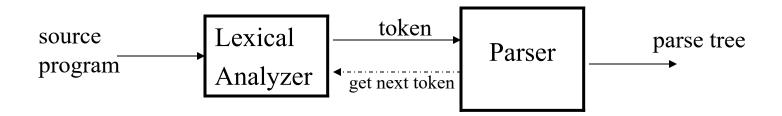
Parser

• Parser works on a stream of tokens.

• The smallest item is a token.



1

Syntax Analysis

- Context Free Grammar (CFG)
- Derivation
- Concrete and Abstract syntax tree
- Ambiguity

Formal Language

- An **Alphabet** is a set Σ of input symbols, that act as letters
- A Language over Σ is a set of strings made from symbols in Σ
- When scanning, our alphabets are ASCII and we produced tokens
- When parsing, our alphabets are set of tokens produced from Scanner.

The limit of Regular Language

- Regular Expression are weak to define programing languages
- Cannot define a regular expression matching all functions with properly nested block structure.
- We need more powerful formalism-(CFG) Context Free Grammar which is a superset of RE.
- The syntax analyzer (parser) checks whether a given source program satisfies the rules implied by a context-free grammar or not.

A context-free grammar

- -gives a precise syntactic specification of a programming language.
- the design of the grammar is an initial phase of the design of a compiler.
- a grammar can be directly converted into a parser by some tools.

Formal Definition of CFG

- CFG is a collection of 4 objects:
 - Set of non terminals / variables
 - Set of terminals
 - Set of production rules
 - Start symbol

Non Terminals: E, Op

Terminals: int, (,), +, -, *, /

$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathtt{int}$$

$$\mathbf{E} \to \mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E}$$

$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E})$$

$$\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{-}$$

$$\mathbf{Op} \to \star$$

$$\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{/}$$

Arithmetic Expression

- Suppose we want to describe all legal arithmetic expressions using addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.
- Here is one possible CFG:
- Input String is: *int* * (*int* + *int*)

```
Е
\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathtt{int}
                                                        \Rightarrow E Op E
\mathbf{E} \to \mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E}
                                                        \Rightarrow E Op (E)
\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E})
                                                        \Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{+}
                                                        \Rightarrow E * (E Op E)
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{-}
                                                        \Rightarrow int * (E Op E)
Op → *
                                                        \Rightarrow int * (int Op E)
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{/}
                                                        ⇒ int * (int Op int)
                                                        \Rightarrow int * (int + int)
```

CFG for Programing Languages

```
BLOCK \rightarrow STMT
          { STMTS }
STMTS
          STMT STMTS
STMT
        \rightarrow EXPR;
          if (EXPR) BLOCK
          while (EXPR) BLOCK
          do BLOCK while (EXPR);
           BLOCK
EXPR
        → identifier
          constant
           EXPR + EXPR
           EXPR - EXPR
           EXPR * EXPR
```

Derivations: sequence of steps to derive a string

```
\mathbf{E}
\Rightarrow E Op E
\Rightarrow E Op (E)
\Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)
\Rightarrow E * (E Op E)
\Rightarrow int * (E Op E)
\Rightarrow int * (int Op E)
⇒ int * (int Op int)
⇒ int * (int + int)
```

Leftmost Derivations and Right most Derivations

• A leftmost derivation is a derivation in which each step expands the leftmost nonterminal

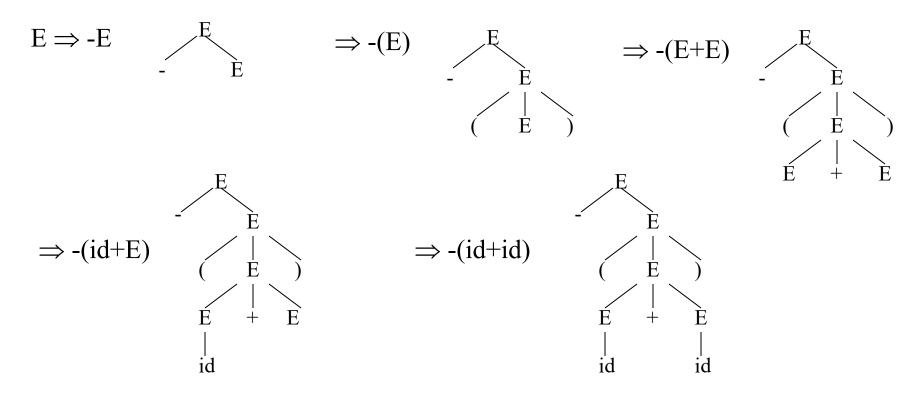
• A rightmost derivation is a derivation in which each step expands the rightmost nonterminal.

Leftmost Derivation

```
BLOCK \rightarrow STMT
         { STMTS }
                                 STMTS
STMTS → E
                               ⇒ STMT STMTS
        STMT STMTS
                               ⇒ EXPR; STMTS
STMT \rightarrow EXPR;
        if (EXPR) BLOCK
                               \Rightarrow EXPR = EXPR; STMTS
        while (EXPR) BLOCK
        do BLOCK while (EXPR);
                               ⇒ id = EXPR; STMTS
        BLOCK
                               ⇒ id = EXPR + EXPR; STMTS
EXPR
                               ⇒ id = id + EXPR; STMTS
     → identifier
        constant
                               ⇒ id = id + constant; STMTS
        EXPR + EXPR
        EXPR - EXPR
                               ⇒ id = id + constant;
        EXPR * EXPR
        EXPR = EXPR
```

Parse Tree

- Inner nodes of a parse tree are non-terminal symbols.
- The leaves of a parse tree are terminal symbols.
- A parse tree can be seen as a graphical representation of a derivation.

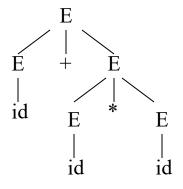


Ambiguity

• A grammar produces more than one parse tree for a sentence is called as an *ambiguous* grammar.

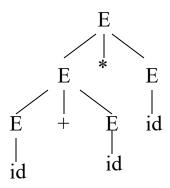
$$E \Rightarrow E+E \Rightarrow id+E \Rightarrow id+E*E$$

\Rightarrow id+id*id



$$E \Rightarrow E^*E \Rightarrow E+E^*E \Rightarrow id+E^*E$$

\Rightarrow id+id*E \Rightarrow id+id*id



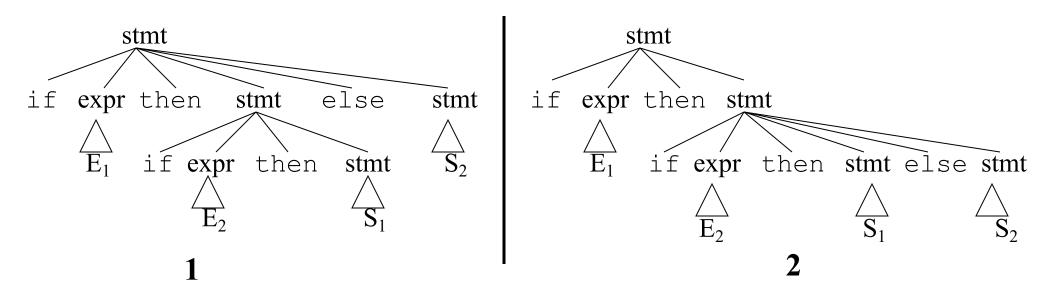
Ambiguity (cont.)

- For the most parsers, the grammar must be unambiguous.
- unambiguous grammar
 - → unique selection of the parse tree for a sentence
- We should eliminate the ambiguity in the grammar during the design phase of the compiler.
- An unambiguous grammar should be written to eliminate the ambiguity.
- We have to prefer one of the parse trees of a sentence (generated by an ambiguous grammar) to disambiguate that grammar to restrict to this choice.

Ambiguity (cont.)

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

if E_1 then if E_2 then S_1 else S_2



Ambiguity (cont.)

- We prefer the second parse tree (else matches with closest if).
- So, we have to disambiguate our grammar to reflect this choice.
- The unambiguous grammar will be:

```
stmt → matchedstmt | unmatchedstmt
matchedstmt → if expr then matchedstmt else matchedstmt | otherstmts
unmatchedstmt → if expr then stmt |
    if expr then matchedstmt else unmatchedstmt
```

The ambiguity

$$\mathbf{R}
ightarrow \mathbf{a} \mid \mathbf{b} \mid \mathbf{c} \mid$$
 $\mathbf{R}
ightarrow \mathbf{\epsilon}$
 $\mathbf{R}
ightarrow \mathbf{R}$
 $\mathbf{R}
ightarrow \mathbf{R}$

Precedence Declarations

- If we leave the world of pure CFGs, we can often resolve ambiguities through precedence declarations
- e.g. multiplication has higher precedence than addition, but lower precedence than exponentiation.

Allows for unambiguous parsing of ambiguous grammars

Abstract Syntax Trees (ASTs)

• A parse tree is a concrete syntax tree; it shows exactly how the text was derived.

• A more useful structure is an abstract syntax tree, which retains only the essential structure of the input.

How to build an AST?

- Typically done through semantic actions.
- Associate a piece of code to execute with each production.
- As the input is parsed, execute this code to build the AST.
- Exact order of code execution depends on the parsing method used.
- This is called a syntax-directed translation

Summary

- Syntax analysis (parsing) extracts the structure from the tokens produced by the scanner.
- Languages are usually specified by context-free grammars (CFGs).
- A parse tree shows how a string can be derived from a grammar.
- A grammar is ambiguous if it can derive the same string multiple ways.
- There is no algorithm for eliminating ambiguity; it must be done by hand.
- Abstract syntax trees (ASTs) contain an abstract representation of a program's syntax.
- Semantic actions associated with productions can be used to build ASTs.

Parsers

• We categorize the parsers into two groups:

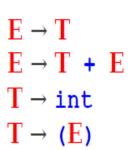
1. Top-Down Parser

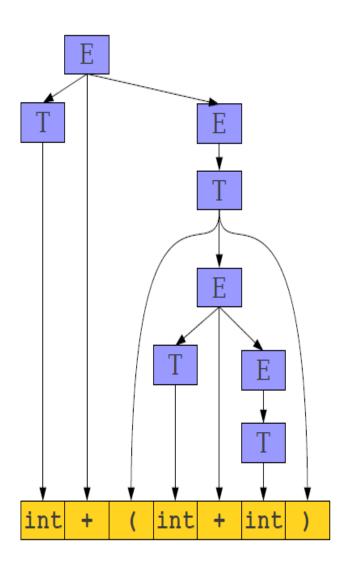
- the parse tree is created top to bottom, starting from the root.
- Beginning with the start symbol, try to guess the productions to apply to end up at the user's program

2. Bottom-Up Parser

- the parse is created bottom to top; starting from the leaves
- Beginning with the user's program, try to apply productions in reverse to convert the program back into the start symbol

Top Down Parser





$$E \rightarrow T + E$$

$$E \rightarrow int + T$$

$$E \rightarrow int + (E)$$

$$E \rightarrow int + (T + E)$$

$$E \rightarrow int + (int + T)$$

$$E \rightarrow int + (int + int)$$

Challenges in Top-Down Parsing

- Top-down parsing begins with virtually no information.
 - Begins with just the start symbol, which matches every program
- How can we know which productions to apply?

- In general, we can't.
 - There are some grammars for which the best we can do is guess and backtrack if we're wrong.
 - If we have to guess, how do we do it?

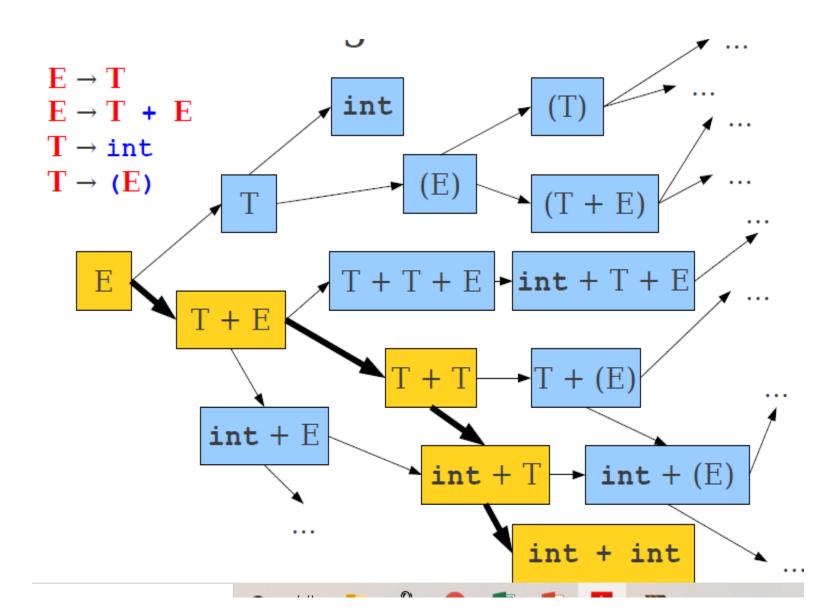
Parsing as a Search

• An idea: treat parsing as a graph search.

• Each node is a **sentential form** (a string of terminals and nonterminals derivable from the start symbol).

• There is an edge from node α to node β iff $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$.

Parsing as a search

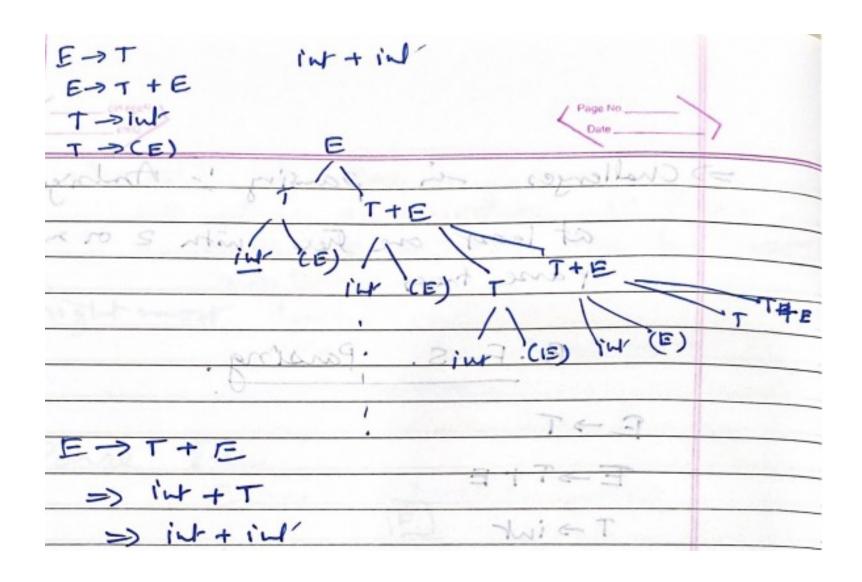


Top Down Approach

Breadth-First Search

- Maintain a worklist of sentential forms, initially just the start symbol S.
- While the worklist isn't empty:
 - Remove an element from the worklist.
 - If it matches the target string, you're done.
 - Otherwise, for each possible string that can be derived in one step, add that string to the worklist.
- Can recover a parse tree by tracking what productions we applied at each step.

BFS Example:



BFS is Slow

Enormous time and memory usage:

• Lots of wasted effort:

Generates a lot of sentential forms that couldn't possibly match.

But in general, extremely hard to tell whether a sentential form can match – that's the job of parsing!

• High branching factor:

Each sentential form can expand in (potentially) many ways for each nonterminal it contains.

Reducing Wasted Effort

- Suppose we're trying to match a string X.
 - Suppose we have a sentential form T = aB, where a is a string of terminals and B is a string of terminals and non terminals.
 - If a isn't a prefix of X, then no string derived from T can ever match X.
 - If we can find a way to try to get a prefix of terminals at the front of our sentential forms, then we can start pruning out impossible options.

Reducing the Branching Factor

- If a string has many non terminals in it, the branching factor can be high.
 - Sum of the number of productions of each nonterminal involved.

• If we can restrict which productions we apply, we can keep the branching factor lower.

Leftmost Derivations

- Recall: A **leftmost derivation** is one where we always expand the leftmost symbol first.
- Updated algorithm:
 - Do a breadth-first search, only considering leftmost derivations.
 - Drops branching factor.
 - Increases likelihood that we get a prefix of non terminals.
 - Prune sentential forms that can't possibly match.
 - Avoids wasted effort

Leftmost derivation example:

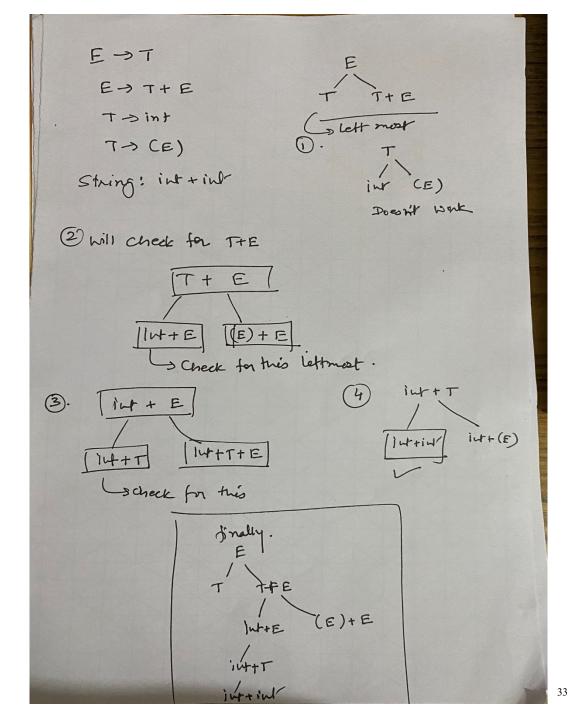
 $E \rightarrow T$

 $E \rightarrow T + E$

 $T \rightarrow int$

 $T \rightarrow (E)$

String: int + int



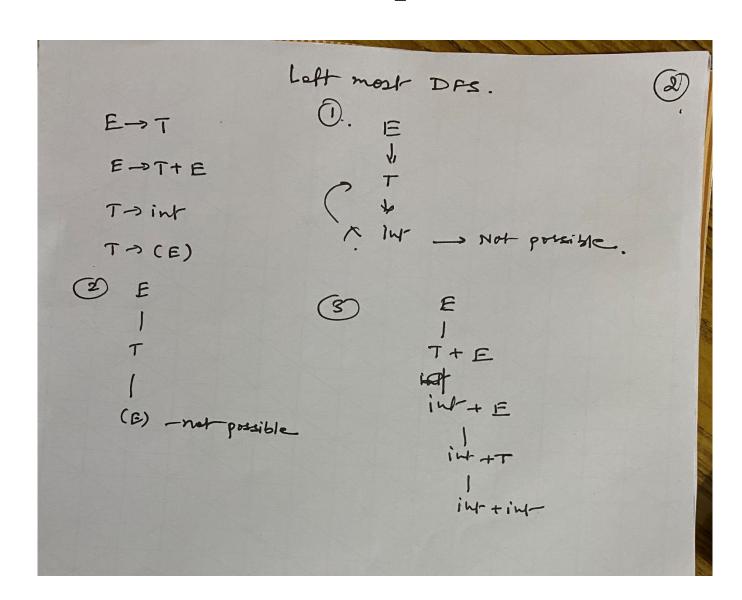
Leftmost BFS

- Substantial improvement over previous method.
- Will always find a valid parse of a program if one exists.
- Can easily be modified to find if a program can't be parsed.
- But, there are still problems. Grammar like
 - \circ **A** \rightarrow **Aa** | **Ab** | **c** creates exponential time and memory for the string: caaaaaaaaa
 - Go for another approach

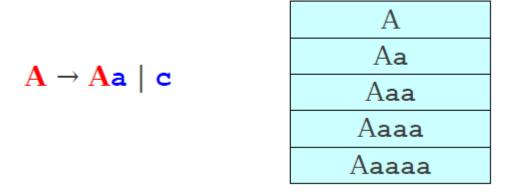
Leftmost DFS

- Idea: Use depth-first search.
 - -Advantages:
 - -Lower memory usage: Only considers one branch at a time.
 - -High performance: On many grammars, runs very quickly.
- Easy to implement: Can be written as a set of mutually recursive functions.

Example:



Problems with Leftmost DFS



- A non Terminal A is said to be left recursive iff A → Aw for some string w.
- Leftmost DFS may fail in left recursive grammar.
- It is possible to eliminate left recursion

Summary of Leftmost BFS / DFS

BFS	DFS
Leftmost BFS works on all grammars	Leftmost DFS works on grammars without left recursion.
Worst-case runtime is exponential.	Worst-case runtime is exponential.
Worst-case memory usage is exponential.	Worst-case memory usage is linear.
Rarely used in practice.	Often used in a limited form as recursive descent parser.

Tradeoffs in Prediction

- Predictive parsers are *fast*.
 - Many predictive algorithms can be made to run in linear time.
 - Often can be table-driven for extra performance.
- Predictive parsers are weak.
 - Not all grammars can be accepted by predictive parsers.
- Trade *expressiveness* for *speed*.

Lookahead Symbols

• Given just the start symbol, how do you know which productions to use to get to the input program?

Idea: Use lookahead tokens.

• When trying to decide which production to use, look at some number of tokens of the input to help make the decision

Predictive Parsing

- The leftmost DFS/BFS algorithms are backtracking algorithms.
 - Guess which production to use, then back up if it doesn't work.
- There is another class of parsing algorithms called **predictive** algorithms.
 - Based on remaining input, predict (without backtracking)
 which production to use

Implementing Predictive Parsing

- Predictive parsing is only possible if we can predict which production to use given some number of lookahead tokens.
- Increasing the number of lookahead tokens, increases the number of grammars we can parse, but complicates the parser.
- Decreasing the number of lookahead tokens, decreases the number of grammars we can parse, but simplifies the parser.

Predictive Parsing

$$\begin{split} E &\rightarrow T \\ E &\rightarrow T + E \\ T &\rightarrow \text{int} \\ T &\rightarrow \text{(E)} \end{split}$$

```
E
T + E
int + E
int + T
int + (E)
int + (T + E)
int + (int + E)
int + (int + T)
int + (int + int)
```

```
int + ( int + int )
```

Code for Recursive Descent Parser (RDP)

```
Procedure E()

: Call Procedure T()

| Call Procedure T(), match "+", Call Procedure E()

Procedure T()

: match "int"

: match "int"

| match "("

Call Procedure E,

match ")"
```