0: NoType
1: String
2: Integer
3: (Integer) -> Integer
4: () -> Integer
Review: Goals for Lecture 6

- Refresher
- The big picture
  1. We need to type every expression and subexpression
- Symbol Tables and Type Tables in practice
  1. Build tables top-down
  2. Annotate AST nodes with symbols tables
- Type inference and type checking
  1. Bottom-up type inference
  2. Check constraints as needed
  3. In more complex languages (C)
    - More complex type inference
    - Type promotion
- Exercise: Build symbol tables
Feedback round

- What was the best part of today’s lecture?
- What part of today’s lecture has the most potential for improvement?
  - Optional: how would you improve it?
Goals for Lecture 7

- Refresher
- Type checking revisited
- Excursion: `assert()` in C
- Code generation considerations
  - Parameter passing
  - Assignments
  - Calling conventions
  - Runtime support
  - Libraries
- `nanoLang` runtime
  - Parameter passing
  - `nanoLang` string semantics
  - `nanoLang` library functions and OS interaction
- Exercise: Type checking
The big picture
   1. We need to type every expression and subexpression

Symbol Tables and Type Tables in practice
   1. Build tables top-down
   2. Annotate AST nodes with symbols tables

Type inference and type checking
   1. Bottom-up type inference
   2. Check constraints as needed
   3. In more complex languages (C): type promotion
Extend your compiler project by computing the types of all expressions in your system and check type constraints

- Check that variables are only assigned values of the right type
- Check that functions are only called with correctly typed parameters
- Check that operators have compatible types
- Check that comparisons only happen between expressions of the same type
- Bonus: Check that functions (always) return the correct type
Exercise 6: Example Typechecking

> ncc ../NANOEXAMPLES/semantic1.nano
1:25: error: symbol 'i' doubly defined (previous definition at 1:14)
7:13: error: undefined identifier j
15:4: error: undefined identifier fun2
15:4: error: undefined identifier fun2
1:1: warning: cannot guarantee proper return value for function fun1()
12:1: warning: cannot guarantee proper return value for function main()
Review: Goals for Lecture 7

- Type checking revisited
- Excursion: `assert()` in C
- Code generation considerations
  - Parameter passing
  - Assignments
  - Calling conventions
  - Runtime support
  - Libraries
- `nanoLang` runtime
  - Parameter passing
  - `nanoLang` string semantics
  - `nanoLang` library functions and OS interaction
Feedback round

► What was the best part of today’s lecture?
► What part of today’s lecture has the most potential for improvement?
  ► Optional: how would you improve it?
Goals for Lecture 8

- Refresher
- Coding Hints
- Code generation *nanoLang* to C
- (Simple) Optimizations
- Exercise: Code generation (I)
Refresher

- Type checking revisited
- Excursion: `assert()` in C
- Code generation considerations
  - Parameter passing
  - Assignments
  - Calling conventions
  - Runtime support
  - Libraries
- *nanoLang* runtime
  - Parameter passing
  - *nanoLang* string semantics
  - *nanoLang* library functions and OS interaction
Exercise 7: Basic Code Generation

Extend your compiler project to generate a basic C program:

- Compile `nanoLang` statements into equivalent C statements
- Compile `nanoLang` definitions into C declarations and definitions
- Generate a basic `main()`
- For now, you can treat `String` as an immutable `char*` - we'll do the library next week
Review: Goals for Lecture 8

- Coding Hints
- Code generation *nanoLang* to C
  - (Name mangling)
  - Boilerplate
  -Globals
  - Library code
  - *nanoLang* functions
  - C main()

- (Simple) Optimizations
Feedback round

- What was the best part of today’s lecture?
- What part of today’s lecture has the most potential for improvement?
  - Optional: how would you improve it?
Goals for Lecture 9

- Refresher
- Practical aspects of *nanoLang* code generation
- An introduction to top-down recursive descent parsing
Coding Hints
- Code structure (small functions with one clear job)
- Reasonable comments
- `assert()` and/or unit tests

Code generation *nanoLang* to C
- Preamble
- Mine symbol tables for declarations
- Library
- Walk the AST to generate actual code

(Simple) Optimizations
- Constant subexpressions
- Common subexpressions
- Lift code out of loops
- Detect and remove unused code and variables

Exercise: Code generation (I)
Exercise 8: Completing the Compiler

- Finish your compiler project
- Bonus: Implement proper string handling
  - String data type
  - Garbage collection
Review: Goals for Lecture 9

- Practical aspects of *nanoLang* code generation
- An introduction to top-down recursive descent parsing
Feedback round

- What was the best part of today’s lecture?
- What part of today’s lecture has the most potential for improvement?
  - Optional: how would you improve it?
Goals for Lecture 10

- Training exam
- Solution discussion
Training exam
Review: Goals for Lecture 10

- Training exam
- Solution discussion
Feedback round

- What was the best part of the course?
- Suggestions for improvements?
The End