Syntax Analysis

Chapter 1, Section 1.2.2
Chapter 4, Section 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5
CUP Manual

Inside the Compiler: Front End

- Lexical analyzer (aka scanner)
 - Provides a stream of token to the syntax analyzer (aka parser), which creates a parse tree
 - Usually the parser calls the scanner: getNextToken()
- Syntax analyzer (aka parser)
 - Based on a grammar which specifies precisely the syntactic structure of well-formed programs
 - Token names are terminal symbols of this grammar
 - A parse tree does not need to be constructed explicitly
 - The parser could be integrated with the semantic analyzer and the generator of intermediate code
 - Error checking & recovery is an important concern

Languages and Grammars (1/2)

- Alphabet: finite set ∑ of symbols (e.g. token names)
- String over an alphabet: finite sequence of symbols
 - Empty string ε ; Σ^* set of all strings over Σ (incl. ε); Σ^+ set of all non-empty strings over Σ
- Language: countable set of strings $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$
- Grammar: G = (N, T, S, P)
 - Finite set of nonterminal symbols N, finite set of terminal symbols T, starting nonterminal S ∈ N, finite set of productions P
 - For us: terminal = token name (we'll say "token")
 - Defines a language over the alphabet T

Languages and Grammars (2/2)

- Production: $x \rightarrow y$ where $x \in (N \cup T)^+$, $y \in (N \cup T)^*$ - All $S \rightarrow y$ (S is the starting nonterminal) are shown first
- Applying a production: $uxv \Rightarrow uyv$
- String derivation
 - $\mathbf{w_1} \Rightarrow \mathbf{w_2} \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow \mathbf{w_n}$; denoted $\mathbf{w_1} \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \mathbf{w_n}$
- Language generated by a grammar
 - $-L(G) = \{ w \in T^* \mid S \stackrel{+}{\Rightarrow} w \}$
- Classification of languages and grammars: regular
 context-free ⊂ context-sensitive ⊂ unrestricted
 - Regular: equivalent to regular expressions/NFA/DFA
 - Context-free: used in programming languages

Context-Free Grammars

- Productions: $x \rightarrow y$ where $x \in N$, $y \in (N \cup T)^*$
 - x is a single nonterminal: the left side (or head)
 - y is has zero or more terminals and nonterminals: the right side (or body) of the production
 - E.g. expr → expr + const
- Alternative notation: Backus-Naur Form (BNF)
 - E.g. <expr> ::= <expr> + <const>
- Notation we will use in this course see Sect. 4.2.2
- Example: simple arithmetic expressions

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid E - T \mid T$$

 $T \rightarrow T * F \mid T / F \mid F$
 $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$

Derivations and Parse Trees

- Sentential form: anything derivable from the starting nonterminal
 - If it contains only terminals: sentence
- Leftmost derivation: the leftmost nonterminal of each sentential form is always chosen
 - Rightmost derivation: the rightmost nonterminal
- Each derivation can be represented by a parse tree
 - Leaves are terminals or nonterminals
 - Left-to-right, they constitute a sentential form

Ambiguity

- Ambiguous grammar: more than one parse tree for some sentence
 - Choice 1: make the grammar unambiguous
 - Choice 2: leave the grammar ambiguous, but define some disambiguation rules for use during parsing
- Example: the dangling-else problem
 stmt → if expr then stmt
 - if expr then stmt else stmt
 - **other**
- Two parse trees for if a then if b then x=1 else x=2
- See a non-ambiguous version in Fig 4.10
 - else is matched with the closest unmatched then

Elimination of Ambiguity

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

- 1. Prove that this grammar is ambiguous
- 2. Create an equivalent non-ambiguous grammar with the appropriate precedence and associativity
 - * has higher precedence than +
 - both are left-associative

Example: parse tree for a + b * (c + d) * e

Top-Down Parsing

- Goal: find the leftmost derivation for a given string
- General solution: recursive-descent parsing
 - Need to eliminate any left recursion from the grammar
 - In the general case, may require backtracking: multiple scans over the input
- Predictive parsing: no need for backtracking
 - LL(k) grammars: only need to look at the next k symbols to decide which production to apply
 - Important case in practice: LL(1) grammars
 - May need to perform left factoring of the grammar

Elimination of Left Recursion

- Left-recursive grammar: possible $A \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow A\alpha$
- Simple case
 - Original grammar: $A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta$
 - New grammar: $A \rightarrow \beta A'$ and $A' \rightarrow \alpha A' \mid \varepsilon$
- More complex case
 - Original: $A \rightarrow A\alpha_1 \mid ... \mid A\alpha_m \mid \beta_1 \mid ... \mid \beta_n$
 - New: $A \rightarrow \beta_1 A' \mid ... \mid \beta_n A'$ and $A' \rightarrow \alpha_1 A' \mid ... \mid \alpha_m A' \mid \varepsilon$
- Still not enough
 - E.g. S is left-recursive in $S \rightarrow A\mathbf{a} \mid \mathbf{b}$ and $A \rightarrow A\mathbf{c} \mid S\mathbf{d} \mid \mathbf{\epsilon}$
- Section 4.3.3: algorithm for grammars w/o cycles $(A \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow A)$ and w/o ε -productions $(A \to \varepsilon)$

Example with Left Recursion

Original grammar

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid E - T \mid T$$

 $T \rightarrow T * F \mid T / F \mid F$
 $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$

Modified grammar

$$E \rightarrow TE'$$

 $E' \rightarrow + TE' \mid -TE' \mid \varepsilon$
 $T \rightarrow FT'$
 $T' \rightarrow *FT' \mid /FT' \mid \varepsilon$
 $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$

Recursive-Descent Parsing

- One procedure for each nonterminal
- Parsing starts with a call to the procedure for the starting nonterminal
 - Success: if at the end of this call, the entire input string has been processed (no leftover symbols)

```
void A() /* procedure for a nonterminal A */
choose some production A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 ... X_k
for (i = 1 to k)

if (X_i is nonterminal) call X_i()

else if (X_i is equal to the current input symbol)

move to the next input symbol

otherwise report parse error
```

A Few Issues

- Choosing which production $A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 \dots X_k$ to use
 - There could be many possible productions for A
 - If one of the choices does not work, backtrack the algorithm and try another choice
 - Expensive and undesirable in practice
- Top-down parsing for programming languages: predictive recursive-descent (no backtracking)
- A left-recursive grammar may lead to infinite recursion (even if we have backtracking)
 - When we try to expand A, we eventually reach A again without having consumed any symbols in between

Sets FIRST

- For any string α of grammar symbols: FIRST(α) contains all terminals that could be the first symbol of some string derived from α
 - $-\alpha \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha\beta$ where α is a terminal, means $\alpha \in FIRST(\alpha)$
 - $-\alpha \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \epsilon$ means $\epsilon \in FIRST(\alpha)$
- For $A \rightarrow \alpha \mid \beta$, if FIRST(α) and FIRST(β) are disjoint, we can predict which production should be used simply by looking at the current input symbol
 - Basis for predictive parsing through LL(1) grammars

Computing FIRST

- FIRST for a grammar symbol X
 - If X is a terminal: FIRST(X) = { X }
 - If X is a nonterminal: for any production $X \rightarrow Y_1 Y_2 ... Y_n$
 - Any terminal in FIRST(Y₁) is in FIRST(X)
 - If FIRST(Y_1) contains ε , any terminal in FIRST(Y_2) is in FIRST(X)
 - If FIRST(Y_2) contains ε , etc.
 - If all FIRST(Y_i) contain ε , FIRST(X) also contains ε
 - If $X \rightarrow \varepsilon$ is a production, FIRST(X) contains ε
- FIRST for a string of grammar symbols $X_1X_2...X_n$
 - Any terminal in $FIRST(X_1)$
 - If FIRST(X_1) contains ε , any terminal in FIRST(X_2), etc.
 - If all FIRST(X_i) contain ε, add ε

Sets FOLLOW

- For any nonterminal A: FOLLOW(A) contains any terminal that could appear immediately to the right of A in some sentential form
 - $-S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha A \alpha \beta$ where α is a terminal, means $\alpha \in FOLLOW(A)$
 - S \Rightarrow αA means \$ ∈ FOLLOW(A); \$ is a special "endmarker" that is not in the grammar (i.e. end-of-file)
- $\$ \in FOLLOW(S)$ where S is the starting nonterminal
- $A \rightarrow \alpha B\beta$: everything in FIRST(β) except for ε is in FOLLOW(B)
- $A \rightarrow \alpha B$ or $A \rightarrow \alpha B \beta \wedge \epsilon \in FIRST(\beta)$: everything in FOLLOW(A) is in FOLLOW(B)

Example of FIRST and FOLLOW Sets

Grammar with eliminated left recursion

```
E \rightarrow TE'
   E' \rightarrow + TE' \mid -TE' \mid \varepsilon
    T \rightarrow F T'
   T' \rightarrow *FT' \mid /FT' \mid \epsilon
   F \rightarrow (E) \mid id
FIRST(F) = FIRST(T) = FIRST(E) = \{ (, id) \}
FIRST(E') = \{+, -, \epsilon\} and FIRST(T') = \{*, /, \epsilon\}
FOLLOW(E) = FOLLOW(E') = \{ \$, \} \}
FOLLOW(T) = FOLLOW(T') = \{+, -, \$, \}
FOLLOW(F) = \{ *, /, +, -, \$, \} \}
```

LL(1) Grammars

- Suitable for predictive (no backtracking) recursivedescent parsing
 - LL = "scan the input left-to-right; produce a leftmost derivation"; 1 = "use 1 symbol to decide"
 - A left-recursive grammar cannot be LL(1)
 - An ambiguous grammar cannot be LL(1)
- For any $A \rightarrow \alpha \mid \beta$
 - FIRST(α) and FIRST(β) are disjoint sets (including for ϵ)
 - − If ε ∈ FIRST(α): FIRST(β) and FOLLOW(A) are disjoint
 - − If ε ∈ FIRST(β): FIRST(α) and FOLLOW(A) are disjoint
- The production to apply can be chosen based on the current input symbol

LL(1) Parser

- Define a predictive parsing table
 - A row for a nonterminal A, a column for a terminal α
 - Cell [A,a] is the production that should be applied when we are inside A's parsing procedure and we see a
 - If the grammar is LL(1) only one choice per cell

	id	+	-	*	/	()	\$
Ε	$E \rightarrow TE'$					$E \rightarrow TE'$		
E'		$E' \rightarrow + TE'$	$E' \rightarrow -TE'$				$E' \rightarrow \varepsilon$	$E' \rightarrow \varepsilon$
Т	$T \rightarrow F T'$					$T \rightarrow F T'$		
T'		$T' \rightarrow \varepsilon$	$T' \rightarrow \epsilon$	$T' \rightarrow *FT'$	$T' \rightarrow / FT'$		$T' \rightarrow \varepsilon$	$T' \rightarrow \varepsilon$
F	$F \rightarrow id$					$F \rightarrow (E)$		

Left Factoring of a Grammar

- The decision is impossible due to a common prefix
- Original grammar: $A \rightarrow \gamma \mid \alpha \beta_1 \mid ... \mid \alpha \beta_n$
- New grammar: $A \rightarrow \gamma \mid \alpha A'$ and $A' \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid ... \mid \beta_n$
- Example (ignore the ambiguity for now)

```
stmt → if expr then stmt
| if expr then stmt else stmt
| other
```

Left-factored version

```
stmt \rightarrow if expr then stmt rest | other rest \rightarrow else stmt | <math>\epsilon
```

Example: Dangling Else

Full grammar

```
stmt \rightarrow if expr then stmt rest | other rest \rightarrow else stmt | <math>\epsilon expr \rightarrow bool
```

- FIRST(stmt) = { if , other } FIRST(rest)={ else , ε }
- FOLLOW(stmt) = FOLLOW(rest) = { \$, else }

	other	bool	else	if	then	\$
stmt	$stmt \rightarrow other$			$stmt \rightarrow if expr then$ $stmt rest$		
rest			$rest \rightarrow \textbf{else} \ stmt$ $rest \rightarrow \varepsilon$			$rest \rightarrow \varepsilon$
expr		$expr \rightarrow bool$				

Another Algorithm: Explicit Stack

- Top of stack: terminal or nonterminal X; current input symbol: terminal a
- Push S on top of stack
- While stack is not empty
 - If (X == a)
 - Pop stack and move to the next input symbol
 - Else if (X == some other terminal) Error
 - Else if (table cell $[X, \alpha]$ is empty) Error
 - Else: table cell [X,a] contains $X \rightarrow Y_1Y_2...Y_n$
 - Pop stack
 - Push Y_n, Push Y_{n-1}, ..., Push Y₁

Bottom-Up Parsing

- In general, more powerful than top-down parsing
 - E.g., LL(k) grammars are not as general as LR(k)
- Basic idea: start at the leaves and work up
 - The parse tree "grows" upwards
- Shift-reduce parsing: general style of bottom-up parsing
 - Used for parsing LR(k) grammars
 - Used by automatic parser generators: given a grammar, it generates a shift-reduce parser for it (e.g., yacc, CUP)
 - yacc = "Yet Another Compiler Compiler"
 - CUP = "Constructor of Useful Parsers"

Reductions

Expressions again (OK to be left-recursive)

```
E \rightarrow E + T \mid E - T \mid T

T \rightarrow T * F \mid T / F \mid F

F \rightarrow (E) \mid id
```

- At a reduction step, a substring matching the body of a production is replaced with the head
 E.g., E + T is reduced to E because of E → E + T
- Parsing is a sequence of reduction steps
 (1) id * id
 (2) F * id
 (3) T * id
 (4) T * F
 (5) T
 (6) E
- This is a derivation in reverse: $E \Rightarrow T \Rightarrow T * F \Rightarrow T * id \Rightarrow F * id \Rightarrow id * id$

Overview of Shift-Reduce Parsing (1/2)

- Left-to-right scan of the input
- Perform a sequence of reduction steps which correspond (in reverse) to a rightmost derivation
 - If the grammar is not ambiguous: there exists a unique rightmost derivation $S = \gamma_0 \Rightarrow \gamma_1 \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow \gamma_n = w$
 - Each step also updates the tree (adds a parent node)
- At each reduction step, find a "handle"
 - If $\gamma_k \Rightarrow \gamma_{k+1}$ is $\alpha A v \Rightarrow \alpha \beta v$, then production $A \rightarrow \beta$ in the position following α is a handle of γ_{k+1}
 - Note that v is a string of terminals
 - Non-ambiguous grammar: only one handle of γ_{k+1}
 - For convenience we will call β the handle, not $A \rightarrow \beta$

Overview of Shift-Reduce Parsing (2/2)

- A stack holds grammar symbols; an input buffer holds the rest of the string to be parsed
 - Initially: the stack is empty, the buffer contains the entire input string
 - Successful completion: the stack contains the starting nonterminal, the buffer is empty
- Repeat until success or error
 - Shift zero or more input symbols from the buffer to the stack, until the top of the stack forms a handle
 - Reduce the handle

Example of Shift-Reduce Parsing

Example of Silit Reduce Farsing				
Stack	Input	Action		
empty	id ₁ * id ₂ \$	Shift		
id ₁	* id ₂ \$	Reduce by $F \rightarrow id$		
F	* id_ \$	Reduce by $T \rightarrow F$		

IU2 Y Shift

* id₂ \$ id₂ \$ Shift

\$ Reduce by $F \rightarrow id$ $T * id_2$

\$ Reduce by $T \rightarrow T * F$

\$ Reduce by $E \rightarrow T$ \$ Accept

T * F

Conflicts During Shift-Reduce Parsing

- LR(k) parser: knowing the content of the stack and the next k input symbols is enough to decide
 - LR="scan left-to-right; produce a rightmost derivation"
 - -LR(k) grammar: exists an LR(k) parser for it
 - For each LR(k) grammar there is an equivalent LR(1) grammar; thus, we only consider LR(1) parsers
- Non-LR grammar: conflicts during parsing
 - Shift/reduce conflict: shift or reduce?
 - Reduce/reduce conflict: several possible reductions
 - Typical example: any ambiguous grammar
- See examples in Section 4.5.4

LR Parsers

- A category of shift-reduce parsers
 - Table-driven; no backtracking; efficient
 - Enough for real-world programming languages
 - Detect parse errors early (error messages/recovery)
 - Cover all LL grammars, and beyond
- SLR parsers ("simple-LR", Section 4.6), LALR parsers ("lookahead-LR", Section 4.7), canonical-LR (most general; Section 4.7)
 - LARL is the approach most often used in practice e.g., yacc, bison, CUP
- Many technical details; we will not cover them

CUP Parser Generator

- www.cs.princeton.edu/~appel/modern/java/CUP/
 - These are the "old" versions: 0.10k and older
 - Version 11 available, but we will not use it
- Input: grammar specification
 - Has embedded Java code to be executed during parsing
- Output: a parser written in Java
- Often uses a scanner produced by JLex or JFLex
- Key components of the specification:
 - Terminals and nonterminals
 - Precedence and associativity
 - Productions: terminals, nonterminals, actions

Simple CUP Example

[Assignment: get it from the web page under "Resources", run it, and understand it – today!]

- calc example: already considered for JFlex
 - Sample input: 5*(6-3)+1;
 - Sample output: 5 * (6 3) + 1 = 16

```
import java_cup.runtime.*;
                             Copied in the produced parser.java
parser code {: some Java code :};
terminal SEMI, PLUS, MINUS, TIMES, DIVIDE, LPAREN, RPAREN;
non terminal Object expr_list, expr_part;
non terminal Integer expr, factor, term;
expr_part ::= expr:e {: System.out.println(" = " + e); :} SEMI;
expr ::= expr:e PLUS factor:f {: RESULT = new Integer(e.intValue() + f.intValue()); :}
     | expr:e MINUS factor:f {: RESULT = new Integer(e.intValue() - f.intValue()); :}
     | factor:f {: RESULT = new Integer(f.intValue()); :};
factor ::= ...
term ::= LPAREN expr:e RPAREN {: RESULT = e; :} | NUMBER:n {: RESULT = n; :} :} ;
```

Project 2

- Extend Project 1 with a parser
- Use Main from the web page (instead of MyLexer)
 - Similar to the Main class in calc
- Each non terminal has an associated String value
 - non terminal String X; in simpleC.cup
 - The String value: pretty printing of the sub-tree
 - The String value for the root should be a compilable C program that has exactly the same behavior as the input C program
 - No printing to System.out in the scanner or the parser